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A descriptive framework for communicative/linguistic
competences involved in the teaching and learning of history

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with a contribution by Werner Wiater

Languages across the curriculum within
Languages of Education

A descriptive framework for communicative/linguistic competences involved in the teaching and learning of history

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A descriptive framework for communicative/linguistic competences involved in the teaching and learning of history

Further to the Oslo seminar (31 January - 2 February) and on the basis of the seminar report drafted by Martin Sachse (History Sub-Group, *Report on Aims and Effects*) for the working group (which included Arild Thorbjørnsen and Jean-Claude Beacco), the following paper has been prepared for the Prague Conference (8-10 November).

It is set out as a provisional prototype of what could be a reference document for languages of (school) education, the focus of this Council of Europe activity.

On its own, this proposal will be relevant only insofar as it ties in with the proposals on linguistic competence specifications for other subjects and on teaching languages as a subject in their own right.

N.B. The terminology used in this document is not definitive: it will be revised according to the general terminological choices for the whole project.

Prototype for a reference document for languages across the curriculum (LAC) taking the example of history as a subject

Values (1)		
Values and the aims of the school subject (2)		
Language needs: out-of-school/social communication situations (3) and in-school communication situations (4)		
<p>On the basis of the school's language needs and educational choices, defining subject-specific teaching objectives, in other words, the history-related skills, comprising</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • subject competences (aimed at/expected) of a cognitive nature to be used in the processes or products of the subject: historical sciences • linguistic/semiotic competences (aimed at/expected) needed for managing this group of school situations • relevant kind of intercultural competence (aimed at/expected) (see 1 and 2: values) 		
<p>subject competences (5)</p> <p>in terms of</p> <p><i>component/competence</i> relating to the <i>epistemological</i> processes of the subject (5.1)</p> <p><i>component/competence</i> relating to subject knowledge (5.2)</p> <p>relating to cross-curricular specifications concerning the other subjects</p>	<p>linguistic/semiotic skills⁶)</p> <p><i>See below</i></p> <p>in terms of</p> <p><i>components/competences</i> relating to the cross-curricular specifications concerning language as a subject</p>	<p>intercultural skills</p> <p>in terms of</p> <p><i>component/competence</i> in relation to subject competences and linguistic/semiotic competence</p>

Linguistic/semiotic skills (6)
in terms of <i>strategic component/competence</i> (6.1. oral and written interaction, production, reception) linked with the cross-curricular specifications relating to the other subjects and language as a subject
in terms of <i>discursive component/competence</i> concerning the types of discourse or groups of discourse types selected (6.2), linked with the cross-curricular specifications relating to the other subjects and language as a subject
which will in turn lead to the definition of a <i>formal competence/component</i> in part described in the form of cognitive/discursive operations.(6.3, in correlation with 5.2.), based on formal conventions in the discourse types selected (but also including, for example 5.1, from the linguistic point of view), linked with the cross-curricular specifications relating to the other subjects and, in particular, language as a subject in its own right

1. Values: general aims of in-school training/teaching, seen from the point of view of plurilingual education

In a section of this type, the purpose of the Reference Document (hereafter RD) for languages in schooling is to identify the most relevant existing formulations of values shared by member states and to highlight their communicational/linguistic dimensions.

The role of languages of education in schools, as in education in general (whatever the context: the family, peer group, community, etc.), is to structure and assist the training and education of social players.

The aims of this training/education are shared by the member states of the Council of Europe as the basis for living in society in Europe.

Education is responsible for preparing future citizens and developing their potential by giving them the tools – and teaching them how to use such tools – needed for all aspects of life in society (personal relations, occupational activities, leisure activities, etc.) and by enabling them to understand the basic values of democratic life and make them part of their personal ethics.

The languages of Europe are therefore not only one of the raw materials used to build regional, “ethnic” and national cultural identities, but are also a means for experiencing otherness. Plurilingual education seeks to enhance the value of individual language repertoires and to organise training throughout life to ensure that they develop appropriately.

The values of the Council of Europe that have a formative influence on education are as follows:

- democratic citizenship: its participatory dimension presupposes that citizens have the linguistic means to manage the communication situations of political and collective social life. Exercising this citizenship brings several capacities into play: for example, in the context of critical pedagogy, the components of education are seen as: (interactive) thought, critical reflection, the capacity to decentre, the capacity for social dialogue, the capacity to act, etc.¹;
- social cohesion, built through equitable access to education and knowledge and intercultural/inter-faith dialogue;
- the development of a society that draws its resources from the production of knowledge;
- the development of individuals in a social space and making learners autonomous, the purpose of any educational process.

In the *Report on Aims and Effects* (2.1.), written after the meeting of the authors of the present study in Oslo, these educational aims were formulated as follows:

“[...] the new instrument is likely to address many more complex issues than the current CEFR, amongst others namely:

- issues of multiple identity building through language use and education
- issues of “Bildung” through language education
- issues of thinking and cognitive development, based on language learning
- issues of knowing and acknowledging different linguistic and cultural traditions
- issues of literary, aesthetic and creative language use

¹ See Guilherme, M. (2002) *Critical Citizens for an Intercultural World*, Multilingual Matters, Clevedon (UK).

- issues of (advanced) bilingualism and how individuals can further develop their plurilingual profile beyond bilingualism
- issues of participation, social inclusion and social cohesion
- issues of developing intercultural competence [...]"

This part of the RD will be drafted according to the general aims proposed by each working group that will constitute a final working synthesis.

2. Aims of history teaching

In a section of this type (which could also be a sub-section of the preceding one) the reference document for languages of education might identify the values whose transmission is the particular responsibility of languages as a subject and/or language across the curriculum, as a whole or separately.

In order to identify the cross-curricular values to be developed in subject teaching, we will synthesise the specifications proposed for each subject. A classification typology will no doubt be necessary.

The RD should highlight:

- *how these aims relate to the general aims;*
- *their specific features;*
- *their operational nature for determining linguistic skills.*

Unlike other subjects that are the concern of languages of schooling, history teaching has been the subject of a great many Council of Europe initiatives, based on the idea of reconciliation and positive mutual influences among peoples. (Projects and programmes have included "History in the new Europe", "History teaching and the new initiative of the Secretary General" and "Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century"). It has also given rise to a number of recommendations on the principles, content and methods of history teaching, for example, Rec (1996) 1283 and Rec (2001)15 (reproduced in the appendix).

Stobart² identified the aims of history teaching as follows:

- promoting human rights, tolerance, understanding and multiperspectivity;
- developing critical thinking and the ability to recognise bias, prejudice and stereotypes;
- encouraging such attitudes as open-mindedness, acceptance of diversity, empathy and civil courage.

Recommendation R (2000) 13 confirmed that ideological falsification and the manipulation of history were incompatible with the fundamental principles of the Council of Europe and that there was a need to guarantee a clear and correct interpretation of historical sources of every type and nature, and freedom of access to archives.

Recommendation Rec (2001) 15 stresses the need to:

- "to make appreciable progress in developing a pluralist and tolerant concept of history teaching, inter alia, through the development of individual research and analysis capabilities;
- to highlight educational innovations, using both information technologies and new sources of teaching material;

² Stobart, M. (1998) "Towards a basic concept of historical literacy", (paper presented at the Congress on History Teaching, Paris 1994) in Council of Europe, *History and its Interpretations*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, p. 70.

- to draw up examples of open approaches to the central issues of twentieth-century European history".

The teaching of history in a democratic Europe should:

- occupy a vital place in the training of responsible and active citizens and in the developing of respect for all kinds of differences, based on an understanding of national identity and on principles of tolerance;
- play a vital role in the promotion of fundamental values, such as tolerance, mutual understanding, human rights and democracy;
- be one of the fundamental parts of the freely agreed building of Europe based on a common historical and cultural heritage, enriched through diversity, even with its conflictual and sometimes dramatic aspects;
- make it possible to develop in pupils the intellectual ability to analyse and interpret information critically and responsibly, through dialogue, through the search for historical evidence and through open debate based on multiperspectivity, especially on controversial and sensitive issues;

According to Rec. (2001) 15, the main aims of 21st century history teaching are as follow:

- “occupy a vital place in the training of responsible and active citizens and in the developing of respect for all kinds of differences, based on an understanding of national identity and on principles of tolerance;
- be a decisive factor in reconciliation, recognition, understanding and mutual trust between peoples;
- play a vital role in the promotion of fundamental values, such as tolerance, mutual understanding, human rights and democracy;
- be one of the fundamental parts of the freely agreed building of Europe based on a common historical and cultural heritage, enriched through diversity, even with its conflictual and sometimes dramatic aspects;
- be part of an education policy that plays a direct role in young people’s development and progress, with a view to their active participation in the building of Europe, as well as the peaceful development of human societies in a global perspective, in a spirit of mutual understanding and trust;
- make it possible to develop in pupils the intellectual ability to analyse and interpret information critically and responsibly, through dialogue, through the search for historical evidence and through open debate based on multiperspectivity, especially on controversial and sensitive issues;
- enable European citizens to enhance their own individual and collective identity through knowledge of their common historical heritage in its local, regional, national, European and global dimensions;
- be an instrument for the prevention of crimes against humanity.”

These specifications concern values, but they also include definitions in terms of general competences (“analyse and interpret information critically and responsibly, through dialogue, through the search for historical evidence and through open debate based on multiperspectivity”), which will be taken into account in the relevant section of the RD.

As for multiperspectivity, R. Stradling (*Teaching 20th-century European history* 2003), says that within the context of history and history teaching, it aims to gain a more comprehensive and broader understanding of historical events and developments by taking into account the similarities and differences in the accounts and perspectives of all the parties involved with a view :

- to gain a deeper understanding of the historical relationships between nations, or cross-border neighbours, or majorities and minorities within national borders;
- to gain a clearer picture of the dynamics of what happened thorough examining the interactions between the people and groups involved and their interdependence.”

3. Social communication situations/types of discourse in which history is involved: inventory of expected competences

(all areas of the *Common European framework of Reference* (CEFR) except educational) see www.coe.int/lang)

In a section of this type the RD, like the Council of Europe Threshold Levels inventories, might make an inventory (as comprehensive as possible) of the social communication situations in which history is involved. Education should prepare learners to manage effectively such situations, which are social activities in various areas. The typologies of these domains and sub-domains could be based on existing ones (CEFR domains: personal, public, professional) or rethought.

This section of the RD can be regarded as a guide for an analysis of language needs to be used to specify the syllabus of a subject such as history.

These situations will be supplemented by inventories of forms of communication in school resulting from the teaching methods themselves. The inventory should be harmonised or brought into line with the other subjects.

History is used in numerous situations in life in society since it is the human and social science subject that can be most influenced by ideologies, social representations and stereotypes and is one of the “raw materials” used to construct identities. Provisionally, it can be said that history is used in the following:

- political discourse (parties, elected representatives, political leaders, etc.), where it is normally used for persuasive purposes (interpretation of the past), in particular to define national identity or the meaning to be given to historical events (slavery, colonialism, collaboration with totalitarian regimes, etc.);
- exchanges between citizens, in particular the “general knowledge” supposed to have been acquired;
- within the family and circle of friends where personal accounts are related against the background of the bigger picture of history;
- the construction of collective memory: celebrations of “great men”, heritage sites (such as commemorative plaques), statues, battlefields, national holidays, etc.;
- the general press (daily and weekly), in reports on historical works, archaeological discoveries, etc. or special features on a historical event as background to a current political event;
- the specialist press (usually monthly), which offers history magazines, both general and specialist (the Middle Ages, history of religions, etc.);
- film (historical films v. historical epics), novels and plays;
- television programmes, including historical documentaries;
- internet sites;
- re-enactments and historical shows;
- museums;
- monuments (stately homes, religious buildings, towns, etc.) and artistic productions that attract visitors;

- historiographic production for the general public or the “educated” public
- etc.

These situations will have to be listed more exhaustively and classified, possibly ranked in order of importance and cross-referenced. Some of these situations fall into the province of social life and the sphere of politics and active citizenship, others of the media, access to knowledge and the formation of opinions. They involve different forms of communication: oral/aural, written and audiovisual reception, oral interaction, etc. Situations involving oral and written production are underrepresented.

The relationship to history seems to play an important part in the formation of political opinions (through the often divergent interpretation of the “nature” of national identity and of the currents of thought to which people subscribe, for example). History is also an area of intercultural encounter with different societies (in time and space: ancient Egyptian society, for example), art and aesthetic education, discovery of the anthropological diversity of societies, customs and “mindsets”.

These social activities involving historical knowledge can be described in terms of linguistic capacities and types of discourse. Descriptors could be developed for each of them or for each group of communication situations.

Example

(discourse type: documentary, falling into the province of popularisation; aural reception)

Understanding historical documentaries (television)

- The descriptors in the two columns are not necessarily related or, at least, the relationship has to be theorised and constructed.
- They are not listed in increasing or decreasing order of competence.
- Affinities will need to be sought between those in the right-hand column and those of the CEFR (4.4.2.3: watching television programmes and films; understanding a documentary: B2).

History-related/cognitive skills Ability to:	Linguistic skills Ability to:
identify academic sources	understand the voice-over commentary
identify reasoning based on data/clues	understand interviews
spot the devices used to give popular appeal: dramatisation, mystery, enigma, “experts”	read maps, diagrams, tables
identify new knowledge	interpret editing, framing and lighting
place the subject in a broader context (chronological, cultural)	spot the definitions given in the voice-over
evaluate representational forms for television (e.g. as depicted by artists)	distinguish description from comment

identify simplifications, generalisations, lack of data, allusion to academic controversies	distinguish objective discourse from judgment (particularly aesthetic: <i>beautiful, magnificent, etc.</i>)
understand whether a particular argument is being conveyed	...
...	...

4. In-school communication situations/types of in-school discourse relating to history teaching: inventory of competences taught

(CEFR: educational domain)

In a section such as this the RD might list the forms of communication used in history teaching. The purpose of this (cognitive and methodological) organisation of linguistic interactions in class is to transmit values, help learners to form attitudes, ensure the transmission of knowledge (see 1 and 2) and prepare them, directly or indirectly, to manage the situations described in 3.

History teaching can be organised according to the general and specific aims described above. In order to do so, it is structured on the basis of a repertoire of methodological activities that it is important to define since the educational effectiveness of such teaching depends on how learners accept and participate in it.

Such methodologies vary according to educational traditions and the methodological choices made in the syllabuses that impact on such teaching³.

They are the result of different objectives and can be described separately as communication activities. They derive from national/regional monograph surveys or studies that, on the basis of class observations or indirect data (interviews with teachers, inspectors, head teachers, etc.), are able to identify active and dominant history-teaching methodologies.

It can already be assumed that the following approaches are used:

- presentation by the teacher (including general narration, interpretations and comments, analysis of primary sources, explanation of terms and concepts, etc.) using visual aids (maps, diagrams, data tables, reproductions of evidence, etc.) (OP, AuR and WP⁴ (note-taking) for learners);
- teacher-learner interaction about the presentation and/or data (OI);
- learners read the textbook (WR);
- presentations by learners (OP) based on notes, PowerPoint, etc.;
- debates (adversarial/multiperspective, OI) organised by learners (on the basis of texts or notes: WP);
- research information (WR and WP; note-taking);
- analysis and summary of text files (WR and WP);
- reviews of books, television programmes (WP or OP);

³ See case studies: Bavaria (Germany; secondary education (upper secondary) *Gymnasium, Hauptschule, Realschule*, by Martin Sachse), Norway (by A. Thorbjørnsen), France (Collège, by J.-C. Beacco)]

⁴ Coding of communication activities based on the CEFR: R = reception; P = production; I = interaction; O = oral; W = written.

- reaction to a historical film watched as a class (OI);
- reading texts by historians (WR);
- project activities (that link different competences, for example, making a promotional pamphlet or film for a monument): individual and/or group research;
- introduction to historical methodology: for example, gathering testimonies about the recent past, collation, analysis and commentaries, analysis of the street names of a town, etc. (WP), draft text for a guide explaining a painting for tourists.
- production of personal or imaginative texts (WP);
- historical simulation
- etc..

These history-teaching activities can be described in terms of linguistic capacities and types of discourse.

Example

(discourse type, relating to oral production)

Giving a (prepared) presentation to the class

- The descriptors in the two columns are not necessarily related or, at least, the relationship has to be theorised and constructed.
- They are not listed in increasing or decreasing order of competence.
- Affinities will need to be sought between those in the right-hand column and those of the CEFR (4.4.1.1: addressing audiences).

History-related/cognitive skills Ability to:	Linguistic skills Ability to:
Read and summarise relevant documentation	Descriptor B2 of the CEFR (p. 60): - follow up questions after the presentation - give a clear systematically developed presentation - depart spontaneously from a prepared text
Locate the different sources of information	<i>Descriptor C1</i> (ibid.)
Adapt an existing historical discourse	<i>Descriptor C2</i> (ibid.)
Interpret primary data	Present and organise the linguistic commentary of a painting, diagram, sketch: reference to space
Interpret quantitative data	Make the presentation attractive: manage voice and intonation
Report the opinion of professional historians	Use discourse markers appropriately
Give and support one's own point of view, explaining its source and nature	State a plan

5. Competences in history (1): subject competences

In a section or set of sections of this type the RD might list the linguistic-cognitive resources needed to learn/teach the management of discourse / in-school activities of 3. They could be based on sections 4 and 5 of the CEFR.

5.1. Epistemological competence

The expertise that has to be taught has been defined as “historical literacy”⁵.

In order to develop open-mindedness, tolerance, empathy, civil courage, imagination and pleasure through historical knowledge, it is important to develop “cognitive skills” or “expertise” in history, defined by Stobart as the ability to:

- handle and analyse different forms of information and documents;
- frame relevant questions;
- arrive at balanced, responsible conclusions;
- see other points of view
- recognise and accept differences;
- detect error, bias and prejudice;
- develop curiosity.

Historical concepts are general ideas. They provide a means of:

- organising historical knowledge
- organising ideas about history
- making generalisations
- recognising similarities and differences
- finding patterns
- establishing connections

Two groups of concepts are relevant here.

- In the first group, which we may call a kind of first order of concepts because they are substantial for the study and teaching of history, we find examples like: revolution, imperialism, democracy, dependence and interdependence, resistance, terrorism, fascism, co-operation, etc.
- In the second group we find concepts which do not necessarily exclusively belong to history, but they give an understanding of how historical knowledge and understanding is created and constructed. These concepts include: time, causation, continuity, change, chronology, comparison, evidence and sources.

Later, R. Stradling⁶ proposed the following list of what he called *core skills*:

- ability to formulate relevant questions;
- ...

⁵ Stobart, M. (1998) “Towards a basic concept of historical literacy”, in Council of Europe, *History and its Interpretations*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, p. 64ff.

⁶ Stradling, R. (2001), *Teaching 20th-century European history*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, pp. 97-98.

- ability to examine potential sources of information and distinguish between primary and secondary sources;
- ability to assess such sources in terms of perspective, bias, accuracy and reliability;
- ability to recognise one's own perspective, bias and prejudice and take account of them when interpreting the available evidence;
- ability to use the sources available to identify relevant information to help students answer their questions;
- ability to structure this information on a particular event or situation into a sequence (what happened first and then subsequently, what was happening contemporaneously, etc.);
- ability to contextualise the information by relating it to the information already available about the period, parallel events, etc.;
- ability to scrutinise the available source material for reasons and to rank them in terms of their significance;
- ability to reach conclusions about what happened and why and to provide reasons for these conclusions.

In another document⁷, the same author suggests activating these competences by:

- introducing historiography as a particular form of the construction of knowledge;
- introducing multiperspectivity into historical narration;
- broadening the scope and ambitions of narration (for example, with respect to the Crusades⁸: Crusaders' and Muslims' points of view).

In these and other inventories of this kind, the skills that are actually within the scope of teaching need to be identified since there is a great risk of modelling them on the competences of professional historians. There is also a need to bring out how they presuppose each other so that a realistic progression can be planned, above all according to the cognitive development of learners at school.

5.2. Competences concerning knowledge of the subject

5.2.1. Knowledge strictly speaking

Historical content is traditionally synonymous with encyclopaedic knowledge: political and military events, stories about persons playing key roles and explanations of why things happened the way they did. Historical knowledge in this sense is about knowing "what" and "why". This knowledge is often presented in textbooks and has a certain narrative structure. It is presented as a "story" about a series of events placed in time and space and where certain causes lead to certain effects.

Beyond this ordinary conception, such knowledge concerns above all what it is hoped that learners will "retain" from their history lessons. There needs to be an inventory of possible choices in the RD that includes categorisations such as:

- knowledge of general historical processes taking place over the long term (the expansion of agriculture in Europe [neolithisation], the birth of capitalism, the establishment of the republic in France, etc.);

⁷ Stradling, R. (2003) *Multiperspectivity in history teaching: a guide for teachers*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg.

⁸ Thus moving to an intercultural perspective.

- understanding this type of process at the level of the major regions of Europe and the world, with their implications for more specific areas (nation-states, regions, towns, etc.);
- understanding the events that have structured the active collective memory, in other words, those whose consequences and interpretations are relevant to contemporary society;
- knowledge of certain places, individuals and works significant for those changes
- etc.

This first attempt at an inventory needs to be revised according to existing forms of definitions of such contents in the syllabuses of member states. It should take into account the tendency for syllabuses to be structured around national, and therefore not necessarily intercultural, history, and around specific rather than general historical processes (of an anthropological [e.g. court society], economic [e.g. feudal economy] or aesthetic and intellectual [e.g. the Enlightenment, Romanticism] nature).

5.2.2. Categories and concepts

"[...] discourse on historical reality should be ordered around focal points that give some unity of expression and make it possible to subsume the diversity of events and the specific perspectives that transform a mere series of events into a meaningful narrative [...] such categories result from the facts examined and the historian's reading of them. They constitute the meeting-point of the literal meaning of events and the significance given to them by the historian"⁹. Depending on the weight given to such categories in historical knowledge and discourse, it is agreed that in history teaching it is important to ensure that learners grasp these central concepts that enable events to be organised intelligibly and compared with each other. Most such categories of historical knowledge are intimately linked with a specific period; for example, for the 19th and 20th centuries, revolution and counter-revolution, nationalism, colonialism and decolonisation, fascism, etc., but for the 15th and 16th centuries, Renaissance, Reformation and Counter-Reformation, etc., and over a longer period, the concept of the town.

In addition to the objects constructed by historical knowledge, the concepts on which it is based should also be taken into account (see above, introduction to historiography), such as, for example:

- chronology, temporality, period;
- event, trend, evolution, structure;
- continuity, change, break, "progress";
- civilisation, culture;
- causation, causes;
- processes of comparison;
- evidence-related processes;
- interpretation-related processes;
- etc.

Other categories are the product of specific areas, periods or cultures and are often referred to in their original form and therefore in a foreign language (in English, for example, *ostracism* [Greece], *nome* [Egypt], *auto-da-fé* [Spain and Portugal], *aggiornamento* [Italy], *boyars* and *muzhik* [Russia]).

⁹ Prelman, C. (1969) *Les catégories en histoire*, Editions de l'Institut de sociologie, Université libre de Bruxelles, p. 12.

Full understanding of these categories involves going back to the original meaning of these words, and to some extent separating this from how they are generally used today.

6. History-related competences (2): linguistic and semiotic competences

In this section the RD might describe, specify and possibly list in order of priority the linguistic and semiotic competences that enable communication situations with historical dimensions to be managed.

In order to manage discourses and history-related communication situations in school, linguistic skills are also essential, since they are inseparable from the discursive forms identified in 3 and 4. They should not be restricted to learners' ability to construct historical narratives, even clear and "logical" ones, on the basis of data because narration is an abstract type of text that is used in many historical genres; historical narrative is a very specific type of narration¹⁰ and far from covers all the in-school and out-of-school communication situations in which history is drawn on, used, discussed and constructed.

As a first attempt to specify those key skills, it could be said that in order to be able to critically analyse, interpret and evaluate historical evidence and develop a sense of history, students should be able to:

- formulate relevant questions
- examine an historical issue or question and suggest possible lines of enquiry
- evaluate historical sources in terms of perspective, bias, accuracy, reliability
- recognise their own perspective and take it into account in their interpretation of the available evidence
- use these sources to identify relevant information to help answer their questions
- structure the information on a particular event or situation into a sequence (what happened first, etc.)
- contextualise the information by relating it to the information they already have about the period, parallel events, etc.
- reach some conclusions about what happened and why and provide reasons for their conclusions

In order to do this, a simplified version of the CEFR model of communicative competence will be adopted provisionally on an exploratory basis. We will break it down into four groups of components,¹¹ the first three of which make up communication competence as such (centred on its median constituent: competence relating to types of discourse) and the last of which can be called communicative in the specific sense of intercultural communication:

Communicative language competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • strategic component/competence (see 6.1) • discourse component/competence (such as mastering types of discourse) (see 6.2) • formal component/competence (see 6.3)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ethnolinguistic component

¹⁰ Rancière, J. (1992), *Les mots de l'histoire. Essai de poétique du savoir*, Le Seuil, Paris.

¹¹ See Beacco, J.-C. (2007) *L'approche par compétences dans l'enseignement des langues*, col. Langues et didactique, Didier, Paris.

intercultural competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [...] • interpretation component • educational component targeting open intercultural attitudes (see 1 and 2)¹²
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The classification adopted will commence with the discourse component.

6.1. Strategic competence

The purpose of this section of the RD is to identify and specify the skills needed to manage texts (in the meaning of the CEFR) in school and, indirectly, outside school by making an inventory of descriptors (see 3). General communicative ability includes a psycho-cognitive component termed *strategic* that controls observable linguistic behaviour in order to generate, produce and understand texts. “*Strategies* are a means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose.” (CEFR p.57)

In the CEFR the strategies are situated at the same level as communicative activities (as oral/written interaction [OI/WI], oral/written production [OP/WP], aural/written reception [AuR/WR]). This level of specification enables teachable components to be defined in terms of planning, execution, evaluation and repair (CEFR, 4.4.1.3. for OP/WP, 4.4.2.4. for OR/WR and 4.4.3.3. for OI/WI), which seem independent of the languages and discourses used and can therefore be used in an RD on languages of schooling.

These CEFR inventories could form the basis of an initial inventory of strategies according to communicative activities, taking the constraints into account (see CEFR 7.3.2.), adapted to the teaching of school and out-of-school genres relating to history, in particular the planning descriptors (p. 64), that will no doubt need to be developed, and those of monitoring/repair (p. 65).

6.2. Discourse competence

Type of discourse or *discourse type* means here the forms of communication as it takes place in a given social situation and communication community, identified as such by parameters (place, type of participants, etc.) and which takes a specific discursive form, such as a lecture, news item, anecdote, dispute, myth or prayer. Such verbal production tends to comply with the rules characterising these situations (or, rather, these communication events, in D. Hymes’ definition) as regards content, structure and verbal production that are to varying degrees ritualised and constrained. The CEFR preferred the concept of pragmatic competence, which also refers to the conventions of discourse, and ‘text’ to ‘type of discourse’, to refer to the user’s/learner’s specifically communicative and linguistic competences. We have decided to use the concept of *type of discourse* to refer to the situational/social component of in-school/out-of-school communication competence for a number of reasons:

- The names of the types are common words familiar to most speakers, whose idea of them may be vague, but not without interest for teaching activities¹³. Discourse types are thus the immediate form in which language gives rise to speakers: they are therefore able to identify them and produce some of them, even without teaching, according to their own discursive repertoire (see below).

¹² These competences will not be dealt with in this document.

¹³ Beacco, J.-C. & Petit, G. (2004) “Lexique ordinaire des noms du dire et les genres discursifs”, dans Beacco J.-C. (ed.), *Représentations métalinguistiques ordinaires et discours*, *Langages* 154, pp. 87-100.

- The concept of 'type of discourse' is less abstract and more precise than 'type of text' (narrative, descriptive, imperative, expository, persuasive, etc.). The latter has never really been adequate for describing classes of texts since it is clear that most actual texts correspond simultaneously to several types.
- Above all, the concept of type of discourse is essential with respect to teaching/learning. The types are not universal discursive forms, even in a single linguistic/social space (sociolinguistic differences in the degree and extent of mastering types). Some types have no equivalent in other languages; in a single linguistic space some speakers have access to some types, while others have little or no mastery of them, or do not know them at all.
- Acquisition of a communicative competence presupposes the ability to recognise and appropriate these variations of discourse cultures, which cannot be regarded simply as knowledge of social variations (status, role, etc.).

The effective repertoires of members of a specific language community are not identical, even if they probably have a lowest common denominator, such as mastery of certain ordinary interactive oral types. If the model of speaker used by the CEFR is of a speaker defined by an effectively or potentially plurilingual communicative competence, and if communicative competence is equivalent to plurilingual competence¹⁴, *genre/discourse repertoire* is superimposed on *plurilingual repertoire* in that the ability to communicate in one or more languages becomes apparent in the mastery of some of its/their discourse types.

The aims of education with regard to languages of schooling are, above all, to broaden learners' discourse repertoires (in some/all of the languages of their language repertoires) in relation to their initial experience of competence in discourse types.

For the discourses of history and the pedagogical discourses concerning history, familiarisation with the discourse types and the broadening of the range of discursive types available will be specified by the use of descriptors:

- concerning the identification of types (designation, common salient characteristics, etc.) and their relationship (similarity/difference) with the types learners already know;
- concerning their status, in other words their place among the types used (topology of types¹⁵). For example, in history it may be thought important for learners to know of the existence of different discourses such as (to limit ourselves to written publications):
 - academic discourses written by specialists for specialists (university, research, thesis discourse, etc.);
 - academic discourses creating new knowledge that is accessible to the ("educated") general public;
 - discourses of popularisation written in the form of books by professional historians, knowledgeable amateurs, authors specialising in popularising history (such as J. Decaux in France)¹⁶;

¹⁴ Coste, D. (2002) "Compétence à communiquer et compétence plurilingue", in Py B. & Castellotti V. (eds.) *La notion de compétences en langue*, Notions en questions, ENS éditions, Lyon, pp. 115-121.

¹⁵ For the study of a topology of types, see Beacco, J.-C. (ed.) (1999) *L'astronomie dans les médias*, Presses de la Sorbonne nouvelle, Paris.

¹⁶ See, for example, Beacco, J.-C. and Darot, M. (1984) "Discours didactique, discours de vulgarisation, discours de recherche en histoire" in *Analyses de discours. Lecture et expression*, Hachette/Larousse et BELC, Paris.

- the journalistic discourse types of the press specialising in history;
- the journalistic discourse types of the ordinary daily press relating to history (reviews of books, "discoveries" and exhibitions, interviews with historians, etc.);
- educational discourse in the form of history textbooks, summaries for school students;
- the encyclopaedic discourses of dictionaries, encyclopaedias, treatises, etc.
- concerning the type and degree of mastery that is expected of them (see 3 and 4).

These RD inventories are such as to enable different syllabuses to be devised on the basis of the same categorisations of discourse types.

6.3. Formal competence

Lexical/terminological competence has already been dealt with in part in section 5.2.2.

Discourse types can be described by using linguistic categories since discourse types are verbal objects but ones that are distinct from utterance, text, language act, etc. These forms of discourse are regarded, not as single or individual speech acts, but as displaying conventions independent of the speakers. These conventions are constructed in language communities and are to differing degrees shared by the members of those communities. They may be seen as relatively stable types of utterances, which define the appropriateness of the utterances (and not their accuracy or grammatical correctness), as being their compliance with that community's common rules on the acceptable forms of discourse types.

These conventions may be approached on the basis of various general linguistic categories (= independent of languages), such as:

- forms of actualisation of the speaker (for example, in English: I/me, we, one, impersonal, passive, reflexive, etc.);
- forms of actualisation of the person addressed;
- presence/distribution and expected forms (in a given type) of assertive, appreciative, deontic formulations;
- [...]
- presence/absence/distribution and forms of meta-discursive indications (statement of text plan, etc.);
- [...]
- standard form of certain paragraphs;
- discursive tone (serious, humorous, personal touches, etc.).
- etc.

From this point of view, all the descriptive categories used when analysing a discourse may serve as the starting-point for descriptors of formal mastery, especially with respect to reception or production. It nonetheless has to be taken into account that:

- texts of the same discourse type comply to varying degrees with the (often unstated) model underlying it;
- discourse types themselves may be conventional to varying degrees either as a whole or in some of their constituent parts (for example, the beginnings of scientific articles may be quite conventional/predictable while those of

newspaper articles are fairly unpredictable).

In order to avoid using complex terminology and laying down a wide range of conventions, it is probably preferable to try to describe the formal conventions of discourse types (the linguistic and structural productions of texts) by using categories that are more integrated and transversal than the previous categories. Here we refer to the *discursive operation* used in *A Threshold Level* (1976) or *cognitive process*, to be understood as the discursive representation (in the sense of production) of the cognitive processes called upon for the development/exposition of knowledge, such as: *deduce, discriminate, calculate, compare, check, classify, evaluate, infer, link*, etc. For example, in section IV.1 (discursive operations) of the part *Actes de Parole (Speech Acts)*, *Un Niveau-Seuil* suggested categories such as *quote, specify, illustrate/exemplify, explain, name, compare, argue, prove, judge/evaluate/assess, analyse, define, classify, describe, enumerate, recount, report a discourse, summarise*, etc. In order to describe an academic discourse in history, J.-C. Beacco¹⁷ uses cognitive/discursive operations/processes such as *represent* (textual or material data), *interpret* (data), in particular by *matching* (data and interpretations) and *comparing* (data and interpretations), *deduce* (interpretations/conclusions based on data), *justify* (deductions), *classify* and *categorise, define*.

It is more than likely that this category of “words” referring to cognitive operations has equivalents in all languages and that, given their cognitive status, one might be tempted to make a common inventory (for different languages and different subjects) that would enable linguistic competences to be specified.

For example, for *define* there would be descriptors such as:

In a type (T) or in types T1, T2, T3, etc., the learner is capable of recognising (W or O) and/or producing (W or O) and or improvising/creating/proposing a definition (OI/WI) appropriate to the Ts in question and of using the corresponding linguistic resources:

- through a series of examples
- through one or more comparisons
- through contrast
- by paraphrasing
- through hypernyms/hyponyms
- by giving a translation
- through etymology
- through internal characteristics
- by relating the term to concepts or a theory...
- etc.

Such inventories make it possible to move from specifications by strategic/discourse competence to the definition of specific language competences.

This specification will have to be based on language competences expected in other subjects and in the language as a subject.

7. Thresholds and assessment

Member states may identify thresholds of knowledge and skills on the basis of the common inventories of the RD according to:

¹⁷ Beacco, J.-C. (1988), *La rhétorique de l'historien. Une analyse de discours*, P. Lang, Berne

- our knowledge of learners' cognitive and socio-affective development which makes it possible to specify skills/knowledge at close hand
- educational traditions
- priorities according to national needs
- the values of the Council of Europe.

For assessment, see the text below by Werner Wiater.

This first draft of an RD for languages of schooling shows that such an undertaking is feasible and that the CEFR could be used as a basis (and even become part of the RD) by simplifying it to adapt it to particular languages considered as "non-foreign".

CASE STUDIES

Case study: France

Communicative/linguistic competences in the history syllabuses of the *Education nationale française*

Brief comments

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The ensuing comments are in line with the ongoing debate on teaching languages which was explored in particular detail at the Oslo seminar organised by the Council of Europe (February 2008) as part of the project "schooling languages". The comments should be seen as a contribution, however limited, to the draft reference document described in the document *A descriptive framework for communicative/linguistic competences involved in the teaching and learning of history*, which was presented at the Prague Conference (8-10 November 2007). They are mirrored in the two texts on the same subject based on history syllabuses in Bavaria and Norway.

These remarks will draw on the official texts of the French history syllabuses; they are in no way an attempt to analyse actual educational practices, in view of the type of data under consideration, and will therefore not serve to expand further on the hypotheses relating to the actual forms of communication that structure history lessons (see paragraph 4 of the aforementioned *Descriptive framework for communicative/linguistic competences involved in the teaching and learning of history*). They will be confined to specifying the wording used in the syllabuses to define communicative/linguistic competences in history classes, thus adopting the theoretical approach to discourse analysis.

1. Characteristics of French teaching syllabuses

France uses national school syllabuses, which are in the main developed by the Inspectorate General for each subject. They are published in official documents (decrees published in the *Bulletin Officiel de l'Éducation Nationale*). 6ème (1st form) syllabuses are governed by a decree of 22 November 1995, 5ème and 4ème (2nd and 3rd form) syllabuses by a text of 14 January 2002, and 3ème (4th form) syllabuses by a text of 2 July 2004. These syllabuses are published, together with a commentary and examples, and circulated by the National Educational Documentation Centre¹⁸. In lower secondary schools, history/geography/civics lessons account for 3 full hours out of a total number of hours which varies from year to year between 26 and 28).

This top-down organisation, which is a basic feature of the French education system, usually means that the actual modes of implementation (the syllabus and the *de facto* teaching methodology) can be highly diversified, with approaches varying widely in terms of compatibility with the reference text. However, these effects are offset by the teachers' manuals (which must comply with the official texts) and the system of regular inspections of teachers. Furthermore, syllabus content is relatively homogeneous (6ème pupils today learn ancient history in exactly the same way as their predecessors did in the 1950s) and does not radically change from one syllabus to the next: in fact, curricular reform in France is much rarer than in other European states.

In France, history is traditionally taught by a specialist teacher who is also responsible for teaching geography and civics. However, this combination of subjects does not prevent clear differentiation between the individual syllabuses for each subject, i.e. they are not necessarily interconnected in educational terms.

¹⁸ We shall be examining the document "*Enseigner au collège. Histoire, géographie, éducation civique. Programmes et accompagnements*" (Lower secondary school teaching: history, geography and civics, syllabuses and back-up), new edition in September 2004, previous edition in July 2002, *Centre National de Documentation Pédagogique*, Paris, 230 pp.

2. Lower secondary history syllabuses: the pedagogical aims

Lower secondary schools (*collèges*) were introduced in 1996 for pupils who have completed primary education (five years' schooling). They cater for the second phase of compulsory schooling, offering the same syllabuses and organisation for all (standard *collèges*). They offer four years of teaching (*cycle d'adaptation* [adaptation cycle] in *6ème*, *cycle central* [core cycle] in *5ème* and *4ème* and *cycle d'orientation* [orientation cycle] in *3ème*). Compulsory schooling ends with the *3ème*.

The syllabuses comprise three sections on educational aims, study themes (or teaching contents) and educational approaches.

The main purposes are civic in nature: "history and geography help educate citizens" (*6ème*, p. 14). Some also relate to the cultural and other types of heritage: "strive to provide a vision of the world (...) and promote remembrance" (*ibid*). This heritage is a "legacy of human civilisations for human beings today" and is seen as constituting everyone's identity: "this identity as an enlightened citizen is based on appropriating a given culture" (*ibid*). This identity does not comprise any national reference, but there are marked European references in other sections of the document.

These educational values have a long history in the French system, although they have not always been actually implemented. Nevertheless, it should be noted that they are accompanied by so-called "intellectual" objectives: history helps train an active intellect by teaching pupils to "read and identify", that is to say to "recognise and name", and then to organise what they have learnt to recognise. These cognitive operations are carried out by means of verbs such as *reading*, which should not be defined as deciphering/interpreting texts; they stress naming, i.e. identifying the concepts and terminology/lexica which serve to update them in terms of language and speech. However, in this initial section of the syllabus, these operations apparently place little emphasis on verbal expression, which is confined to "constructing a number of sentences to give meaning to the elements thus gathered" (*ibid*). While the limited nature of this verbal expression may be explained by the stage in the psycho-cognitive development of the pupils in question (they are 11 and 12 years old in *6ème*), it is striking that this verbal production has no discursive status, as if the aim of constructing the sentences was to verbalise rather than to communicate. The fact that the syllabuses prioritise the intellectual aspect, which is in fact the subject's epistemology (the previous statements of which are compact, simplified formulations), over the communicative dimension might suggest that scant room is left for any linguistic activities other than lexical ones.

3. Educational approaches and communicative/linguistic activities

In the section of the syllabus providing educational instructions on the organisation of teaching deals more fully with communicative/linguistic activities.

3.1 Communicative/linguistic competences in *6ème*

The instructions for *6ème* classes are rather vague: history, like geography and the other subjects, must give pupils the desire or opportunity to read ("encouraging them to read", p. 17). However, the syllabus says nothing about the purposes and modalities of such written comprehension exercises. It does not specify the type of texts to be read but merely recommends avoiding excerpts and prioritising editions tailored to the specific age group. Reading is mainly addressed from the angle of information research. There is a brief mention of reading the main history textbook, with teachers and school librarians being urged to teach the pupils how to "manage" their schoolbook.

The syllabus stresses that pupils must have exercise books that are "properly kept", but fails to specify the role of the latter (for taking notes or reproducing texts dictated by the teacher?). Moreover, the word "kept" refers to general features (formatting, neatness, illustrations, spelling, etc.) which are not exclusively linguistic.

As in the section on values, written production is centred on the autonomous or “guided” production of simple sentences. Here again, the discursive nature of these texts is not specified, even in general terms, and we must also interpret the possible implications of the teacher’s “guidance”, which can range from general assistance (with spelling, vocabulary, corrections, rereading, etc.) to the provision of actual discursive models. The wording, therefore, does not exclude any methodological approach to written production, but the role of the latter is not really clarified.

3.2 Communicative/linguistic competences in 5ème and 4ème

The methodological recommendations for the “core cycle” lower secondary classes are very similar to those set out for the 6ème.

The emphasis is on education for multichannel communication (comparing texts, maps, images and graphs), but the only recommendation on reading is that it should be “guided and supervised” (p. 71). The text adds that pupils must acquire the ability to manage their textbooks autonomously.

Written production activities are addressed in a similar manner to the grammatical aspects: “in 6ème, pupils have learnt to write simple sentences; in 5ème and 4ème they will be taught to link up these sentences and formulate short but demonstrative texts. In 3ème they must be capable of drafting coherent, well-argued texts”. (p. 73). Textuality is considered as a sequence of sentences (at first isolated and then connected), moving from the simple to the complex (paragraphs) with an eye to mastering a specific *demonstrative* or *argued* type of text, i.e. a text that presents an argument. No mention is made of the relation to the objectives and communicative/linguistic activities of French as a subject. These comments on written production would also seem to pass over in silence the whole area of linguistic utterance, and in particular the crucial issue of forms of linguistic subjectivity as compared with scientific objectivity and the viewpoint concept. The fact that the texts must be argued neither excludes nor explicitly suggests multicausality. No specific information is given on the discursive status of the texts or their roles in communication, which might lead to written production activities carried out “in vacuo”, aimed solely at manipulating linguistic resources: the texts to be produced would seem to lack any social objective, even of a virtual or “play” nature, or any identified social communication situation. This “grey area” in the syllabuses is liable to present text production more as an exercise in historical style than as education in social communication.

3.3 Communicative/linguistic competences in 3ème

In 3ème, the last year of lower secondary school (coinciding with the end of compulsory education), the stress is laid on the diversity of the reading strategies already acquired (although these strategies are not specified) or yet to be acquired (documentary, analytical cursive) (p.148), and these strategies are linked up with French, a subject in which they are also used (p. 149). Pupils are expected to be able to identify and link up a wide variety of information items, enabling them to “compare and classify the data”. This activity is described as a “critical construction” of historical knowledge. We might perhaps regret the lack of critical distance to and the narrow definition of this particularly important aspect of the matter.

In 3ème, lastly, written production consists in writing a coherent 15- to 20-line *paragraph* (rather than *text*) “demonstrating organisation of knowledge items and a search for explanatory factors” (p. 149). These texts mirror the parallel exercises in French classes on writing narrative texts. It is unclear whether the intention is to have pupils produce narrative texts in history (where historical knowledge is often limited, although this does not emerge clearly from the wording of the syllabus), or if the assumption is that narrative or argued texts can be produced on the basis of convergent or complementary competences.

A recent reference text defining the common knowledge-base which must be built up by State schools¹⁹ comprises a chapter on *humanist culture* (pp. 43 ff). This culture is presented as enabling pupils "to acquire a sense of continuity and rupture, identity and otherness. Knowing the origins of France and Europe and of their place in today's world will enable pupils to formulate clearer future projects". This humanist culture, which fosters the creation of a feeling of belonging to the community of citizens, is based on geographical and historical benchmarks, access to European culture and understanding of the complexity of the world. The corresponding skills include reading in different languages, situating events in the spatiotemporal continuum, utilising knowledge to interpret current events, etc. We note that in this specification (which, it should be remembered, the State is using to communicate its educational objectives to a broad general public) the communicative/linguistic aspects are more or less absent, or at least are not emphasised.

Towards a common framework

In concluding this short analysis, it should first of all be stressed that while French syllabuses provide a framework for practical teaching methods, they in no way prescribe such methods. This leaves a great deal of leeway for the teacher to specify his or her own communicative/linguistic activities.

In these programmes, however:

- the forms and functions of classroom interaction between teacher and learners and among learners are not addressed;
- nor are the forms of oral production to be used (presentation by the teacher or pupils) broached;
- the texts to be drafted lack any clear social status and seem to be aimed at ensuring that history too, in its own way, is a field in which the pupil learns to write, albeit without any realistic discursive forms; the effort is confined to producing school-type texts without any social reality apart from their learning function;
- the texts mentioned involve textbooks and "documents", on which historical knowledge is built up, although there are no contemporary discursive genres evoking, involving and eliciting historical knowledge (e.g. TV news broadcasts), whereas this is a salient point in the above-mentioned *Common Knowledge-Base* (*mobilising knowledge to ascribe meaning to current affairs*);
- the conception of textuality remains rhetorical and fails to link up the construction of a critical attitude to texts and knowledge with the identification of the linguistic forms to construct viewpoints, opinions and ideologies.

This marginal presence of the communicative/linguistic dimension in French history syllabuses would suggest that a common instrument linking up language teaching and teaching languages might lead to new realisations which many educationalists have no doubt already effected in their own fields. Examples of educational proposals might be to have students write historical novels or guide them in their history homework by expounding the main features of these texts, particularly from the enunciative angle²⁰. It would therefore be useful for a reference instrument to systematically explore the nature of history discourse in the classroom in order to highlight the various aspects peculiar to historical knowledge and history teaching, although this work should be conducted in conjunction with other subjects, building bridges to language-teaching.

¹⁹ French Ministry of Education (2006): The Common Knowledge-Base, presented by Gilles de Robien, CNDP, Paris.

²⁰ Masseron C. (ed.): *Textes et histoire, Pratiques*, no. 69 (1991).

Case study: Bavaria (Germany)

History curricula in Bavaria with specific reference to LAC

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1. Introduction

Due to the federalism in Germany, there is no (history) curriculum for Germany as a whole. The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany (KMK) published standards for some subjects only (e. g. German language, mathematics), not for social sciences like history. To achieve a common standard for the final secondary-school examinations ("*Abitur*") the KMK has published the "Standardised test requirements for the central examination: History", which are valid for grade 12 (or 13) and therefore cannot be used for our purpose (grade 9 [or 10]).²¹

As a result, the following remarks relate to the Bavarian curriculum as an example and will cover the three types of school: *Hauptschule*, *Realschule*, *Gymnasium*, in each case grade 9.²²

2. Self-image of the subject history in Bavaria

Through lessons in history the pupils find out about structures, developments, events and celebrities, which have shaped the past and therefore affect their present. They gain insight into the thinking and actions of mankind in former times and they become aware of how historical knowledge emerges. The pupils discover the fascinating preoccupation with the dimension of "time".

The engagement with the past strengthens the tendency to look at things, which are geographically or chronologically far away, and to deal with the different and the unfamiliar, to encounter it with open mindedness. At the same time the engagement with connections between past and present helps students to find their bearings. However, awareness that the present is the result of the past still needs to be developed.

A deepener historical awareness is therefore an important part of education for democratic citizenship.

3. Contribution of the subject to a fuller education and self-development

The differentiated understanding of history as taught at the *Gymnasium*, includes developments in regional history as well as German history and European and world history.

During the lessons pupils gain insight in to historical research methods and subject-oriented approaches to perceiving the past. Step by step they learn to solve problems connected with historical events on their own and to reflect on conceptions of the past and the present. They encounter different forms of public culture and are capable of sharing it. Competences in historical methods, especially the capacity to collect, structure, and analyse data, and the ability to argue rationally, are very important for future life, beyond the subject of history. Analytical thinking and a readiness to consider the multi-causality of appearances and events will be strongly emphasised in the subject.

While dealing with history, the pupils develop a fine grasp of the different kinds of life people lived in the past and of the way they thought, thereby gaining an understanding of

²¹ Online www.kmk.org → Veröffentlichungen/Beschlüsse → Allgemein bildendes Schulwesen → Einheitliche Prüfungsanforderungen in der Abiturprüfung Geschichte (Stand 10.02.2005).

²² Ref.: Baumgärtner, Ulrich: *Transformationen des Unterrichtsfaches Geschichte. Staatliche Geschichtspolitik und Geschichtsunterricht in Bayern im 20. Jahrhundert*. Idstein: Schulz-Kirchner Verlag 2007 (= *Schriften zur Geschichtsdidaktik*, hrsg. von Uwe Uffelman u. a., Bd. 21). [Baumgärtner, Ulrich: Transformations of the subject history. Policy of history and history lessons in Bavaria in the 20th century].

foreign cultures in the present as well. This is an important precondition for their own life in society, which is determined by various cultural influences. Since no encounter with the past is without criticism, important preconditions for a basic adjustment of values are established.

The pupils become aware of the roots of our Christian, western culture and its importance for the identity of state and society. Learning about the rise, opportunities and limitations of democratic structures will enable them to evaluate the liberal regime of the Republic of Germany, and draw attention to the need for civic commitment. By educating pupils in values, the subject of history strengthens their ability and the desire to fight against all kinds of political extremism; it encourages students to respect human rights, understand the importance of peaceful co-operation, and to develop a European identity while appreciating the value of regions and nations.

A knowledge of historical findings enables the pupils to develop prospects for their future career by gaining assumptions for thinking and acting. In the subject of history, educating pupils to an attitude of open mindedness and tolerance towards the new and foreign, based on clear moral concepts, is of great importance.

4. Co-operation with other subjects

Due to the historical background of all aspects of human life, the subject of history has a fundamental function in terms of co-operation with many other subjects. It provides historical knowledge, which leads to a deepened understanding of many contents as well of other subjects; this fact is clarified by the following examples, which highlight some vital aspects of co-operation:

Religious education; Ethics	Orientation in values; Historical changes of religions, confessions and churches
German language; Foreign languages	Historical basis of literary eras; Applied geography
Mathematics; Sciences	Historical background of discoveries and inventions
Geography	Land space as a factor of historical importance
Social sciences	Development of human rights and political institutions
Economics, Law	Development of economic systems and their intellectual background
Arts, Music	Historic-cultural context of works of art

The bilingual lessons in the subject of history have important tasks, which impart a deeper understanding of foreign cultures and perspectives by means of a foreign language.

5. Aims and contents

In grades 5 to 10, the pupils are given a survey of eras and phases of world history, based on chronology, with a focus on German and European history and, from the early modern times, the global dimension. The development of chronological awareness provides guidelines for the diversity of historical phenomena. In grades 5 to 10, clarity is an important starting point for history lessons. Liveliness of contents and the variety of methods respond to the emotional requirements of the pupils. Historical facts will be dealt with in a broad context.

History lessons in grades 11 to 12 concentrate on surveys, analogies, and problem-oriented case studies, based on a solid basic knowledge. They make use of and deepen knowledge and capabilities learned in former grades in new contexts. Therefore, they strengthen historical methods and multi-perspectivity. The subject of history enlarges general

education and ensures that pupils acquire a firm historical orientation. The option of a seminar provides pupils with an opportunity, to be propaedeutically engaged with specific topics which deepen and amend the curriculum.

There should always be moments for dealing with local or regional topics in order to touch on the daily life of the pupils. The teacher should use this possibility, to demonstrate historical facts and events in the school surroundings (museums, archives, monuments etc.). The use of the (school) library as a classroom helps pupils to work on their own.

Strengthening historical knowledge, methods and how to use them should be a target in all grades. The pupils encounter various kinds of historical sources and the appropriate methods for analysing them. The teacher is responsible for making sure that progression is age appropriate. Methods include the use of IT and the reasonable utilisation of presentation technology.

The sustainability of historical learning will be ensured by intensive applications at the end of particular topics or grades. Activity-oriented projects and products will be of great importance in this context. The teaching of basic knowledge, which includes findings, competences, and attitudes, is fundamental for the subject of history. With the basic terms, dates, names, and contexts that form the lessons in all grades, the pupils gain a terminological and chronological basis for historical consciousness. This structures the historical continuum and deepens understanding of typical and long-term structures. The importance of basic knowledge of the subject, will become more apparent as it is used consistently and in new applications.

6. Examples of curricula

For detailed information, please see the following parts.

6.1. *Hauptschule*²³ (secondary school: curriculum more practical than in a grammar school)

"Basics and guidelines: linguistic education

Linguistic comprehension and linguistic articulateness are necessary for acquiring and processing knowledge. Competence in communication and linguistic culture is the basis for human relations. A good command of German (written and oral) is therefore a central aim of all subjects. [...] Learning of German is also an indispensable task for students with another mother tongue; teaching of the particular mother tongue is subject to individual request. The learning of a foreign language promotes the competence to communicate in business and everyday life, widens the horizon and improves understanding of the German language at the same time." (cf. p 5-6)

History, social sciences and geography are taught as a combination of subjects. These three subjects have one profile in common, which states: "From the beginning subject-linked competences are the mandatory contents of the lessons. [...] They include working with and handling texts (e. g. historical sources, describing texts in manuals, specialised books and mass media); analysing pictures (historical and current pictures, incl. caricatures and cartoons, movies and multi-media presentations); working with maps (historical maps, topographical and thematic maps), graphics (diagrams, figures), with statistics, with timelines, and with objects (globe, models, relics); collecting and analysing information; studying objects (e. g. in exhibitions, in museums or in archives), exploring relevant places and institutions; questioning and interviewing experts and contemporary witnesses; testing different behaviour in simulations (role plays); documenting results (writing protocols, noting studies, drawing sketches, narrating situations; illustrating sketches, charts and profiles in a graphic manner); analysing case studies, formulating and advancing one's opinion in discussions and debates." (cf. p 42-43)

²³ Curriculum for the Bavarian Hauptschule, June 2004.

Grade 5, Greek ancient world: "5.7.3. Skills: analysing a source in relation to given questions" (cf. p 113)

Grade 6, Roman ancient world: "6.2.4 Skills: reading a map (e. g. related to Celts or to the Roman Empire), using Celtic or Roman monuments as a historical source" (cf. p 161)

Grade 6, Middle Ages: "6.5.5 Skills: shaping the Islamic perspective of historical events out of descriptions" (cf. p 162)

Grade 7, Europeanisation of the New World: "7.1.3 Skills: working with a historical map as a source" (cf. p 211)

Grade 7, Confessional era: "7.4.3 Skills: analysing pictures and texts related to reformation or Thirty Year's War" (cf. p 213)

Grade 7, Absolutism: "7.5.3 Skills: exploring baroque buildings and presenting the results" (cf. p 213)

Grade 7, French Revolution: "7.6.3 Skills: interpreting coeval caricatures with the aid of texts" (cf. p 214)

Grade 8, Industrial Revolution and National Unity: "8.2.3 Skills: converting biographical sources into role plays" (cf. p 276)

Grade 8, Imperialism and First World War: "8.5.2 Skills: accepting the perspective of human beings in the colonies on the basis of materials (pictures, texts) and discussing it (cf. p 278)

Grade 8, Democracy and NS-Dictatorship: "8.6.6 Skills: analysing and comparing films (motion pictures, movies)" (cf. p 279)

Grade 9, Germany and the world after 1945: "9.1.4 Skills: researching the Internet related to a significant event of the postwar period" (cf. p 348)

Grade 9, Changes in the world after 1970: "9.3.4 Skills: interviewing contemporary witnesses, e. g. displaced persons or former inhabitants of the GDR, and documenting the results (cf. p 349)

6.2. *Realschule*²⁴ (secondary school, specialized in technical and business subjects)

"Mandate for 'Bildung' and Education: language competence (*Sprachpflege*)

Language is the most important instrument of human communication and basic qualification to participate in business, public and private life. Therefore, students learn in German and foreign language lessons, to express themselves in a reliable and different manner. Moreover, ensuring quality of language must be an aim of teachers of all subjects." (cf. p 16)

Profile of history subject: "The students acquire competences linked to the subject to enable them to use sources and descriptions. In this process, sources of all kinds will be dealt with in lessons, as well as in visits to museums and archives or historical places; in addition, the students work on maps, graphs, figures and multi-media information. [...] The history subject makes thematic connections with nearly all other subjects and co-operates with them in a spirit of holistic learning. It incorporates skills which are acquired and practiced in other subjects. This includes working with maps in geography, interpreting texts in German or analysing data in economics. While dealing with sources and descriptions the students practise and improve their ability to gain inside information." (cf. p 68)

²⁴ Curriculum for the *Realschule* with six grades, approved with bulletin of the Bavarian State Ministry of Education, June 15th 2001, N° V/1-S6410-5/28432.

Grade 6, core skills: "understanding sources as relicts from the past; differing sources and descriptions; asking questions about sources and finding information; reading maps; using IT as a possible source of information on historical questions" (cf. p 184)

Grade 6: "project on regional history, e. g. archaeological sites, monuments, sources, descriptions and presentations: exploring archaeological excavations; or: presenting history by oneself: making a regional book of history, designing an exhibition" (cf. p 187)

Grade 7, core skills: "recognising the perspectivity of sources (who writes what for whom?); interpreting contemporary pictures; referring pictures to texts in pamphlets; reading graphs and figures; searching the Internet; using relevant software to gain information" (cf. p 243)

Grade 7: "thematic review: from manuscripts to print media" (cf. p 245)

Grade 8, core skills: "extracting texts on one's own; analysing and interpreting sources in standardised forms; interpreting paintings and caricatures; recognising and interpreting architecture as a source; reading of elementary block diagrams; using IT as source of information on one's own" (cf. p 334)

Grade 9, core skills: "investigating archives and (regional) museums; analysing contemporary movies, photos and audios; questioning contemporary witnesses, judging information critically; showing presentations with information from different media" (cf. p 433)

Grade 10, core skills: "understanding and judging complex texts with historical contents (economy, politics, culture); judging the quality of information from the Internet; searching information in teams" (cf. p 532)

Grade 10: "thematic profile: How human beings experience history - examining the subjectivity of historical experience - oral history" (cf. p 534)

6.3. *Gymnasium*²⁵ (secondary school, grammar school)

The profile of the subject of history comprises "co-operation with other subjects; the fundamental function of history is emphasised, as all aspects of human life originate in the past. History, as a subject provides knowledge, which leads to an intensive understanding of the contents of many other subjects, e. g. religious education (values [...]) and German language (historical principles of literary eras)."

Bilingual lessons are mentioned in the profile as well: "Bilingual lessons play a special part in History: With the aid of a foreign language these lessons foster a deeper understanding of other cultures and related perspectives."

The profile also contains some comments on historical methodology: "In order to strengthen the technical grounding, some subject-related methods are taught in all grades. The students will therefore be presented with different kinds of historical sources and appropriate methods for analysing each of them."

Grade 6, core skills: "finding and using written, graphic and representational evidence as sources for historical understanding; difference between descriptions and sources in manuals; reading of simple figures, graphics and maps; using IT"

Grade 6, intensive application: "adventure history: writing in pictures and with letters, staging an ancient play"

Grade 7, core skills: "intensive work with different sources, realising their perspectivity; analysing representational sources, monuments and paintings (structured description, analysis and interpretation with the aid of questions); insight into the origin, multiplication and reception of pictures; working with simple graphs, figures and maps; researching of

²⁵ Online <http://www.isb-gym8-lehrplan.de/>

simple historical facts in reference books and in the Internet; recognising and judging the fictional presentation of history in books for young people and movies"

Grade 7, intensive application: "preoccupation with a complex picture, e. g. Duc de Berry, *Sachsenspiegel*; biography of a medieval monarch, e. g. Otto I, Friedrich I, Friedrich II, Karl IV; adventure history: dispute between emperor and elector or between sovereign and citizens; change of world view in the mirror of maps, globe, and printed media; creative writing, e.g. diary of an expedition"

Grade 8, core skills: "advanced work with written sources on one's own; extraction of statements; interpreting paintings, caricatures and posters as different sources; using Internet and relevant software critically; analysing and interpreting graphs, figures and maps in a differentiated manner; presenting of personal results, e.g. multi-media"

Grade 8, intensive application: "adventure history: debate in the *Paulskirche* as a role play; producing a pamphlet, e.g. a revolutionary appeal; studies in archives, related to local history, e.g. 1918 revolution; working on a bibliography (theme: pacifism)"

Grade 9, core skills: "recognizing manipulative and propagandistic means in movies, pictures and audios; comprehending complex texts, like historical debates, foreign-language sources; judging written texts and reports of contemporary witnesses in a differentiated way; knowing criteria and strategies to judge materials out of the Internet; searching in out-of-school places, like libraries and archives"

Grade 9, intensive application: "adventure history: diary of a fugitive in Western or Eastern Germany; questioning of contemporary witnesses and analysing documents; on-site history: street names as an expression of political changes; maps as historical sources"

Grade 10, core skills: "stabilisation and intensification of competences, acquired in grades 6 to 9, with the aid of permanent application"

Case Study: Norway

History in lower secondary education - the example of Norway

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1 Introduction

Norway has had three extensive curriculum reforms during the last 10 years: Reform 94 (upper secondary education, 1994), Reform 97 (primary and lower secondary education, 1997) and Knowledge Promotion (both primary and lower secondary education and upper secondary education, 2006). Since the LAC project is limited to compulsory education, only Reform 97 and that part of Knowledge Promotion which comprises lower secondary education are being presented here.

2 Reform 97

2.1. History subject syllabus - excerpts

The excerpts given from the history subject syllabus below comprise the most important elements of the syllabus: *The subject and educational aims*, *Approaches to the study of history* and *Major developments from about 1750 to the present day*.

The subject and educational aims

"Knowledge of the past links people together through the ages. We need such knowledge to be able to understand and evaluate our own time and to plan the future. Social studies show how people through their interaction with nature and with each other have developed different kinds of social life and forms of society. Developing thoughtfully considered attitudes to our society, past and present, is an important aim of Social Studies."

Approaches to the study of Social Studies (including History, Geography and Social sciences)

"The methods used in Social Studies must provide the pupils with an opportunity to gain insight into the subject matter, develop relevant skills, and the ability to co-operate with others, as well as preparing them to be able to take action. Their work must stimulate their curiosity and ability to ask questions. Useful material can be found in historical sources, stories and other kinds of presentation, and pupils can learn from making and using questionnaires, conducting interviews, making systematic observations and collecting data. Another aim of the subject is to develop pupils' ability to read, interpret and use maps. Pupils will be trained in the use of tables and graphs. School libraries are very useful sources of information in Social Studies.

Pupils must also be given scope to learn to conduct discussions, exercise critical analysis, work independently, and experience how to organise work in co-operation with others. Role-play and other techniques related to drama offer useful approaches to learning of this type." (...)

"At the lower secondary stage, pupils will also be expected to formulate problems, to analyse and interpret various sources of information, and to explain and evaluate. Pupils will practise discussion and experience the value of compromise. They will also experience important aspects of practical democracy in their school lives. Pupils must have scope to set themselves targets and find ways of reaching them, and freedom to take sides on controversial issues and questions of values." (...)

“Information technology is opening up various new methods. It makes it possible for pupils to join in a larger society by communicating with people from many parts of the world, which in turn stimulates independent learning.”

Major developments from about 1750 to the present day, Grade 8

"Pupils should have the opportunity to

- find out how Norway obtained its Constitution in 1814, and how its adoption has affected this country's development; learn about the connections between the ideals and demands underlying the American War of Independence, the French Revolution, and the Norwegian Constitution
- gain insight into how the struggle for power between the *Storting* and the Government resulted in the parliamentary system and laid the foundations for the political parties, learn about the struggle for universal suffrage, and the emergence and consequences of the Labour movement and the Women's Rights movement; become acquainted with the main features of the development of the other Nordic societies
- discuss the ideas and forces which led to the emergence of new nation states in Europe, and to the dissolution of the union between Norway and Sweden in 1905; consider how these historical events inspired painters, authors, architects and composers; work with the concepts of love of country, national identity, and nationalism
- acquaint themselves with the changes in the distribution of power, in the business sector and in everyday life, brought about by the Industrial Revolution, in relation to, among other things, class structure, emigration and health
- find fundamental features and different views of Imperialism as an economic and political system; consider the consequences of European, American and Japanese imperialism"

Major developments from about 1750 to the present day, Grade 9

"Pupils should have the opportunity to

- learn about the expansion of world trade and how it has made countries economically dependent on each other, and changed their social conditions and class structures
- study the Communist revolution in Russia and the development of Communism and Socialism in Europe and Norway
- consider the ideological foundations of Fascism and Nazism, so as to be able to develop reasoned attitudes to those ideologies and their modern offshoots
- study the forces, conflicts and decisions that led to the two World Wars, and the connections between them; follow the waging of the wars and consider their consequences
- seek information from a variety of sources, for instance elderly people, museums, war monuments, written accounts, museums and information technology; study events in Norway since the Second World War; acquaint themselves with the consequences of the war for their own municipality and region and for Norway as a whole
- gain insight into the development of Norwegian policy towards the Sami and Kven (ethnic Finns) peoples and the changes in attitude that have caused changes in policy; examine the past and present effects of central government policy on the indigenous peoples; learn the impact of the Lapp Codicil of 1751 on the development of Sami society"

Major developments from about 1750 to the present day, Grade 10

"Pupils should have the opportunity to

- account for and evaluate the national and global consequences of post-war material growth and of technological innovation in various primary and secondary industries and in households, transport and the mass media
- work with social trends in post-war Norway, emphasising the emergence of the Welfare State; acquaint themselves with the background to and the consequences of the education explosion, the extraction of North Sea oil, the growing role of the media, recent immigration, changes in gender roles and family structures, and the higher role of Sami culture and increasing Sami self-awareness; survey the main trends in the other Nordic countries
- find out about how modern technology has made the world smaller and how contacts, trade and co-operation across national boundaries and between continents have become increasingly necessary
- learn about conflicts and co-operation in Europe and elsewhere, and about efforts to achieve disarmament, peace and international justice; consider Norway's role in the global community
- study political developments in Europe after World War Two, discuss difficulties and possible advances the political upheaval in Central and Eastern Europe have caused
- compare developments in two regions in Africa, Asia or South America with those in two regions of North America or Western Europe, emphasising the conditions which have resulted in the differences in social development in different parts of the world"

The excerpt shows that the syllabus is quite detailed concerning teaching methods and targets/content. There are no clear aims for the pupils' competence, e.g. the learning result or outcome of the teaching, and the syllabus only says that *the pupil should have the opportunity to...* The targets are expressed through a mixture of verbs describing content, working and teaching methods. There are no specific targets for cross-curriculum activities.

2.2 The evaluation of Reform 97 - important findings

The evaluation of Reform 97 included an extensive evaluation of the curriculum and the different subject syllabuses.

The evaluation says that the teachers by and large give the national curriculum a positive assessment. It is read, widely used and is an important tool in their planning. They want a plan with relatively detailed content, and which indicates the academic progression in the various subjects. Reform 97 maintains the pressure from earlier plans to move away from what the history of ideas refers to as classroom-oriented teaching and to move in the direction of activity-oriented teaching and pedagogical progressivism. The teachers support this policy.

At the same time the teachers criticise the curriculum rather vehemently, they register contradictions, unclear notions and vague signals. The most central criticism concerns the high level of ambition and the huge range of content that the subjects have been given. This level of ambition would seem to be far in excess of what one can realistically expect to achieve in a school for everyone. These are demands that can impair the power of the staff in school, and which have reduced the free scope for local action that the curriculum has introduced. When the plan becomes too comprehensive, something has to be omitted. One consequence is then that the teachers must themselves decide, and thus the curriculum loses the steering function it was intended to have. The alternative is to work

through the material at a pretty high speed, which many pupils will not benefit from. It is therefore tempting to point to L97 as a national curriculum for those pupils who are clever, and who are comfortable with an encyclopaedic or lexical ideal for education and learning. Several of the researchers also make the point that this plan with so much and such a high degree of centralised "top-down" steering, makes it difficult to implement specially adapted teaching.

The material from the evaluation reveals that the work in school has two special characteristics. One of them is stability, the other is change. The main pattern of work in school is still activity-oriented in the practical and aesthetic subjects and classroom-oriented in the theoretical subjects. School means for the most part teacher-organised classroom teaching, with instruction and question-answer sequences. The pupils are much of the time passive recipients, they can give short answers to the teacher's questions and they work individually with exercises. The focus on the textbook is strong. All in all, the conclusion is that activity-oriented teaching is more deeply rooted ideologically and rhetorically than in practice. There is a difference between what one practises and what one preaches.

Parallel to the stability in the organisation and the methods employed, the evaluation also registered changes. Many of the projects in the evaluation point to features in the development that as such are promising and positive trends, seen in relation to the activity-orientation in the national curriculum, but the forward movement is weak. The changes concern exactly the same areas where we find the stable patterns. The trend goes from splitting up teaching into subjects towards a greater academic whole and integration, from individual to joint responsibility in work teams, from one-sided collectively oriented blackboard teaching of entire classes to varied forms of work in different physical environments and with more individual guidance.

The changes go from a timetable with 45-minute blocks drawn up for a year at a time to great variation in the way things are organised and in how time is spent. The role of the teacher in relation to the pupils is as fundamental as earlier, but the weighting between the various elements is different. It has become more important to organise, advise and inspire rather than simply to pass on knowledge and lead question - answer sequences. The pupils are allowed more room for personal and collective action. Individual work with tasks and exercises takes up more time. In some schools the researchers register a closer and more professional sense of community than earlier, and which they believe to be a vital prerequisite in order to improve the quality of the work that is being done.

The more theoretical subjects wish likewise to continue to work according to their own traditions. Some teachers find difficulty in putting activity teaching into practice. Many of the elements of that approach do not receive the same emphasis. This applies among other things to team-organised work, project work, specially adapted teaching, responsibility for one's own learning, the inclusive school, differentiation, the use of drama and the use of playing, to mention but a few. The role of the teacher as a consequence of this activity-oriented teaching approach has also taken a direction that was not intended. Some teachers are withdrawn and do not interfere much. They have left the arena to the pupils, and to their own initiatives. There are examples that show that the teachers are reluctant to make clear academic demands on the pupils and that they give positive feedback, even when there are no grounds for doing so.

There is greatest correspondence between the work that is done in the primary school and the national curriculum when it comes to the activity-oriented methods of working. This correspondence is least at the lower secondary level. At the lower secondary level, less has happened when it comes to the activity teaching. There the teaching is more classroom-oriented, with a timetable divided into subjects and 45-minute periods. Several researchers conclude that it is now the turn of the lower secondary school to make changes.

All in all, and if it is appropriate to use expressions like winners and losers in Reform 97, a winner will be the classroom-oriented school tradition as it has been established over a long period of time, and in particular at the lower secondary level. The measures that are specifically reform-oriented are, in a way, the losers in the reform, even though there has been some development there too. The primary school level has come much further than the others, and is thus the winner as regards the extent to which Reform 97 has been implemented. The preferences expressed by the pupils about teaching methods clearly confirm this. The intention of the reform to strengthen pupils activities is highly appreciated by the pupils, but the evaluation shows that such methods are seldom carried out in practice.

Many schools are still working in much the same way as they have always done, but with minor adjustments and adaptations. Some schools have come a long way in accomplishing the ambitions that have been implicit in the reform. A group of schools have done a little of both, and combine tradition and change, classroom-oriented teaching and activity-oriented teaching.

The established tradition of work in school has an enormous power of survival and of dominating what is happening there. This would appear to be the case almost regardless of what type of reform intentions we are talking about. This must be understood with reference to the fact that all of the school's systems, arenas, modes of expression and ways of thinking have been constructed on the basis of this tradition and they are the bearers of the same tradition. It must be seen in relation to the short time Reform 97 has been developing. For that reform to make such a great impact immediately, in relation to a pedagogical tradition that stretches back over 2-300 years, seems improbable. It is not unusual to meet the view that it will take 10 - 15 years from the introduction of a national curriculum until it has been fully implemented. Therefore it is far too early to draw any conclusion as to the extent to which the reform has been successful or not.

2.3 Comments

The intention of the Reform 97 was both to secure a high level of quality in academic performance and learning outcomes and to introduce and encourage pupils active participation in the teaching. The consequence, though not intentional, was a subject syllabus overloaded by detailed learning targets and too specific about teaching methods. At the time when the syllabus was written, there was no clear understanding of the concept of key competences or basic skills and therefore the LAC approach is, more or less, not a specific aim of the syllabus and the teaching.

3 The Knowledge Promotion

3.1 Introduction

The Knowledge Promotion is the latest reform in the 10-year compulsory school and in upper secondary education and training. It introduces certain changes in substance, structure and organisation from the first grade in the 10-year compulsory school to the last grade in upper secondary education and training.

The goal of the Knowledge Promotion is to help all pupils to develop fundamental skills that will enable them to participate actively in our society of knowledge. The Norwegian school system is inclusive; there must be room for all. Everyone is to be given the same opportunities to develop their abilities. The Knowledge Promotion, with its special emphasis on learning, is meant to help ensure that all pupils receive a differentiated education.

The following are the most important changes in the Norwegian school system that stem from the Knowledge Promotion:

- Basic skills are to be strengthened
<http://odin.dep.no/kd/english/topics/knowledgepromotion/syllabuses/070081-990050/dok-bn.html>

- Reading and writing are emphasised from the first grade
<http://odin.dep.no/kd/english/topics/knowledgepromotion/syllabuses/070081-990050/dok-bn.html>
- New subject syllabi in all subjects, clearly indicating what pupils are expected to learn
<http://odin.dep.no/kd/english/topics/knowledgepromotion/curriculum/070081-990049/dok-bn.html>
- Freedom at the local level with respect to work methods, teaching materials and the organisation of classroom instruction

New subject syllabi have been worked out for all subjects in the 10-year compulsory school and for upper secondary education and training. The Knowledge Promotion gives local freedom in how to organise and adapt the teaching and learning, i.e. freedom of methods, which is different from Reform 97.

3.2 A new national Curriculum

The new Curriculum consists of three parts:

a) The Core Curriculum

Constitutes the binding foundation and values for primary, secondary, upper secondary and adult education and training.

b) The Quality Framework

States the responsibility for schools and training establishments to organise and adapt the teaching and learning processes for the purpose of developing broad competences for pupils and apprentices.

c) Subject Syllabi

The new subject syllabi contain clear goals for what pupils should know in each grade. In assigning such skills targets, the subject syllabi are expressing high academic ambitions for all pupils, who in varying degrees should be able to reach the targets that have been set. Each pupil shall be stimulated to the best realisation of his or her goals through differentiated education.

Under the Knowledge Promotion, schools are to prioritise the cultivation of basic skills in all subjects. This is an important foundation for all other learning. These basic skills are as follows:

- the ability to express oneself orally
- the ability to read
- the ability to do arithmetic
- the ability to express oneself in writing
- the ability to make use of information and communication technology

These basic skills have been incorporated into the subject syllabi for all subjects. All teachers are therefore responsible for enabling pupils to develop basic skills through their work in various subjects. An emphasis on reading and writing from the first grade in the 10-year compulsory school is an integral part of the Knowledge Promotion. Basic skills are cross-curricular skills and subject syllabi independent, but when integrated in all subject syllabi they are subject-syllabi dependent

There are objectives for pupils' and apprentices' competence (learning outcome) after the 2nd, 4th, and 10th grade and after every grade in upper secondary education and training.

Typical verbs in the *subject syllabi* related to *learning outcomes* are:

- *Give examples of...*
- *Find words and expressions..* (e.g. within a specific area of work)
- *Understand and use*
- *Identify...*
- *Compare...*
- *Describe...*
- *Master...* (e.g. a wide vocabulary within)
- *Talk about...*
- *Express his/her reaction to...*
- *Discuss...*
- *Demonstrate...*
- *Communicate...*
- *Select and use content from...*
- *Analyse and discuss...*
- *Take initiatives to...*
- *Extract information from...*
- *Produce...* (e.g. texts)
- *Present and discuss...*
- *Prepare and assess....*

These verbs are different from those in Reform 97. The verbs in the Knowledge Promotion describes pupils competence in performing learning activities. That imply a more active role of the pupils than that of the Reform 97.

3.3 History subject syllabus - excerpts

The excerpt quotations from the history subject syllabus below comprise the most important elements of the syllabus: *The objectives of the subject*, *Basic subject skills* and *Competence objectives after Year 10*

The objectives of the subject

"The purpose of the social studies subject is to help pupils understand and support fundamental human rights, democratic values and equality, and to help pupils become citizens proactively participating in democracy. The subject shall stimulate the development of knowledge on cultural diversity in the world in the past and the present, and help pupils to understand the relation between nature and man-made environments. The subject shall also help pupils to develop awareness that mankind is part of a historical context, and that a long chain of historical events has led us to become what we are today.

The teaching in social studies shall focus on natural and man-made conditions on earth. Work in the subject shall stimulate discussion on the relation between production and consumption and evaluations of the consequences that resource use and life have on the environment and sustainable development. Knowledge on the situation for indigenous peoples and minority peoples in the world in general is also part of the subject, and particularly, in this context, the situation for the Saami people. The social studies subject shall help pupils to understand the value of technology and entrepreneurship.

People interact through language and forms of expression that are characteristic of the culture they are growing into. As a reflecting individual, each one of us can shape ourselves as a person. As a political individual, a person can influence his or her surroundings. As a moral individual, a person is responsible for the consequences of his or her actions.

The social studies subject shall thus provide deeper understanding of the relationship between social life and personal life, and stimulate recognition of the diversity in social forms and ways of living. Bearing this in mind, the subject shall provide pupils with a greater ability to think freely, from many perspectives, in a critical and tolerant way. By influencing the desire to seek knowledge about society and culture, the subject will also promote the ability to discuss, reason and solve social problems. By sparking the pupils' curiosity and stimulating their sense of wonder and their creative activities, the subject will also help them understand themselves better, master their own world and motivate them to seek new insights and pursue lifelong learning."

Basic subject skills

"Basic skills are integrated in the competence objectives where they contribute to development of the competence in the subject, while also being part of this competence. In the social studies subject the basic skills are understood as follows:

Being able to express oneself in writing and orally in social studies means discussing events in the past and the present, explaining about places and facts and applying definitions, concepts and terms to explain causes and effects in connection with society and culture. It also means being able to present one's own work clearly and comprehensibly to others, and being able to discuss one's own presentations as well as those of others. The ability to express oneself in writing and orally means being able to reflect on the content of meaning in texts, images, film and artefacts, and being able to compare, argue and discuss the value of information and sources, and in hypotheses and models.

Being able to read in social studies means to read, examine, interpret and reflect on subject texts and fiction with increasing levels of difficulty to establish contact with other periods of time, places and people. Being able to read also means processing and using varied information from images, film, drawings, graphs, tables, globes and maps. To understand and participate actively in the society we live in, it is also necessary to be able to read and collect information from reference books, newspapers and the internet, and to assess this information critically.

Being able to do mathematics in social studies means processing and comparing figures relating to topics in the subject, and using, processing and preparing graphic presentations. Mathematics in social studies also involves undertaking quantitative surveys, using map scales and time calculations.

Being able to use digital tools in social studies means being able to search for information, explore websites, critically assess sources, exercise netiquette and select relevant information on topics in the subject. Having digital skills also means being knowledgeable about privacy protection and copyrights, and being able to use and comply with rules and norms that apply to internet-based communication. Using digital communication and co-operation tools means preparing, presenting and publishing one's own and joint multimedia products, and communicating and cooperating with pupils from other schools and countries."

Competence objectives after Year 10

"The objectives for the education are that the pupil shall be able to

- find examples of events that have helped shape modern Norway, and reflect on how society might have been different if these events had developed differently

- present a historic event based on different ideologies
- create narratives about people in the past, and thus show how frameworks and values in society influence thoughts and actions
- search for and select sources, assess them critically and show how different sources might present history differently
- discuss the value of human life, and place racism and discrimination in a historical and contemporary perspective with pupils from other schools by using digital communication tools
- present the main characteristics of the history and culture of the Saami people from the end of the Danish-dominated period up to the present, and discuss their relation to greater society
- present important features of developments in Norwegian history in the 1800s and the first half of the 1900s, and explain how these point toward the society we have today
- explain the emergence of the welfare state and describe characteristics of modern Norway
- describe technological and social changes due to the industrial revolution
- discuss ideas and forces that led to the American struggle for freedom and the French revolution, and the consequences these had for the development of democracy in Norway
- explain imperialism and provide examples of decolonisation
- prepare questions on central international conflicts in the 1900s and in the present century, formulate causal explanations and discuss consequences of the conflicts
- discuss important changes in society in recent times and reflect on how today's society opens to new changes"

4 Conclusion

There are both similarities and fundamental differences between the curriculum of Reform 97 and that of the Knowledge Promotion. The aims of the subject are very much the same, and the intention of encouraging pupils activities is underlined in both curricula.

The differences relates to targets, approaches and basic skills. In the subject syllabus in history of Reform 97 the targets are much more specific on events and content, and there are specific targets for all grades in lower secondary education. The verbs used to describe the targets is traditional. The evaluation proves that traditional teaching methods was carried on in the schools and classrooms.

In the syllabus of the Knowledge Promotion the targets is not split into sections for each grade in lower secondary education, but comprise all three grades in one section. They are not so specific on the content of the teaching, but is concentrated on the competence of the pupil. In the syllabus of Knowledge Promotion there is a total local freedom for the teachers and the pupils to choose teaching and learning methods and activities in accordance to what they find suitable and useful.

The most conspicuous difference from the Reform 97, however, is the introduction of basic skills in all subjects in the Knowledge Promotion. What the long-term consequences will be is difficult to say, but so far the schools and the teachers have reacted positively to the introduction of basic skills.

In history, the basic skills imply, when it comes to speaking, writing and reading:

Being able to express oneself in writing and orally in social studies means discussing events in the past and the present, explaining about places and facts and applying definitions, concepts and terms to explain causes and effects in connection with society and culture.

Being able to read in social studies means to read, examine, interpret and reflect on subject texts and fiction with increasing levels of difficulty to establish contact with other periods of time, places and people. Being able to read also means processing and using varied information from images, film, drawings, graphs, tables, globes and maps.

The integration of basic skills in the teaching and learning of history offers an opportunity to use history actively in developing LAC. Especially if the mastering of these skills is part of the assessment in history. The reform is only one year old, and nobody knows what the consequences will be. But there is an optimistic atmosphere, and people are willing to try out new methods, approaches and ways of doing things, and that is a good starting point.

Study: Empirical monitoring / evaluation

Werner Wiater, Chair of School Pedagogy at the University of Augsburg

[Prof Dr Werner Wiater, Chair of School Pedagogy at the University of Augsburg, offers empirical / experimental studies relating LAC. He just published his new manual about "Didactics of Multilingualism" (2007) and would adopt academic monitoring of the project or of parts of the project.^{26]}

1 Empirical monitoring / evaluation

1.1 Concepts for the didactics of multilingualism and their results

The didactics of multilingualism deals with questions of teaching and learning in multilingual contexts. Language acquisition in school, which can be differentiated into parts of competences, such as listening, reading, participating in discussions as well as coherent speaking and writing in several languages, is the main focus of consideration. In order to do this several model-like concepts are tested and evaluated in practice: the model of the didactics of multilingualism as language-group-didactics, the model of the didactics of multilingualism as an integrating language-of-origin-didactics and the model of the didactics of multilingualism as the promotion of a multilingual identity. Among the above-mentioned concepts the form and amount of integration of native-speaker teaching or foreign-language teaching, as opposed to the teaching of multilingualism, is considered. The latter method of teaching can be done by co-operative teaching of the languages taught in school or as a way of teaching, which concentrates on the content of a subject, such as history, biology, etc., It can be carried out by way of an interdisciplinary linguistic teaching approach or it can focus on the teaching of a holistic multilingualism with emphasis on the ever-present linguistic diversity in all subjects. The following consequences can be deduced from the different concepts in school and are therefore of special importance for the LAC project:

Almost no empirical results exist regarding these approaches; one example is the parity-based multilingualism model in the Ladin parts of the autonomous province of South Tyrol (Italy). This region has a multilingual school system with three official languages - German, Italian and Ladin - and English as first foreign language. In kindergarten, the three official languages can be used at any time by way of a holistic method of language teaching. This is to be done according to the mother tongue of the children. Every child will be given the opportunity to communicate in the language learnt by him/her as a first language. The respective other languages are taught in a playful manner and are learnt as well by listening to stories or songs. In the Ladin primary school German and Italian are taught with the same amount of hours weekly, whereby the local school decides, whether every subject is to be taught in weekly rotation in German or Italian or whether the language changes according to the topics taught (for example Italian history in Italian; German history in German). Ladin is taught separately as a subject for two hours a week. In middle school and higher school the teaching language varies according to the subject. As a rule the humanities are taught in Italian and the natural sciences in German. English is taught as a separate subject from fourth grade onwards. Empirical studies with regard to the linguistic and oral competences of the Ladin pupils (for example the results of the bilingual and trilingual examinations, which are required for a position in public service in South Tyrol) show that the Ladin participants achieved on average in all school languages better results than the German or Italian native speakers. Only in their own mother tongues did the "Germans" or "Italians" achieve higher success rates, yet they did not show better results in the respective other languages. These results point to a specific "multi-competence" in the learning of languages, which the multilingually-raised Ladins have acquired as opposed to the monolingual groups of comparison (Germans, Italians) and

²⁶ <http://www.philso.uni-augsburg.de/web2/Schulpaed/website/start.htm>.

which, in addition, has positive effects on their knowledge of English. With regard to this issue, empirical studies are being conducted at the moment.

The models of the didactics of multilingualism presented here are idealised stylisations, the thoughts presented in them for the improvement and better coordination of the teaching of German as native language (DaM) and German as foreign language (DaZ) at German schools can be combined with each other in effective ways. They are also useful as a theoretical basis for establishing hypotheses within the language and learning/teaching research. However, they are also a toolbox which can produce innovative ideas for teaching practice. The following list contains examples:

1. Schools should let their pupils choose between several foreign languages.
2. If a foreign language been taught for three years, an additional or alternative language should be offered.
3. In primary school (if necessary already in prep. school) the foreign language should be taught as a contact language (if necessary without taking into account progressive achievement goals) by letting pupils of the same age and of different mother tongues learn together in a practical manner. In grades 5-10, English should not be the only foreign language and more than half of its teaching hours should be used bilingually (state schools abroad; European schools).
4. Schools should offer realistic fields of application for the foreign languages taught, which are to be found in school activities (for example plays in a foreign language) and in activities outside school (for example language courses for foreigners, school exchange programmes).
5. Instead of orienting themselves on philology, schools should put more emphasis on issues related to culture, economics, technology and the natural sciences all over the world, as there are fields in which foreign languages are useful.
6. In lessons at school foreign languages should be learnt more efficiently by using new methods and media and the pupils should be made more interested in foreign languages (for example by using cyber-space, the world wide web, multimedia, e-mail, chat forums, newnet, usenet, file-transfer-protocol, electronic dictionaries, etc.). By doing this, receptive multilingualism will be enhanced and the independent use of learning strategies and learning techniques will be improved.
7. In lieu of an inductive approach orientated towards subject matter, the dominance of textbooks and groups, an orientation towards the learner is requested, which will turn the learning of foreign languages, through inference and transfer, into an individual translingual construction.
8. The path to multilingualism in school should not be left to chance. Instead, it could lead, through the use of bilingual models and a well thought-out languages sequence in school, to a didactic interlocking with individual expressions of language learning by the pupil.
9. Traditional, monolingual-philological teacher training, with its emphasis on language accuracy, should be supplemented by intercultural, subject-related-intercommunicative and sociolinguistic studies, based on the languages of the member states of the Council of Europe and their history of development. Priority should be given to cultural teaching and learning, working with languages using their procedural and declarative knowledge, working out interlingual transfers on the basis of a multilingual mental dictionary with a spontaneous and a hypothetical grammar, and an interlingual prophylaxis of mistakes (compare for example the so-called *faux amis*) as well as developing language awareness.

10. In foreign language didactics, the possibilities of empirical language teaching and learning research should be used more often than in the past, especially in the field of the didactics of multilingualism.

1.2 Language acquisition: the problem of specialised texts

Every pupil is multilingual. Apart from standard language they generally also understand and speak other languages: regional languages, dialects, ethnolects. Specialised texts are part of this multilingualism, which exists in every language. Learning a school subject is always linked to the acquisition of that subject's own terminology. This specialised language is always embedded within a general, linguistic, application-oriented problem zone, so that the pupils have to put an issue into words using several different linguistic repertoires. The value of a specialised language, into which everyday language has to be transformed, resides in the fact that complex issues are summed up precisely and compressed into abstract terms, which are themselves organised in a network of terms and meanings. The problems which arise for the pupils as regards the speaking, listening and understanding of specialised languages reside, on the one hand, in the linguistic complexity of the specialised texts, for which they lack the vocabulary and appropriate ways of expressing themselves, and, on the other hand, in the required accuracy of the linguistic use of specialised terms.

Empirical studies state that on average 9th new terms are used in every natural science lesson, in school books every 6th word is a (specialised) term and every 25th is a new one; in grades 5-10 a school book contains – depending on the subject – approximately 1500-2500 (specialised) terms (Merzyn 1998).

Specialised languages contain many morphological and syntactical specifics (Leisen 2006). For example, the following specialised language is used in History (Kilic 2007): many technical (specialised) terms, many adjectives ending in *-bar*, *-los*, *-arm*, *-reich*, *-lieh*, many compounds, many verbs with affixes, many substantiated infinitives (nominalisations), shortened substantiated constructions, impersonal ways of expressing oneself, complex attributes instead of attributional sentences, noun phrases, passive sentences and passive speech as well as metaphors. Other subjects have their own specific features with regard to their specialised language. From this issue didactic consequences have to be drawn. The reading competence of specialised texts and the promotion of the use of technical (specialised) language have to be taught in school in a systematic way. In practice this means that:

1. pupils have to be taught the strategies and techniques of reading specialised texts (i.e. to be able to find their way around complex multi-composed constructions of sentences, to define technical terms and to recognise text-internal references, etc.)
2. Pupils have to develop skills, learn how they might “unburden” texts linguistically by using visual representations (mind maps, clusters, schemata) and by using the Internet.

For teachers this means:

1. analysing the linguistic difficulty of a text with regard to the actual learner's group (introduction of new vocabulary; word formation rules; de-verbalisation/nominalisation; word lists with short explanations; questions related to the text etc.)
2. thinking about how they can activate the linguistic and content-related advance knowledge of their pupils and how they can “unburden” the text linguistically.
3. systematically working out technical terms and the grammar of the text together with their pupils (passive constructions, clauses, hypotaxis, line of argument, etc.)

4. practising technical terms and the structure of appropriate technical statements of issues.
5. producing a text oriented on a specialised subject
6. raising awareness of the difference between specialised language and everyday language with regard to identical issues.

The systematic teaching of specialised linguistic specifics cannot be done in passing during a lesson in a specialised subject, but needs deliberate didactic teaching.

1.3 Examples of research projects

Specialised languages are part of the pupil's multiculturalism. As a result, research concerned with the learning of specialised languages can also fall back upon reflexive thoughts and studies of multiculturalism. In detail, a research design could be developed, with regard to the following research questions, which have already been worked out partly at the University of Augsburg:

1. Does a holistic language didactics, which relates the teaching of the mother tongue/first language as regards vocabulary, grammar, morphology and syntax to the second or third language and to the specialised language (of selected subjects, such as history, biology, physics, etc.), improve the learning and remembering of specialised language? (Methods: analysis of segments of lessons; testing of specialised language)
2. Which effects (positive, negative, neutral) has the subject teaching of subject content for the understanding of technical terms (for example in history, physics, biology, etc.)? (Method: gap texts and relating and ordering of terms in multilingual contexts)
3. Which consequences result from differentiating analyses of mistakes made, which are carried out by using specialised language texts by pupils (for example summaries of historical events written by themselves; descriptions of experiments in the natural sciences, etc.) for the planning and conceptualisation of specialised subject teaching ? (Method: analysis of mistakes made in actual tests of achievement, didactic analyses)
4. What are the requirements for improved specialised subject lessons, which can be deducted from oral statements of specialised language formulated by pupils? (Longitudinal survey, lasting 3 years, method: video-recording, word minutes taken down)
5. Which positive practice experiences have teachers made of their teaching while teaching specialised languages in their lessons? (Method: best-practice-survey)
6. Is there a link between German language achievement of pupils with a migration background and their demonstrated achievement in different and selected specialised subjects (for example history, physics, biology, etc.)?

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APPENDIX

Recommendation Rec [2001] 15 on history teaching in twenty-first century Europe

*(Adopted by the Committee of Ministers
on 31 October 2001 at the 771st meeting of the Ministers' Deputies)*

The Committee of Ministers, in pursuance of Article 15.b of the Statute of the Council of Europe,

Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members;

Bearing in mind the European Cultural Convention, signed in Paris on 19 December 1954, which called on its signatory states to encourage the study of the history and civilisation of the other contracting parties and to promote such studies in the territory of the other contracting parties; Calling to mind the Vienna (1993) and Strasbourg (1997) summits, at which the heads of state and government of the Council of Europe:

- expressed their wish to make the Council of Europe fully capable of meeting the challenges of the twenty-first century;
- expressed the need for stronger mutual understanding and confidence between peoples, particularly through a history teaching syllabus intended to eliminate prejudice and emphasising positive mutual influence between different countries, religions and ideas in the historical development of Europe;
- reaffirmed the educational and cultural dimensions of the major challenges in the Europe of tomorrow;

Confirming that ideological falsification and manipulation of history are incompatible with the fundamental principles of the Council of Europe as defined in its Statute;

Bearing in mind the Parliamentary Assembly recommendations on the European dimension of education (Recommendation 1111 (1989)) and on history and the learning of history in Europe (Recommendation 1283 (1996));

Bearing in mind Resolution No. 1, adopted at the 19th Session of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, on the theme of trends and common issues in education in Europe (Kristiansand, Norway, 1997) and the conclusions and resolutions of the 20th Session of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education on the project "Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century" (Krakow, Poland, 2000);

Bearing in mind the declaration adopted at the Informal Conference of Ministers of Education from South-East Europe (Strasbourg, 1999), in which it is recommended that practical activities be undertaken in the thematic areas in which the Council of Europe had long-standing and recognised expertise, including history teaching;

Taking into account the declaration adopted at the Regional Conference of Ministers of Education of the Caucasus countries (Tbilisi, Georgia, 2000);

Having regard to Recommendation No. R (98) 5 of the Committee of Ministers to member states concerning heritage education, in which the Ministers affirm that educational activities in the heritage field give meaning to the future through a better understanding of the past;

Taking into account Committee of Ministers Resolution (98) 4 on the cultural routes of the Council of Europe;

Considering Recommendation No. R(2000)1 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on fostering transfrontier co-operation between territorial communities or authorities in the

cultural field, in which the Ministers affirm that transfrontier activities help the young to acquire transfrontier vision while raising their awareness of the diversity of cultural and historical traditions;

Taking into account the resolutions adopted at the 5th Conference of European Ministers of Cultural Heritage (Portorož, Slovenia, 2001) in which the ministers reaffirmed that history teaching should be founded on an understanding and explanation of heritage, and should highlight the cross-border nature of heritage;

Considering Recommendation No. R(2000)13 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on a European policy on access to archives, in which the Ministers, taking account of the increasing interest of the public for history, and noting that a better understanding of recent European history could contribute to conflict prevention, call for a European policy on access to archives, based upon principles compatible with democratic values;

Bearing in mind Recommendation No. R (97) 20 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on “hate speech”, in which hate speech is defined as all forms of expression which spread, incite, promote or justify racial hatred, xenophobia or antisemitism, and in which it is pointed out that the impact of hate speech is more damaging when disseminated by the media;

Taking into account the Council of Europe’s previous work in history teaching, based upon the idea of reconciliation and positive mutual influences among people, such as that of the post-war period, which focused on ridding history textbooks of bias and prejudice, and that of the project “History in the new Europe” and of the programme “History teaching and the new initiative of the Secretary General”, which assisted the republics of the former Soviet Union in developing methodologies to modernise history teaching, producing new textbooks and training teachers accordingly;

Having taken note of the results of the project “Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century” and of all the teaching materials presented at the project’s final conference entitled “The Twentieth Century: An Interplay of Views”, held symbolically at the House of History of the Federal Republic of Germany (Haus der Geschichte in Bonn, Germany, 2001);

Noting that the project “Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century” made it possible, among other things:

- to make appreciable progress in developing a pluralist and tolerant concept of history teaching, *inter alia*, through the development of individual research and analysis capabilities;
- to highlight educational innovations, using both information technologies and new sources of teaching material;
- to draw up examples of open approaches to the central issues of twentieth-century European history,

Recommends that member states’ governments, while respecting their constitutional structures, national or local situations and education systems:

- draw on the principles set out in the appendix to this recommendation, with regard to current and future reforms in both history teaching and training for history teachers;
- ensure, through appropriate national, regional and local procedures, that the relevant public or private bodies in their own country be informed of the principles set forth in this recommendation, with the support of the reference documents that underlie it, in particular the teaching resources prepared by the project “Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century”;

- on the basis of arrangements to be determined, continue activities relating to history teaching in order to strengthen trusting and tolerant relations within and between states and to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century;
- adopt an integrated approach, using other Council of Europe projects, in particular the project “Education for democratic citizenship” project and work carried out in the field of cultural heritage;

Ask the Secretary General of the Council of Europe to draw this recommendation to the attention of those states which are parties to the European Cultural Convention but are not members of the Council of Europe.

1. *The aims of history teaching in the twenty-first century*

History teaching in a democratic Europe should:

- occupy a vital place in the training of responsible and active citizens and in the developing of respect for all kinds of differences, based on an understanding of national identity and on principles of tolerance;
- be a decisive factor in reconciliation, recognition, understanding and mutual trust between peoples;
- play a vital role in the promotion of fundamental values, such as tolerance, mutual understanding, human rights and democracy;
- be one of the fundamental parts of the freely agreed building of Europe based on a common historical and cultural heritage, enriched through diversity, even with its conflictual and sometimes dramatic aspects;
- be part of an education policy that plays a direct role in young people's development and progress, with a view to their active participation in the building of Europe, as well as the peaceful development of human societies in a global perspective, in a spirit of mutual understanding and trust;
- make it possible to develop in pupils the intellectual ability to analyse and interpret information critically and responsibly, through dialogue, through the search for historical evidence and through open debate based on multiperspectivity, especially on controversial and sensitive issues;
- enable European citizens to enhance their own individual and collective identity through knowledge of their common historical heritage in its local, regional, national, European and global dimensions;
- be an instrument for the prevention of crimes against humanity.

2. *The misuse of history*

History teaching must not be an instrument of ideological manipulation, of propaganda or used for the promotion of intolerant and ultra-nationalistic, xenophobic, racist or anti-Semitic ideas.

Historical research and history as it is taught in schools cannot in any way, with any intention, be compatible with the fundamental values and statutes of the Council of Europe if it allows or promotes misuses of history, namely through:

- falsification or creation of false evidence, doctored statistics, faked images, etc.;
- fixation on one event to justify or conceal another;
- distortion of the past for the purposes of propaganda;
- an excessively nationalistic version of the past which may create the "us" and "them" dichotomy;
- abuse of the historical record;
- denial of historical fact;
- omission of historical fact.

3. *The European dimension in history teaching*

As the building of Europe is an expression of both a decision freely entered into by Europeans themselves and a historical reality, it would be appropriate to:

- show continuing historical relationships between local, regional, national and European levels;
- encourage teaching about periods and developments with the most obvious European dimension, especially the historical or cultural events and tendencies that underpin European awareness;
- use every available means, particularly information technology, to promote co-operation and exchange projects between schools on themes connected with the history of Europe;
- develop pupils' interest in the history of other European countries;
- introduce or develop teaching about the history of the building of Europe itself.

To promote the European dimension in history teaching in an enlarged, democratic, peaceful Europe, it would be appropriate to:

- take account of the results of the work done during the project "Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century" conducted by the Council for Cultural Co-operation, in terms of both content and methodological approach;
- draw on Council of Europe programmes on the reform of history teaching and on the preparation of new textbooks and methodological guides during activities to develop and consolidate democratic stability;
- draw on Council of Europe programmes for raising awareness of and teaching about heritage;
- disseminate as widely as possible the teaching materials produced by the project "Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century" by making appropriate use of information and communication technologies;
- increase assistance in the preparation of new syllabuses and standards in history teaching, including production of new textbooks, in particular in the Russian Federation, the Caucasus countries, South-east Europe and the Black Sea region;
- take advantage of the Council of Europe's In-Service Training Programme for Educational Staff to help teachers acquire this new knowledge in a European context enabling them to compare views and experience.

4. *Syllabus content*

History teaching, while it must avoid the accumulation of encyclopaedic knowledge, must nevertheless encompass:

- awareness-raising about the European dimension, taken into account when syllabuses are drawn up, so as to instil in pupils a "European awareness" open to the rest of the world;
- development of students' critical faculties, ability to think for themselves, objectivity and resistance to being manipulated;
- the events and moments that have left their mark on the history of Europe as such, studied at local, national, European and global levels, approached through particularly significant periods and facts;
- the study of every dimension of European history, not just political, but also economic, social and cultural;
- development of curiosity and the spirit of enquiry, in particular through the use of discovery methods in the study of the heritage, an area which brings out intercultural influences;

- the elimination of prejudice and stereotypes, through the highlighting in history syllabuses of positive mutual influences between different countries, religions and schools of thought over the period of Europe's historical development;
- critical study of misuses of history, whether these stem from denials of historical facts, falsification, omission, ignorance or re-appropriation to ideological ends;
- study of controversial issues through the taking into account of the different facts, opinions and viewpoints, as well as through a search for the truth.

5. *Learning methods*

Use of sources

The widest variety of sources of teaching material should be used to communicate historical facts and present them to be learnt about through a critical and analytical approach, more particularly:

- archives, open to the public, especially in the countries of central and eastern Europe, which now provide never previously available access to authentic documents;
- documentary and fictional films and audiovisual products;
- the material conveyed by information technology, which should be individually and collectively studied, with the teacher playing a vital part;
- all types of museums of the twentieth century set up throughout Europe and the historically symbolic places, which promote a realistic perception by pupils of recent events, especially in their everyday dimension;
- oral history, through which spoken testimony on recent historical events can make history come alive for young people, and which can offer the viewpoints and perspectives of those who have been omitted from the "historical record".

Personal research

Pupils should be encouraged to carry out personal research, according to their level and circumstances, thus fostering their curiosity and initiative in terms of information collection and their ability to distil the main facts.

Group research

Groups of pupils, classes and schools should be encouraged to engage in research projects or active learning, so as to create conditions for dialogue and for the open and tolerant comparison of opinions.

The cross-disciplinary and multidisciplinary approach

The learning of history should at all times make use of the educational potential of a cross-disciplinary and multidisciplinary approach, forging links with the other subjects on the curriculum as a whole, including literature, geography, social sciences, philosophy and the arts and sciences.

The international, transfrontier approach

Depending on the circumstances, encouragement should be given to the implementation of international, transfrontier projects, based upon the study of a common theme, comparative approaches or the performance of a common task by several schools in different countries, with advantage being taken *inter alia* of the new possibilities opened up by information technology and of the establishment of school links and exchanges.

6. *Teaching and remembrance*

While emphasising the positive achievements of the twentieth century, such as the peaceful use of science towards better living conditions and the expansion of democracy and human rights, everything possible should be done in the educational sphere to prevent recurrence or denial of the devastating events that have marked this century, namely the Holocaust, genocides and other crimes against humanity, ethnic cleansing and the massive violations of human rights and of the fundamental values to which the Council of Europe is particularly committed. This should include:

- helping pupils to develop knowledge and awareness of the events – and their causes – which have cast the darkest shadows on European and world history;
- thinking about the ideologies which led to them and how to prevent any recurrence of them;
- shaping, developing and co-ordinating the relevant in-service training programmes for educational staff in the member states of the Council for Cultural Co-operation;
- facilitating access to the documentation already available on this subject, *inter alia* through the use of new technology, and developing a network of teaching resource centres in this field;
- implementing and monitoring implementation of the education ministers' decision (Cracow, 2000) to designate a day in schools, chosen in the light of each country's history, for Holocaust remembrance and for the prevention of crimes against humanity;
- developing the Council of Europe's specific input in the education field to the Task Force for International Co-operation on Holocaust Education, Remembrance and Research.

7. *Initial and in-service training for history teachers*

Specialised initial and in-service training for history teachers should:

- enable and encourage history teachers to work with complex, process-oriented and reflective methods of history teaching;
- inform future history teachers and those already practising the profession about all the latest products, instruments and methods, particularly where the use of information and communication technologies is concerned;
- make teachers aware of the use of teaching techniques which, going beyond, but taking account of factual information, are intended to enable pupils to interpret and analyse historical facts and their influence on the present, in different contexts, for example, social, geographical, economic contexts, etc.;
- help to enable teachers to make use of assessment techniques which take account, not just of the information memorised by pupils, but also of the activities they are capable of carrying out thanks to their knowledge of the information concerned, whether these involve research, discussion or the analysis of controversial issues;
- help to devise and create cross-disciplinary learning situations in their classes, in collaboration with their fellow teachers.

As information and communication technologies are leading to a transformation of history teachers' role, it is important to:

- create opportunities for exchanges, so that teachers may become aware of the great variety of learning situations involving the new roles concerned;

- support the setting up of discussion groups to look at the profession's difficulties, hesitations and doubts about these new methods of teaching;
- develop resource banks which specify, not only the documents and sites available, but also the validity of the information derived from the said documents and sites.

In order to fulfil these objectives and to establish a specific profile for history teachers, it would be appropriate to:

- provide training institutes for history teachers with the support needed to maintain and improve the quality of their training, and develop the professionalism and social status of history teachers in particular;
- accord particular attention to training for trainers of history teachers, based on the principles contained in this recommendation;
- promote comparative research on the objectives, structures and standards specific to initial and in-service training for history teachers and in so doing promote inter-institutional co-operation and the exchange of information needed for the reform of initial and in-service history teacher training and in-service training for trainers;
- seek out and foster partnerships between all of the institutions active in or concerned with history-teacher training (in particular the media), with a view to emphasising their particular mission and specific responsibilities.

8. *Information and communication technologies*

While complying with legislation and respecting freedom of expression, the requisite steps should be taken to combat the dissemination of racist, xenophobic and revisionist material, especially via the Internet.

In the context of the widespread use of information and communication technologies by the young, both during their school and out-of-school lives, it is important that teaching methods and techniques allow for the fact that these technologies:

- are vital resources for history teaching;
- necessitate in-depth consideration of the diversity and reliability of sources;
- allow teachers and pupils access to original sources and to multiple interpretations;
- spectacularly broaden access to historical information and facts;
- increase and facilitate opportunities for exchanges and for dialogue.

Moreover, it would be appropriate to set up the conditions necessary for teachers to:

- in the selection process, help their pupils to assess the reliability of information sources and information for themselves;
- introduce classroom procedures which encourage critical analysis, which acknowledge a multiplicity of standpoints and which adopt a transcultural approach to the interpretation of facts;
- help their pupils to develop skills such as critical analysis and analogical reasoning.

