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Seminar on “History Curriculum Development in
Bosnia and Herzegovina”

Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina,

10 – 11 December 2002

Report

Strasbourg

Seminar on “History Curriculum Development
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Report prepared by

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The opinions expressed in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the official policy of the Council of Europe.

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REPORT by Mr Jean-Michel LECLERCQ

As part of the programme organised to mark Bosnia and Herzegovina's accession to the Council of Europe, a seminar was held in Sarajevo, on 10 - 11 December 2002 on the topic "Teaching History in Bosnia and Herzegovina", and more specifically on the new curricula planned for history.

The seminar brought together 30 participants from Bosnia and Herzegovina, 17 of whom were from the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 10 from the Republica Srpska and three from the Brcko district, which has special status. The majority of participants were history teachers from primary or secondary schools. The meeting was chaired by Ms Alison CARDWELL, Head of the History Education Section in the Directorate General for Education, Culture and Heritage, Youth and Sport, at the Council of Europe. The OSCE and UNESCO were represented at the opening session, as were the Ministries of Education of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republica Srpska. In the course of the seminar, speeches were also given by Mr John HAMER, Ms Ann LOW-BEER and Mr Jean-Michel LECLERCQ, who was responsible for drawing up this report.

I. THE SEMINAR'S OBJECTIVES AND CONCERNS

This seminar had two key objectives, which were to:

- evaluate the new history curricula in terms of the most appropriate policies for teaching the subject;
- assess the expected benefits of history education using these curricula, in terms of improving relations between the country's different communities.

As a first step, the rapporteur considers it appropriate to examine the various challenges that arise when deciding what should be taught, whether in terms of all subjects in a study programme or within a specific subject area.

1.1 Policy and pedagogy in the curriculum

The first observation is that, with regard to the programme as a whole, the choices made always result from a dual concern.

Insofar as it involves the acquisition of knowledge and skills within an educational system that is itself part of society, there is inevitably a policy dimension, in the wide sense of a social vision, in defining the content of education. This explains why practically all national governments and parliaments are interested in the decisions to be taken and wish them to be as consensual as possible. Consequently, these bodies seek to guarantee that academic programmes ensure respect for those values that are regarded as essential, together with maximum development capacity for the community and for individuals. In the same way, a balance is also sought between the inevitable acceptance of global trends and the preservation of traditions that are unique to a particular context. There is no doubt that these requirements and objectives are currently to the forefront. Nonetheless, educational policies have been obeying these imperatives since the creation of national education systems at the end of the 19th Century.

Another, no less important, pedagogical issue concerns the approaches that must be adopted in order to achieve these objectives. Indeed, there would be little chance of achieving them if the most appropriate pedagogical approaches for mastering the desired areas were not simultaneously recommended. Admittedly, this aspect was developed at a later stage than political concerns, and for many years it seemed that high-level decision-making on programme content was enough to ensure automatic implementation. But gradually, and increasingly, it became necessary to accept that effective implementation of school programmes called for careful attention to the requirements made of pupils and to the methods that would allow these to be met. These considerations led the majority of countries to prefer the term curriculum to that of “study programme”. Etymologically, the word indicates a course to be completed, and was first used in the highly decentralised context of the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In effect, the absence of binding regulations enabled, and even required, academic establishments to define the courses that their pupils were to follow. Undoubtedly, there was a danger that teachers would “hijack” the curriculum, focusing more on pupils’ personal development within the protected school environment than on preparation for life in the real world.

However, two factors helped to make this danger a relative one.

On the one hand, the political dimension of education has constantly been asserted. It is true that steps to ensure that education systems towed the line, adopted in the distant and not-so-distant past by totalitarian regimes, are no longer acceptable. However, education’s decisive role in ensuring social cohesion and in enabling a country to hold its own in international competition, is no longer disputed. The widespread use of the expression “educational policy” plainly illustrates how solidly decisions are anchored in the political arena. The clearest evidence is the increasingly frequent introduction of so-called national curricula, which are at least partly mandatory, as occurred in England in 1988 with the specific aim of ensuring that the country would be more successful in international competition. Nonetheless, given the tradition of autonomy enjoyed by local authorities and schools, the concept of “curriculum” implied almost total freedom for the various parties, whilst the idea of a mandatory curriculum seemed almost contradictory.

However, the pedagogical dimension has also been constantly highlighted, through the development of teaching conditions. The fact that pupils from increasingly different backgrounds, and often without any familiarity with traditional academic culture, were attending the most diverse forms of education in ever greater numbers, led to an awareness that the manner of learning was equally if not more important than what was to be learnt. The right to education, so frequently invoked, would remain a dead letter if teaching methods were not adopted that were appropriate for the extreme heterogeneity of the school population; consequently, teachers saw their responsibilities placed at the same level as those of governors.

Thus, it is complementarity rather than rivalry that is required between these two groups. Consequently, if it is to be satisfactory, improvements to the curriculum must now be carried out in a spirit of dialogue and with a search for consensus between parties who have rejected authoritarian or homogenous practices. At the political

level, it is necessary to work towards a vision of society that is characterised by certain preferences but that rejects any form of sectarianism. At the pedagogical level, account must be given to the multitude of skills and interests that are required by different school professionals, without hierarchies or stigmatisation. Consequently, it is essential that draft texts be submitted to discussion groups that include representatives of the most varied sectors of society, in which genuine exchanges occur between active participants and end-users of education, beginning with teachers and parents. It goes without saying that, in these conditions, the preparation of a curriculum will always be a long and complicated procedure, but that every effort must be made to avoid ending it prematurely, since this would lead to ill-considered and badly-accepted decisions. Equally, it is important to be aware that regular revision of curricula is necessary in societies which are now permanently exposed to change, and this will probably require the existence of a permanent body for analysis and discussion.

1.2 The link between policy and pedagogy in each subject

If we consider the various sectors of the curriculum, in other words the different areas or disciplines that it addresses, one might think that the relationship between the political and pedagogical dimensions may vary. Certain disciplines would seem to be naturally more “political”, while others are more “pedagogical”. Science subjects, from mathematics to biology, chemistry or physics, appear to be subject to technical choices that are almost “neutral” from a political perspective. On the other hand, given the contacts that they imply with other societies, disciplines such as geography or modern languages seem to require much more targeted decisions. This conclusion seems even clearer when it comes to essential aspects of a state, nation or society's heritage, such as language, literature or history, not to mention its institutions, which would, for example, be discussed in civic education classes. Nonetheless, a distinction between curriculum areas that call for highly political choices and others that require pedagogical approaches alone has become less and less relevant. An emphasis on scientific studies is now an essential concern given the role played by science and technology in inter-state relations. What is more, the pedagogical approach in these same disciplines has had to be constantly amended. For many years, it was possible not to give this issue too much attention, while considering that the skills of certain pupils could be relied upon to pull them through, and that the others could be neglected. In contrast, access by the greatest number to a reasonable level of scientific culture is today considered a necessity, both in order to ensure that society has the necessary human resources at its disposal, and to guarantee good training prospects for each individual. The same approach is required in language study, which could in the past be reserved for a minority who showed particular aptitude; nowadays, it must be offered to as many pupils as possible. Thus, it is quite probable that there is an increasingly strong link between political and pedagogical concerns in each sector of the curriculum. For example, by widening the target audience for studies which were previously more or less reserved for an elite, pedagogical concerns now facilitate acceptance of the political factor.

1.3 The example of history teaching

To focus more directly on this seminar's topic, history teaching is undoubtedly an area in which the role given to political and pedagogical aspects will always be accompanied by sensitive questions.

Although history teaching is now viewed as something that should open pupils' eyes to environments other than those with which they are most familiar, it is still perceived as a subject that should contribute decisively to preserving a specific memory and heritage. This is clearly illustrated by the importance traditionally attached to the study of national history, in which certain approaches are still likely to be characterised by imbalances or sectarian views. Indeed, national history frequently ignores events or periods which do not correspond to the framework preferred by a dominant tradition or majority groups. Consequently, it often introduces a biased coverage of other countries' history, by disseminating nationalist concepts or xenophobic prejudices.

In addition, the pedagogical practices inherent in such perspectives may encourage or accentuate these shortcomings. A methodology capable of overcoming this approach must give priority to the study of documents and encourage prudence in interpreting events, through the "multiperspectivity" advocated by the Council of Europe and Robert STRADLING¹. For many years, however, there was no choice but to observe the existence of a "school history" which, on the pretext of sparing young pupils from "excessive" complexities and, frequently, of giving expression to official views, dispensed with the rigour and proportion that it should have displayed. This led one historian to refer to the inroads that historic science would have to make into "the set of beliefs imperturbably conveyed by school textbooks"². The combination of a rather degenerate form of historical knowledge with partisan and intolerant political choices often means that history teaching risks being diverted from its most valid objectives to address myths rather than facts, to promote lack of understanding rather than dialogue with others and, finally, to compromise its role in education for democracy³.

¹ See, on this subject, *Recommendation Rec (2001)15 on history teaching in twenty-first century Europe*, and Robert STRADLING's book "*Teaching 20th Century European History*", Council of Europe, 2001. The Bosnian translation of this book was presented at the seminar.

² Carlrichard BRÜHL, *Naissance de deux peuples – Français et Allemands* (1990), Paris, Fayard, p. 301.

³ See, for example, "Pupils should come to understand that historical objectivity is an ideal always to be pursued, though it may never be realised; that historical theories and interpretations are to be constantly re-examined; that there is no final answer to any historical question; that there is no monopoly of the truth. If our history course can lead to such a level of awareness, it will be a valuable training for future citizens of a democracy. *National Curriculum, History Working Group, Final Report (1990)* Department of Education and Science, HMSO Publication Centre, London p.11.

1.4 The indicative situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina

These difficulties, inherent in drawing up a history curriculum and teaching the subject in any given country, are only too familiar in Bosnia and Herzegovina. A history of trauma, still recent, does not make for a calm and detached analysis. Cultural diversity, which always requires that differences be taken into account, may also confirm opposing views, which dissociate and separate a variety of histories and thus increase the number of perspectives to the extent that a shared vision becomes problematic, if not impossible.

Despite these comments, it is nonetheless necessary to state that, although these difficulties may be more acute and dramatic here, they are latent everywhere. This fact should stimulate politicians and educators in Bosnia and Herzegovina to face up to their problems with dynamism and confidence - not only because they are joining their European and international counterparts in comparable attempts to produce answers to similar questions, but also because the solutions they find will have much to teach the international community.

II. ORGANISATION OF THE SEMINAR

This presentation of the new history curriculum for the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina was the highlight of the seminar. First, however, reform of the history curriculum in the Republica Srpska was mentioned, together with other similar approaches at European level and in some member States. This had led, firstly, to a review of the discussions on history teaching launched many years ago by the Council of Europe and also to a presentation of the history curricula adopted in England and France.

1.1 The Council of Europe's contribution to trends in history teaching and to defining its content

This seminar was yet another initiative in the very long list of those conducted by the Council of Europe since its inception in the area of history teaching. Clearly, it was impossible to describe these in detail. However, based as they were on considerable expertise, the speeches by Ms Alison CARDWELL, who has for many years been involved in activities linked to history teaching at the Council of Europe, and by Ms Ann LOW-BEER, author of a study on "The Council of Europe and school history teaching"⁴ (see Appendix I), enabled the main steps in this process to be summarised, while highlighting the unchanging nature of concerns that are still relevant, including at this seminar.

Stages in the discussion process

It is possible to distinguish periods in this process that were marked by interest in a particular aspect of history teaching. In the 1950s, the focus was mainly on revising school textbooks so as to remove inaccuracies or errors that could compromise efforts to restore opportunities for dialogue between states which had fought each other

⁴ Document CC- ED/HIST(98)47, Strasbourg, 1997.

during the war. In the 1960s and 1970s, to reflect the profound changes that had occurred in relations in and between societies, there was particular interest in widening the discipline's range by increasing the attention given to diversity of traditions and cultures. In the 1980s and 1990s, and given the upheavals that occurred in Central and Eastern Europe or in South-East Europe, it was natural that these changes should lead to an examination of how history should be taught in the "New Europe". At the same time, such teaching would also have to take account of the wish to explore other horizons after decades of frustration, and the resurgent danger of self-containment and passions for national identities and nationalisms that had so far been kept in check. This led to undertakings in relation to the crucial concerns of recent times, such as the "Teaching Europe in the 20th Century" project on "Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the 20th Century", mentioned above, or the new project on "The European Dimension in History Teaching". Of course, these projects are directly linked to the Recommendation already noted on "history teaching in 21st Century Europe", which drew particular attention to the importance of dialogue and debate in addressing "controversial and sensitive questions". Essential as they are, these recommendations were nonetheless preceded by many others of similar inspiration, such as those in 1996 stressing the decisive role that history teaching was expected to play in European co-operation.

Ongoing concerns

The possibility of such different emphases should not lead us forget the remarkable continuity which the Council of Europe has shown since its inception. The same objectives have always been attached to history education as part of young people's training and the development of social attitudes, and to defining the content it must be given if it is to fulfil its role correctly.

One essential permanent feature is the prime importance accorded to history teaching of a standard high enough to improve international understanding, especially agreement among Europeans. This theme has been equally applicable in the post-war period, after the collapse of the Soviet bloc or following the tragedies in South-East Europe. There is no doubt that the quality of history teaching needs to be re-examined, given upheavals such as the disappearance of ideologies that distorted perspectives over decades. However, the priorities remain the same - it is now a case of developing them further, rather than refocusing them entirely. A striking example is the priority placed on the search for dialogue or tolerance. This is what enables very similar concerns to persist from one period to another. Thus, consideration of the European dimension, now a pivotal feature of projects, may be innovative but is merely one more step down a path that has been pursued for many years. This is also true with regard to the current emphasis on the need to adopt "multiperspectivity" to guarantee full flexibility and prudence when interpreting events. As was the case for major discoveries, it re-uses previous approaches which already focused on multiple points of view, while opening the way for a more pronounced interest in the European dimension. This is also what is happening in the inter-cultural area. This is now a persistent theme, but it has always been (at the least) an implicit issue in all discussions on history, often very far back. Thus, in the 1960s, Euro-centrism was condemned and familiarisation with at least one non-European culture was encouraged. It should also be noted that the structure of the various programmes has

remained remarkably stable; attention has always been focused on curriculum profile and teacher training.

In a slightly different vein, it should also be noted that the confidence placed in history as a means of facilitating dialogue has never led to the fallacy of trusting in pre-determined solutions. Controversial subjects and sources of conflict remain, and can create considerable difficulties in selecting curricula. This is evident in regions as different as Spain or Northern Ireland. Needless to say, these problems are not unknown here.

This fact also illustrates the extent to which, in the Council of Europe's opinion, the past cannot be dissociated from the present when examining history. In compiling a history of the "New Europe", it is the history of contemporary Europe that must be drawn up, without ignoring the past and its possible after-effects. This seminar was to provide countless opportunities to be persuaded of this yet again.

At the opening of the seminar, Mr Colin KAISER, head of the UNESCO mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Mr Claude KIEFFER, deputy head of the OSCE education section, made a point of stressing their agreement with these views, whether in terms of the importance of history teaching in educating young people or the directions to be taken in this area to help improve education and facilitate participation in increasingly multi-cultural societies. It goes without saying that the fact that other international organisations share the Council of Europe's views in this area is fortunate confirmation of its twofold ability, confirmed over many years, to show the direction to be taken and to act as a catalyst for efforts to take the most effective action.

III. HISTORY CURRICULA IN ENGLAND AND FRANCE

The challenges raised by the preparation of history curricula naturally result in comparisons between them, for two reasons. Firstly, it is worth evaluating the extent to which their objectives coincide, either in terms of the aspects of historical knowledge that are to be emphasised, or in terms of the role that history education is expected to play in young people's personal development and their integration within a community. At the same time, curriculum preparation for any discipline, and especially history, is a highly complex task that needs constant revision. It is, therefore, correct to assume that attempts to prepare such curricula are never totally satisfactory when they take place within a single context. Thus, it is always salutary to be able to analyse choices made elsewhere, so as to identify more clearly the advantages and shortcomings of one's own approach. As in other spheres, comparisons make it possible to identify similarities and differences that combine to form specific scenarios, but which can be reduced to relatively analogous modes of questioning.

This was certainly the experience when examining the cases of England and France. In many ways, these two countries differ radically in their methods of conceiving and applying the history curriculum. However, the solutions adopted are responses to questions that are often similar. This is clearly illustrated by a parallel analysis of the reports by John HAMER on "Developing a history curriculum - the British

experience” (see Appendix II) and by Jean-Michel LECLERCQ on “The national history curriculum in France” (see Appendix III).

Contrasts

The contrasts between the two approaches are striking and numerous.

England had no obligatory history curriculum before 1998, while in France history teaching has been regulated since the establishment of the Third Republic at the end of the 19th Century. It should also be noted that history is an obligatory subject throughout all primary and secondary education in France, but is optional from the age of 14 in England. In addition, while history is usually an examination subject in France, particularly for the *baccalauréat*, this is not the case in England, where the situation depends on the pupils’ choice of options at the end of obligatory education and after this point.

Equally, the history taught is not entirely the same. In France, the options for adapting the curriculum to regional contexts are few by comparison with what happens in the United Kingdom. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own curricula. In France, however, although the study of regional languages, recently provided for, enables aspects of local history and culture to be addressed, the official programmes must be followed identically everywhere. This is also the case for private establishments: almost all have signed a contract of association with the State, which guarantees financial support in exchange for conformity with the official programmes. Private schools in England, the so-called “public schools”, are not bound by any such agreements.

It should also be mentioned that the basic nature of the curricula in the two countries is far from being the same. With the exception of primary schools, a detailed curriculum for each class in France, with specified teaching times, places greater emphasis on the knowledge to be acquired than the skills to be developed. In England, two revisions since 1998 have increased the curriculum’s suppleness and flexibility; instead of progressing by school year, it simply distinguishes a cycle for 7-11 year-olds and a cycle for 11-14 year-olds. Furthermore, the English curriculum focuses less on teaching information than on developing the ability to interpret and to conduct historical research. These tasks undoubtedly require knowledge and understanding of the past, but these are only means and not ends in themselves.

Common features

Nonetheless, we cannot fail to be struck by strong convergences with regard to the processes and purposes of history teaching. In both approaches, equal importance is attached to highlighting the fundamental role of interpretation in historical information; accordingly, it cannot be used to endorse indisputable and definitive judgments. On both sides of the Channel, interpretation must be based on tangible evidence provided by documentary analysis. Similarly, the need to accept that there may be numerous interpretations for an event or period does not mean that the quality of these interpretations is irrelevant. The logical outcome is an aversion for any form of indoctrination. This is why English teachers, like their French colleagues, must

enjoy total freedom in selecting their pedagogical approaches. The curriculum may set out the content of education, but not the manner in which it is taught.

Agreements and disagreements on the treatment of national history

In contrast, when it comes to the emphasis to be placed on national history, and particularly on the required concept of national identity, the English and French points of view are likely to diverge. The English curriculum seeks to “guarantee an acceptable minimum of British history”. The French curriculum states that “pupils must appropriate a national memory”.

The key to potential divergence clearly lies in the attachment to a unitary vision of the nation and of national identity, which is much more pronounced in one case than in the other. According to John HAMER, one must “recognise that within any one country, different individuals or groups will have different - often very different - concepts of what constitutes the national identity and the national history”. In contrast, the predominant view in France until now has been that a diversity of opinions, and especially of interpretations of history, should not call into question the principle of fundamental unity.

However, it is not inconceivable that current changes in Europe will result in a weakening of the contrast between these opposing views. The increased importance of decentralisation, regionalisation and multiculturalism certainly means that it is necessary to make less clear-cut references to a traditionally recognised form of unity (that is consequently regarded as inviolate). At the same time, however, one has to accept that the emergence of these new frames of reference, while they give rise to new feelings of belonging, may also arouse resistance to forces that are viewed as too centralising.

There is no doubt that comparison of methods of perception and action in England and France illustrated the full range of political and pedagogical problems to which the preparation of a national curriculum can give rise.

Significant reactions

This was confirmed by the tone of the questions posed by the public at the close of the two presentations.

With regard to the curriculum’s basic approach, the English choices were clearly found to be more surprising than the French approach, which certainly seemed more structured and closer to the local methodology. The absence of specific teaching hours or a national examination in England was seen as astonishing, as was the method of addressing aspects which were usually covered by very specific regulations elsewhere. Thus, the fact that the number of teaching hours was not specified in the English curriculum was seen as surprising, as was the fact that, in determining this figure, it was necessary to use a statistical average of teachers’ and schools’ practices, under which it accounts for 5-7% of compulsory teaching (or 40 minutes per week) before the age of 14, and 10% after that age. Skills evaluation during the education process, rather than a final examination, also intrigued the audience.

It is also probable that the French situation seemed more reassuring in terms of history teaching's position and role. Indeed, a question was asked about the exact status given to history in England, and whether or not it was marginalised. In his reply, John HAMER insisted on the need to focus on the qualitative aspect: according to research, schools contributed to only 20% of historical knowledge, while the media accounted for 80%. Consequently, the most important thing was to ensure the best possible quality in history teaching, not in order to make pupils into future historians, but to arm them with analytical and critical skills against any form of propaganda.

Curiously, the French practices barely gave rise to comments or questions. Should this lack of reaction be interpreted as tacit agreement or a lack of interest in something that is more familiar? Both attitudes are probably likely, bearing in mind the persistence in the region of concepts that are closer to the French traditions of central regulation and supervision. If this were the case, it would be regrettable that these impressions had prevented an understanding of the extent to which the English approach has been far from lax since the introduction of the National Curriculum, and an awareness that the English approach is often more adapted to understanding local realities, rather than trusting to official rules which, perhaps especially in education, are more often likely to be handed down than applied effectively.

Whatever the case, these two speeches and the questions to which they gave rise were an excellent prelude to the presentation of the draft text of the new history curricula in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

IV. DRAFTS OF THE NEW HISTORY CURRICULA IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

In the same way, the presentations given at the beginning of the seminar by Mr Severin MONTINA, representative of the Federal Minister for Education, Science, Culture and Sport of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Mr Ranko PEJIC, Deputy Minister for Education of the Republica Srpska, were timely reminders of the spirit in which the new curricula had been drawn up.

Both speakers emphasised that neither the challenges linked to history teaching nor the measures needed so that it was carried out in the most desirable conditions must be overlooked. Among these, preparation and implementation of the curriculum were of prime importance. The role of history in the individual's development must be reasserted, while ensuring that it does not become a tool for transmitting a history of conflict and violence, but a factor for mutual comprehension. Freed from the toxicity of ideology, it should provide interpretations and knowledge based on factual analysis. At the same time, it has to inculcate a sense of essential values, while offering pupils an opportunity to express their own feelings. History is, therefore, a subject that cannot be neglected. This is also why it must be allocated resources that correspond to its objectives. In particular, it requires a redesigned curriculum, encouraging a renewed pedagogical approach based on new textbooks and standards comparable to those used in other parts of Europe. Young people in Bosnia and Herzegovina deserve a better education and improved history teaching would contribute decisively to this. All these changes also imply that an international

perspective is adopted (as the young generations in particular want), and that there should be no hesitation in requesting evaluation by external experts.

The draft history curriculum for the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina

As presented in its English translation, this curriculum is a document of about 50 A4 pages in length.

It applies to the structures known as primary schools and secondary schools. In practice, the structure for pupils aged 15-19 corresponds to the usual form in other countries. However, the so-called primary schools are the second phase of what would be better described as a basic school for 11-15 year-olds, accepting pupils for the nine years of obligatory schooling.

The structure of this curriculum is clear from the summarised version given in Appendix IV. For each school year, the various chapters in the teaching process are indicated, and the teaching hours envisaged for each. Naturally, the list of chapters for “primary schools” is shorter than that for “secondary schools”. In addition, more in-depth analysis reveals that each chapter contains a more detailed presentation which, for the secondary level, may be genuinely comprehensive in scope, as illustrated in Appendix V, which compares the presentations for the sixth year of primary and the fourth year of secondary school. Nonetheless, in this case, the transition from listing the curriculum’s content to explaining the skills that are to be acquired is not common.

This aspect is addressed in two separate texts. Firstly, in a brief introduction to the curriculum, on “Goals of Courses in History”, which sets out the “Key tasks of the syllabus in history” (see Appendix IV) for the last four years of basic school, the only ones where history education is apparently envisaged. It must have the objective of “familiarising pupils with the development of society, from perspectives that are to be international, European and related to Bosnia and Herzegovina”. The fundamental tasks of this education are naturally to inculcate attitudes that would favour positions such as a “sense of Bosnia and Herzegovina as an integral part of the world and of Europe”. This also implies both an understanding of the country's surroundings and the modern world, and the acquisition of a sense of tolerance and democracy in the face of diverse opinions. These attitudes should flow from a knowledge of historical development and its characteristics throughout various periods, and from the input of all available historical sources. However, the subject must be made accessible to pupils, by “presenting history as a science and an academic discipline”. The same guidelines are then repeated in the “Teaching Instructions”, which state, in particular, that “the teacher is obliged to remain informed of essential scientific publications and of all the practical implications of new knowledge in historiography”.

The curriculum for secondary schools does not contain similar texts, but it provides, as from the first year of this level, an introduction to historical studies and a chapter on history and the theory of historiography; undoubtedly on account of these pupils' greater maturity, this addresses the themes already touched on at the previous level in a more systematic fashion.

As for the actual content of the curriculum, it is characterised at primary and secondary level by a separation into chronological periods, with a progression from antiquity to modern times in parallel with the pupil's progress from early to final years of schooling. Needless to say, considerable attention is paid to the various contexts of Bosnia and Herzegovina's history down the centuries, whether in terms of the Ottoman Empire or other moments in Balkan or Yugoslav history, and to the communist environment, from its outset to its collapse. However, this does not mean that the history of other European regions or international history are neglected. Equally, in line with the guidelines mentioned above, the political, economic, social and cultural aspects of each period are always dealt with simultaneously. Despite the considerable time spent on purely factual matters, this makes it possible to envisage problematic issues and interpretations. For example, under the topic "the creation of the modern world", the questions raised include "the Enlightenment, rationalism and the quest for all-round knowledge", "religious conflicts" or the development of the Ottoman Empire and the Spanish Monarchy. Thus, the general impression is that of a structure that can just as easily lend itself to fairly traditional practices, centred on chronology and memorisation, as to innovative teaching approaches that encourage pupils to put forward interpretations and resolve problems. This second aspect was emphasised by the Ministry representative who presented the curriculum at the seminar. In her opinion, the curriculum should develop critical skills, so that pupils could confront every crisis using a history of people rather than a history of battles, and by stressing social and cultural history, the history of humanity and its values.

Many teachers in the auditorium reacted strongly to this presentation. Their comments focused on two main areas: the actual design of the curriculum, and the conditions for implementing it.

As regards the first point, the participants could not fail to note that the new draft curriculum had been drawn up by a Committee that included nine history teachers. The latter had undoubtedly been appointed by the Ministry in a way that seemed unsatisfactory to certain participants. Nevertheless, there had been an attempt at dialogue with teachers, which could defuse the wish for excessively acerbic criticism. Consequently, criticisms that the proposed new curriculum did not differ radically from the old version, or that it was too over-loaded, did not receive much support. The lack of sufficient information about periods or aspects that are considered essential was perceived as the most disappointing feature. Some participants thought that more emphasis should have been placed on Bosnia and Herzegovina in the Middle Ages, when it "was a European country", with an ethos of tolerance and a charter of rights. Others thought that it would have been preferable to give more priority to the Islamic world, whose influence on the region had been undeniable, and to neighbouring countries, which could not be neglected even when the country was envisaged as an integral part of Europe. Inevitably, questions were then asked about how to address national history, which made up 46% of the schedule, or national identity, either in order to emphasise the crucial role they should be given, or to avoid extolling an exemplary vision of the nation at any price. In any case, a history of Bosnia and Herzegovina would be welcomed, in order to avoid excessively schematic views. Overall, however, these comments tended to focus on improvements to be made rather than on radical reassessment. In addition, it was probably difficult to reject

totally a draft text that at least had the merit of making tangible proposals when, according to one history teacher, “they've been dragging their feet for seven years”.

On the other hand, when it came to discussing the likelihood of straightforward implementation of this curriculum, opinion was generally much more divided. Although, according to the Ministry, the planned history education schedule had been reduced by 30% compared with the past, many people considered that it was still too heavy and over-ambitious, especially when one noted that pupils' interests were now principally focused on sports, religion and the internet. In vocational education courses, history would probably only be taught in the first year. In actual fact, however, it is material conditions that are most likely to compromise the introduction of this curriculum. With classes of 35-38 pupils and history lessons limited to one or two hours per week, it will be very difficult to avoid lectures and memorisation rather than encouragement of personal reflection. The lack of appropriate teaching materials must also be taken into account. The new textbooks have yet to be produced, while the new curriculum must first be approved by the government. Consequently, there is only a slim hope that these textbooks will be available for the beginning of the 2003-2004 school year. There is also the highly regrettable absence of the additional documentation that will be needed by teachers to improve the quality of their lessons and to stimulate pupils' interest. Yet there are practically no departments which are able to provide this documentation.

The situation in the Republica Srpska

A new history curriculum has also been drawn up in the Republica Srpska, but the relevant document was not submitted. Consequently, exchanges of view on this subject focused less on this curriculum's actual content than on the principles behind it. As mentioned previously, these had already been raised by the representative of the Ministry of Education of the Republica Srpska during the opening of the seminar. The seminar made it possible to clarify some general directions and certain practices. In particular, it was noted that the new curriculum, which attempted to promote respect for freedom and human rights, had been largely inspired by Council of Europe recommendations. For example, these had resulted in a wish to avoid controversy and encourage a range of opinions. In the same way, attempts had been made to reject falsely-conceived nationalism and patriotism. However, this did not mean that reference to any ideology could be completely eliminated, since, in spite of all the defects that might mar its image, ideology is always linked to values that are essential for the correct functioning of society and responsible behaviour by individuals. In any case, steps are being taken to identify possible elements of intolerance in the curriculum and to remove them, via regular revision. The same procedure is applied to textbooks: passages open to criticism are reported. Thus, it is to be hoped that the textbooks for the new curriculum, which are currently being published, will be more satisfactory in this respect.

The information provided on the conditions in which the curriculum had been drawn up showed that a three-phase procedure had been used; the starting point had been established by the Ministry of Education, then a group of experts had been set up, appointed by the ministerial authorities, and finally there had been wide consultation among teachers and in other social groups. However, it should be emphasised that the

Ministry considers that this process should be taken further, by submitting the curriculum for assessment by foreign experts. However, the latter's opinions could be accepted more easily by the younger generations than by others.

In terms of implementation of the curriculum, the material conditions were viewed as crucial. According to the representative from the Ministry of Education, this was related, on a more general level, to the need to guarantee the necessary resources so that education could be conducted properly. In any case, this is reflected in the priority given to publication of the new textbooks, which has been carried out quickly, and in the belief that distribution of textbooks corresponding to the new curriculum is the most effective way of ensuring that it is used in classrooms.

This might also be the best method of following the advice given by Ms Ann LOW-BEER, who noted that implementation of a new curriculum is the best way of improving it. Admittedly, one could always claim that it would be better to distribute textbooks for an up-dated curriculum only after a "breaking-in" period. However, there is perhaps then a risk that the curriculum will be reduced to the status of a confidential document, accessible only to a minority. Equally, it was inappropriate to have to use old textbooks, which were likely to contain numerous shortcomings, for too long. In addition, it is important to remember that textbooks are no longer the absolute reference text that they may have been in the past. They are now freely used by teachers more as an additional resource than as the only available tool, and are increasingly supplemented by documents from numerous sources. Accordingly, it should be accepted that they can be constantly reworked, just like the curriculum itself.

Distance and proximity between the two situations

The two delegations agreed on this point without difficulty. However, in a more general sense, it is necessary to consider the extent to which the choices made by one side or the other are similar or dissimilar.

In reality, as happened again at this seminar, frequent reference is made to the need to recognise the existence of three interpretations of the past, each corresponding to the vision of one of the three communities living in the country. Accordingly, there are supposedly three histories that cannot be merged into a single history. However, it is possible to think that positions are changing with regard to this issue. In its draft curriculum, the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina makes room for reference to the characteristics and fate of the populations present on its territory, emphasising the importance of adopting a pluralist attitude to this complex situation and recognising that culture is the crucial element. Although occasionally pushed further into their retrenchment by interlocutors who were confident of their own clear consciences, the representatives of the Republica Srpska made a point of expressing conciliatory intentions and refused to engage in controversy. This clearly encouraged a participant from the Republica Srpska to indicate that the curriculum followed in Pale was comparable to that under consideration in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, at least at primary level. Nonetheless, it is probable that the interpretation of numerous aspects of the past and present contain approaches that do not coincide. This was alluded to by the Deputy Minister of Education for the Republica Srpska, who pointed

out that each community had the right to regulate education as it thought best. However, this wish for autonomy is perhaps no longer incompatible with respect for the major principles that must be promoted in any education system. Fortunately, as illustrated in numerous European contexts, these principles seem likely to inspire common concerns and trends, while allowing for the adoption of very diverse solutions.

V. TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS AND PROSPECTS

Overall, then, the outcome of this seminar seems to have been an encouraging one. Furthermore, this should make it possible to consider how best to extend these initial results.

Curricula that correspond to the requirements for quality history teaching

The new curricula clearly reflect a wish to retain concepts that are now obligatory, in order to offer pupils the best opportunities to acquire the skills and attitudes that are necessary if they are to avoid preconceived ideas and inaccurate interpretations of the history of their own country and that of other countries. The aim is to help them acquire the ability to reach an open and pluralist interpretation of events, which should be the basic approach to historical knowledge. This ability should also lead to the development of more general skills, such as an ability to analyse situations or resolve problems. Furthermore, it is clear that these measures are essential in order to facilitate contacts and mutual understanding in societies that are increasingly characterised by multiculturalism, in Europe and elsewhere. This has also led to a search for balance in terms of the priority to be given to national, European and world history.

During the seminar, there were many statements of principle which reflected these ideas. They were made both by political or administrative leaders and by those working on the ground, especially teachers. Thus, the curriculum's political dimension and importance were clearly evident, not merely as a top-down approach, but in terms of active participation by all sectors of society.

The pedagogical aspects to be taken into account when designing a curriculum, and without which its implementation will always be uncertain, were also considered. In discussing the official documents, which sometimes seem to address these questions too rapidly, participants with hands-on experience insisted on the need to give these aspects the attention they deserved. In particular, this point led them to warn against over-loaded curricula, insufficient teaching hours or the shortage of appropriate materials.

Increasing the involvement of teachers in drawing up curricula

With regard to prospects that might be opened up by this seminar, it should first be noted that it provided a fresh opportunity to assess the decisive role played by teachers in all aspects of the curriculum, whether in terms of preparation or implementation. To a large extent, the curriculum's quality, and of course the motivation to implement it, depends on teachers. As several international surveys

have shown, teachers feel responsible for teaching to the extent that they have been involved in designing a curriculum, otherwise it is always perceived as something that has been imposed and is without value. However, if it is to be representative and effective, such participation in drawing up and implementing the curriculum must be organised. The best method is undoubtedly through associations of teachers, grouped together by subject, which exist in almost all countries. It would appear that these do not yet exist in Bosnia and Herzegovina. If this is indeed the case, it would be useful to provide, as rapidly as possible, for the creation of an association of history teachers in the Federation and in the Republica Srpska, and also to provide for regular contact between these two bodies, so as to compare the curricula in the two territories and, if possible, to encourage their convergence and consider other forms of co-operation. This would be an excellent way of consolidating the results obtained to date and of making further progress.

Integrating the intercultural aspect more fully in history teaching with a view to reconciliation

In terms of history education's expected contribution to improving relations between the communities in Bosnia and Herzegovina, this seminar provided another opportunity to observe how much this was desired and to note the numerous initiatives being taken to facilitate progress in this area. For the most part, these initiatives focus on the intercultural dimension to be included in history teaching, and it is clear that this is the best approach. However, work perhaps remains to be done on further integrating this inter-cultural dimension into history teaching, and on identifying its possible benefits more clearly. It is hardly necessary to emphasise once again that the increasing complexity of European societies, due in particular to their multiculturalism, makes historical and intercultural approaches ever more inseparable. It is only a combination of these two approaches that will allow for satisfactory understanding of situations, realities and identities that are characterised by numerous features, which are linked to different, and sometimes contrasting, traditions and values. This is clearly seen in the area of civic education, which has taken hold as a natural complement to the teaching of history, and especially national history, with a role in forging a tolerant citizenship that is open to all elements in society. To the extent that history integrates the intercultural dimension, it will help in rejecting the stereotypes and preconceived ideas that so frequently compromise international and inter-community relations. By reflecting the intercultural aspect, history thus becomes even more of a factor for reconciliation and for increased mutual understanding, by introducing relations between the various parties that differ from those usually imagined or pursued. In fact, it simultaneously encourages a search for similarities, through the effort to get to know each other, and the maintenance of a certain distance, and through the observation of differences. Consequently, potential reconciliation is neither the amalgam nor the full cross-fertilisation that holders of any identity always understandably fear. However, in some ways this form of reconciliation, by protecting against the illusion of excessively easy entente, undoubtedly provides the greatest likelihood of deeper understanding and long-term rapprochement, within the limits of possibility.

If, in addition to the achievements mentioned above, this seminar could have provided opportunities to address aspects such as more effective participation by teachers in preparing curricula or a clearer perception of the link between the historical and intercultural approaches, it would undoubtedly have met its objectives even more successfully.

APPENDIX I

PRESENTATION BY Ms Ann LOW-BEER, United Kingdom

As many of you know the Council of Europe has a long-standing interest in the teaching of history in schools. Let me just remind you of how this interest began, in the aftermath of the Second World War, with all the bitterness left by wars, although there had indeed been some initial work before the war. As early as 1950, one year after the founding of the Council of Europe, the Committee of Ministers raised the issue of the revision of history textbooks, and the first conference on this topic was held in 1953. The initiating idea was that peace and understanding between the countries of war-torn Europe could be improved by a cross-national group scrutinising school history textbooks and removing gross stereotypes, bias and errors about other nations. It quickly became apparent that this focus was too narrow – textbooks cannot be assessed in isolation – they reflect the curriculum, and are the result of the framework and approach of the particular syllabus being used in a country. The work on textbooks led to comparisons between different countries of their approach to history in schools, and to the finding that there were some striking similarities as well as differences in the ways history was taught in different countries. These findings were published in many reports by the Council of Europe, and in an influential book by an English educator called E.H. Dance. The title of his book was ‘History the Betrayer: A Study of Bias’, which was published in 1960 and remained in print for some time.

Over the years this work has developed in many different ways. The Council of Europe has sought to have influence on the one hand with Governments, Ministries of Education and policy makers, and on the other hand to work at a grassroots level with practising classroom teachers. It has worked with many other institutions and organisations, so that today there is a broad network of cooperation and knowledge and expertise about history teaching across Europe.

In Bosnia-Herzegovina work was not possible before the ending of communism – the curtain which had divided Europe and its history teaching. The break-up of the old Yugoslavia and then war intervened. But in 1999 it was decided to hold a seminar in Sarajevo in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The topic of this first seminar was ‘*Teaching controversial and sensitive issues in history education in secondary schools*’. Participants were cantonal Ministers of Education, historians, curriculum experts, teacher trainers, textbook authors and teachers. The seminar was co-organised with the Office of the High Representative as a part of the programme of activities for the development and consolidation of democratic stability. It was brave to choose this topic to initiate discussions. Yet it lay at the heart of the problems of history education in BiH and connected well with the links, in the Council of Europe, between work for education and work on Human Rights.

Sharing ideas on how to teach history in schools and learning from experience in other countries are two of the purposes of the work of the Council of Europe. Some of the individuals at this first seminar in Sarajevo had already taken part in Council of Europe seminars in other places as they have continued to do. The Council had

worked in many countries on curriculum and standards, textbooks, and the training of teachers, for instance in the Ukraine where specialists from Spain and Germany had shared their experience of teaching controversial issues. In the Caucasus a supplementary textbook written by authors from several countries was nearing completion. The Council of Europe provided an umbrella which made such activities possible, even though at the time, two of the three countries were still at war with each other. Similarly, the Black Sea initiative involved people from several countries working together to:

- a) prepare a pack for teachers and create a network of schools. Two schools from each country were put in touch with each other and exchanged information on projects they were doing;
- b) two Case Studies from other countries were presented at the first seminar in BiH. They were from countries which had both had to find ways of teaching about controversial and sensitive issues in their own history.

Ms. Christina del Moral spoke about: Teaching the Franco period in Spain. The experiences of the historical period from the 1930s to the death of Franco in 1975 left a bitter and highly debated legacy, particularly because of the experience of civil war, still well within living memory, which had affected the lives of many adults. Differences in views about this period still persist to the present day, as *Ms del Moral* illustrated from memorial advertisements taken from newspapers that week: these controversies are part of the present as well as the past.

This period is taught three times in Spanish schools. Pupils first get some general knowledge about recent Spanish history in the last year of primary school at the age of twelve. It is then studied in depth by all pupils at the age of sixteen, and some students may study it further in upper secondary school.

Great attention is paid to history in the Spanish education system and it is the one subject which is common in all the different branches of Upper Secondary education. The Education Reform Law of 1991 gives great autonomy to schools, and allows teachers to select the themes they teach and decide how much time to spend on particular topics. But there was widespread discussion and consultation on the curriculum. There is no censorship or control of textbooks by the education authorities. Local education ministers have some freedom to select the syllabus, although it is generally agreed that about 45% of content will be on Spanish history. There are however, common practices in the ways Spanish teachers tackle difficult and controversial issues. Most teachers had never studied this period, so many seminars and study groups were arranged and methods of teaching were widely discussed. All teachers were encouraged to gain up-to-date knowledge of the period and learn how to teach it impartially and without ideology. Above all there is broad agreement on the purposes of teaching history and the skills, attitudes and values which are part of the discipline of the subject.

Gradually new methods of teaching have developed:

- a focus on social history and the history of everyday life in this period, rather than more contentious political history; the use of oral sources; the history of the 'silent' groups such as women, workers, peasants; or studying fascist monuments, art and architecture.
- placing the Franco period in Spain within a broader historical context: to discuss German and Italian fascism too; to look at the whole of the second World War, or the Cold War; or to compare developments in Spain with the development of democratic liberation in Portugal and Greece.
- Often teachers draw parallels with another period in Spanish history, for instance the time of Fernando VII.
- Teachers have learnt to teach history by new methods using many different kinds of source material including pictures and cartoons, rather than just one textbook. Pupils are presented with a range of historical documents reflecting the differing ideologies of the period, so that pupils can see for themselves the different versions of events from a variety of points of view.

Taken together all these new methods allow Spanish teachers to teach a controversial period in ways which are not ideological and can be historically truthful, but which present to pupils a more complex and varied picture of the period. This is an approach which pupils also find more interesting. In a recent study Spanish pupils had fairly positive views of their history lessons.

A second example was provided when Mr Alan McCully spoke about Teaching History in a divided community – the example of Northern Ireland. He explained the background of conflict in a small country with a population of less than 2 million, a paramilitary police force, the presence of the British army, and 3 thousand deaths over the last 30 years. The divisions within this society are real: political, social and cultural, as well as religious, although there are many who reject the extremes of either view. Most young pupils have personal experience of the conflict. On both sides a very selective and incomplete version of past events is used to strengthen sectional loyalties. The education system is divided, and 95% of pupils are in separate schools, reflecting the two main traditions. Before the introduction of a statutory national curriculum in the 1990s history tended to be taught in a selective and biased way – Catholic schools teaching an Irish nationalist interpretation of events, Protestant schools tending to teach British at the expense of Irish history.

From the outbreak of the present conflict in 1968-69, many people had felt that formal education had an important role to play in countering the prejudice and violence in society. There have been three main responses:

- Integrated schools have been created: 45 have been set up since 1982, providing for 3-4% of the school population.
- Cross-Community contact, aided by government funding, so that now 60% of schools have some links with a school from the 'other' community, perhaps through sporting or artistic activities, or through a local history project.
- Special Curricular themes were developed called 'Education for Mutual Understanding', and 'Cultural Heritage'. These themes are not formally taught

but underpin the whole of the curriculum and it is expected that they will be reflected in the work of all teachers. They have 4 aims: fostering respect, teaching pupils to understand conflict, and to appreciate interdependence, as well as to develop cultural understanding.

History was seen as a subject which could make a major contribution to fulfilling the aims of these common themes in the curriculum. However in Northern Ireland it was recognised that at the heart of the conflict in society there were contested national histories and identities. No common history curriculum could tell 'the nation's story'. There was not one common history: there were two stories.

The present Northern Ireland history curriculum was finally decided in the 1990s by a working party which broadly represented the interests of all of those involved, and it drew on new work by historians and new methods of teaching and learning in schools.

These new methods, often called 'the enquiry approach to learning history', are not only built into the curriculum, but are assessed in the examinations and used in all textbooks. *Mr. McCully* had brought with him examples from textbooks showing the use of the new methods. As in Spain, there is no government control of textbooks and teachers can choose the books which suit them. A few textbooks are written jointly by authors from both sides. *Mr. McCully* brought with him two examples of how the textbooks are written. Pupils are not told one version of the story, but are given several different accounts of how the events were seen, both at the time and by later historians. Pupils must assess the different sources for themselves in a section of the textbook called 'Examining the evidence'.

These approaches have provided history teachers in Northern Ireland with ways of teaching history which allow them to acknowledge to pupils that there are sharply contested views about some events in their history.

1. In the Discussion Groups it was clear that members of the seminar found these two presentations from Spain and Northern Ireland of great interest. There were clear parallels with the situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina. At the same time the new methods of teaching were queried by those who did not accept the view that history is full of controversial issues and events for which there are several differing explanations.

On the second day of the conference Joke Van Der Leeuw-Roord of EUROCLIO gave a detailed and practical demonstration of '*How Teachers are taught to teach controversial and sensitive issues*', which is in the report of the seminar. She emphasised that because there are lots of controversies in history, teachers are bound to meet them in classrooms too. Recent 20th century history is full of examples of terrible and controversial events, not only in the Balkans, but also in many parts of the world. Even the language used to describe events may be controversial: are these freedom fighters or terrorists? is this an occupation or an annexation?

Finally, *Examples of Controversial and Sensitive Topics in History Textbooks* were discussed by *Heike Karge* from the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research at Braunschweig in Germany. She pointed out that no textbook ever tells

‘the whole history’, but one point of interest in analysing textbooks is to see from what point of view they are written, what is included and what is omitted. It is an old tradition in many countries to see history textbooks as a key instrument for fostering national identity and the nation is of course a basic historical fact. But if the history of people is presented from only one political and national perspective, then many other things relevant to the concept of the nation, are omitted.

This was again an interesting analysis and should be read in detail.

Possibilities for improved textbooks in BiH were discussed. The Georg Eckert Institute has a long experience of resolving conflicts in textbook presentations through transnational discussions. And I think that since 1999 experts from BiH have been involved in textbook work at the Institute in Braunschweig with experts from other parts of the Balkans.

Two linked recommendations came from this seminar. Teacher training was seen as a priority, but this was linked to provision of new resources and alternative textbooks. Teachers are the essential mediators of any new approaches but they need suitable resources for practical work with pupils.

A 2nd seminar, held a year ago in December 2001, focussed on: ‘*New Approaches in Teaching History in Secondary Schools.*’

This began with a useful overview of activities to date on the reform of history teaching in BiH by Heike Karge, who had also been involved in a seminar on ‘*History Curricula and Textbooks in BiH*’, sponsored by the Georg Eckert Institute and Unesco in April of 2001.

The Overview noted that:

1. Pupils dislike history and find the subject very boring because they have to memorise large amounts of material which they are not asked to think about, and the language of textbooks is usually dull and too difficult for them.
2. Teachers have little room for initiative, they are told what to do. They feel that discussion of history is dominated by political arguments not by educational concerns. Teachers are not involved in textbook design although they have to teach from the books. Despite this some of them have begun to experiment with new initiatives and methods of teaching.
3. International involvement was having some effects, the agreement to remove offensive material from textbooks, movement towards a better coordination of the three educational systems, and an agreement that teachers be allowed free choice in 30% of the curriculum, although this had not yet been implemented.
4. On the curriculum there was pressure for greater coordination and discussion of schemes. There was some recognition that there was not one common history in BiH, but one with some common elements and experiences, and moreover, that controversial and sensitive topics had to be looked at. There is too much content

in the curriculum for young pupils to absorb, and material is not adapted for different ages. Finally national political history and the history of wars is over-emphasised.

5. There was still in BiH considerable epistemological discussion about the nature of history. The idea of multiperspectivity in dealing with historical events remained controversial especially for those who felt that scholarly work could arrive at one agreed, objective view.

Two presentations were made at this seminar on new approaches to teaching history. Indeed the main theme of the seminar was to present methods developed elsewhere in Europe which encourage the active involvement of pupils in their learning.

Prof Alois Ecker from Austria showed what was meant by *process oriented teaching and active learning methods* which are ways of presenting historical material so that it will interest and involve the pupils. In discussion it was agreed that these methods take more time, but pupils are more likely to remember what they have learnt, and above all they will develop a more analytical and questioning approach to the past.

Joke Van Der Leeuw-Roord from EUROCLIO gave a practical demonstration, involving all participants, of what exactly is meant by '*working with sources*'. After the exercise, the drawbacks and benefits of using this method in classrooms were discussed.

Dr Robert Stradling gave a presentation on: Teaching 20th Century History. He is the author of the book on this subject which arises from a Council of Europe project on the problems of developing meaningful approaches for pupils to teaching this period. Schools across Europe are giving greater attention to modern history which is full of controversial and sensitive issues: wars, massacres and the treatment of ethnic, national, and religious minorities. Teachers across Europe have paid some attention to how to present such material to young pupils in classrooms. Dr. Stradling gave examples of strategies which teachers have found useful and which help to develop real historical understanding in pupils.

The Recommendations from this second seminar echo those of the first seminar:

1. The need for new textbooks and resources, and for teachers to be involved in developing them.
2. Improved teacher training is urgently needed if teachers are to be able to understand and use new methods.
3. Teachers should be given greater freedom of choice in 30% of the curriculum.
4. Encouragement of this kind might support teachers in developing their own networks and sharing ideas on the methods which work well with their pupils.
5. Greater use should be made of initiatives developed elsewhere by the Council of Europe and EUROCLIO. For example the 'Tbilisi Initiative' gave a practical

example of choosing common issues and moving towards co-authorship of teaching materials. Small local experiments of this kind, supported by international agencies were a good route towards developing better teaching practice.

Finally the Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers to Member States on History Teaching in the 21st Century (adopted on the 31 October 2001) was mentioned several times as a valuable tool for teachers to put pressure on their political leaders to implement the aims of the Council of Europe in the area of history education. States which signed the document are obliged to put it into practice and it contains much detail on how to combat the mis-use of history and develop European perspectives in the teaching of the subject.

The last seminar was in June this year, 2002 on: *The teaching of National History in the Secondary Schools of South East Europe*.

This seminar was in liaison with UNESCO, the Office of the High Representative in BiH, and the Francophone Association for Comparative Education. The version which I have seen is an interesting and thoughtful essay, in French, laying out the many issues involved in trying to think in new ways about the national history. The sort of conceptual framework through which a national history is seen is a fundamental, but little noticed, basis for all the work in the subject. Above all this report shows that national history can be conceptualised in several ways – there is not only one possible model.

It was pointed out that National History is important in every country in Europe – taking up perhaps about 30% of the curriculum time. Yet it is also increasingly questioned, especially when it is full of simplified national mythologies and lacks the complexities which are a real part of most histories.

But it is possible to begin to think of national history in new ways – to re-orientate the way in which it is viewed. Above all it should not be taught, especially in secondary schools, in ways which ignore the detailed methods of history developed in the study of the subject.

After the fall of the communist regimes many countries began the re-writing of their history to remove ideology and myth and begin to acquire a more objective view. Some countries in SEE, such as Bulgaria, had already achieved this very thoroughly.

Nevertheless many problems remain – which are perceived in many countries too.

Some examples are:

the place of minorities in the national story;

the relations with neighbouring countries in the region, especially after conflicts;

how to re-think a rather fixed traditional story and view the history with greater multi-perspectivity and more flexibly;

how to introduce the possibility of different interpretations with older pupils.

For teachers each of these issues creates uncertainties about how to teach and how to proceed. And all of the difficulties of learning how to handle such problems are made worse by the lack of new and suitable materials with which to teach.

If you look across Europe most of these considerations are evident in many countries. A comparative perspective can help in making a new start, beginning to think of the national history in new ways and with greater complexity and flexibility.

A Questionnaire had been developed which was answered and discussed by all participants.

3 Case-Studies were presented for discussion showing how the curriculum had been developed in:

France Switzerland Belgium.

Each of these countries has particular conceptions of the national history and particular problems which have required careful thought. It is well worth studying examples from other countries.

There is much material in that report which is worth considering in detail. Examples from other countries never exactly fit ones own – but they can provide ideas and suggestions which may be valuable.

Conclusion

The reports from each of these seminars contain detailed and interesting material, much of which may be useful in BiH.

Methods of teaching have been considered as well as examples of how to develop the curriculum for national history.

The task now is to try to put together these two aspects in productive new ways which will help teachers to convey a meaningful history for the 21st Century – which the pupils will find interesting and enlightening – not boring.

I worked myself on one of the groups in England which developed a new National Curriculum so I do know something of how difficult it is to do it. And at the time, in the early 1990s, this new curriculum led to much public discussion. Change in History Teaching always causes discussion, but is necessary if their history is to remain meaningful to the next generation.

APPENDIX II

PRESENTATION BY Mr John HAMER, United Kingdom

DEVELOPING A HISTORY CURRICULUM:

THE BRITISH EXPERIENCE

The history of the history curriculum in Britain and how we got to where we are now is itself a fascinating study. It is not my intention, however, to look at this in any detail here. But, before considering what seem to me to be the main issues that arise from the British experience, I want to make three contextual points:

- (i) In a very real sense, there is no one history curriculum which is taught in all schools in Britain. What exists are separate curricula for schools in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Although these various curricula have aspects in common, they also differ in significant respects.
- (ii) The idea that there should be a centrally determined history curriculum is a relatively recent one. In England and Wales, for example, until the end of the 1980s, schools had a great deal of autonomy to decide for themselves what subjects should form part of the curriculum. Indeed, for various historical reasons, schools were legally required to teach only religious education. As far as history was concerned, schools were free to choose whether or not to teach it and, if they did choose to do so, what its content should be. Not until 1989 did central government determine that history should be compulsory and start to lay down what the content of the history curriculum should be and what standards of achievement were to be expected of pupils at various ages. And, even then, there were limitations. For instance:
 - The regulations applied only to England and Wales. In Northern Ireland, a centrally determined curriculum did not come into force until rather later; and, in Scotland, there continued to be relatively few restrictions on what schools could do.
 - The requirements applied only to state schools. Independent schools, which cater for some 7 – 8 % of young people under the age of 18 still had, and continue to have, total freedom to decide what to teach.
 - The national curriculum related only to content and standards. It did not specify how history should be taught, nor what resources should be used to teach it. There are, for example, no officially approved history textbooks in Britain. Authors are free to write, publishers to publish and schools to use any books which they feel will best help their pupils. Similarly, the history examinations taken by pupils at the age of 16 or 18 are set by independent, not government, bodies.
 - Even on matters of content, schools still had a degree of freedom to choose from amongst a range of possible options.

- (iii) Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, the history national curriculum did not get it right first time – and, indeed, it would be rash to claim that we have got it right now. Since 1989, the history curriculum, and here I am referring specifically to England, has undergone two major revisions – most recently in 1999. The version which is now taught in schools is significantly different from its two predecessors. In particular, it is far less detailed and offers schools a far greater range of choice in determining the focus of their teaching.

So, to turn to my main theme, what issues have emerged from the British experience of developing a national history curriculum that I believe are worth sharing with you? I want to pick out five.

- (1) We were wrong to wait as long as we did before introducing a history curriculum that would be followed by all, or by the majority of, schools. Allowing schools total freedom of choice meant that, for too many young people, their knowledge of history was a matter of chance. They either did none at all, particularly between the ages of five and 11, or what they did was haphazard, depended upon the personal enthusiasms of individual teachers and involved too much repetition of periods and events. The need to ensure that as far as possible young people are offered a coherent, balanced and broad historical education was too often ignored. The first national curriculum, therefore, sought to bring about a number of improvements. It aimed, for example, to provide for all pupils a minimum common base of historical knowledge and understanding; to improve continuity in the study of history between primary and secondary schools; to strengthen the position of the subject as a rigorous course of study; and to guarantee an acceptable minimum of British history. (Precisely what “an acceptable minimum might be” is a question that I will return to later.) The course that pupils were to follow would have a clear underlying rationale which would seek to ensure that pupils made progress in a planned way by expanding their range of knowledge, deepening their understanding of how historical events might be related and developing their ability to make sense of the raw material of history (documents, artefacts, historic sites, visual sources and so on).
- (2) What I have suggested so far is the need for a common history curriculum for all pupils, and this necessarily implies that it must be determined by some central body which has the authority to enforce it. But, how do we ensure that such a centrally determined curriculum does not degenerate into, at best, a rigidly orthodox account of the past which all pupils are required to learn; or, at worst, a propaganda vehicle by which the government of the day seeks to manipulate public opinion? Two things seem to me to be paramount here:
 - The history curriculum and the way in which it is taught must recognise that all historical accounts are a series of tentative

judgments based upon a study and interpretation of the available evidence. Thus our pupils need to be taught that history as a form of knowledge does not consist of a body of unchanging truths or a set of immutable laws. The current version of the English national history curriculum, for example, emphasises the place of historical enquiry and interpretation. It requires pupils to be taught to identify, select and use a range of appropriate sources as a basis for independent historical enquiry; and how to approach such sources critically. It is concerned that they should be taught how and why events, people, situations and changes have been interpreted in different ways, and how to evaluate differing interpretations. The study of history should be seen, therefore, as a process involving a critical approach to knowledge, of questioning, analysing, seeking explanations – of doing history rather than passively receiving it.

- One of the most difficult dilemmas we face as teachers of history is that there is so much of it. The problem of selection looms ever large. But it is too important to be left to politicians – or indeed to any one section of society – to decide what to select and what to reject. There has to be wide and continuing public debate about which bits we want our young people to know. This is often an uncomfortable and controversial process.

(3) Nowhere is it more uncomfortable – and this is my third issue – than on the question of what should be the relationship between the teaching of history and the development of a national identity. This is clearly a matter of fundamental importance deserving of a whole seminar to itself. It raises questions about, for example, what we mean by the concept of national identity, particularly in the context of diverse multi-cultural and multi-ethnic societies, and how it is acquired; whether it is a legitimate aim for history teaching to attempt to develop it – and if so, how; and what should be the weight given to national and, say, community, European or world history? Can we ensure that love of country is not accompanied by something deeply unpleasant like hatred of foreigners or persecution of those who have a different colour of skin or hold an opposing view about what is nationally significant? I cannot hope to address all these questions here; but four points seem to me to be vitally important:

- (i) History teaching does need to have as one of its aims familiarising pupils with the broad narrative story of the country of which they are a part. But this must be done in a way which acknowledges the bad as well as the good, the failures as well as the successes, the injustices as well as the achievements.

- (ii) It must insistently raise the question – how do we know this to be true? – and enable pupils to distinguish between myths, legends and interpretations based on the historical record.
- (iii) It needs to recognise that, within any one country, different individuals or groups will have different – often very different – concepts of what constitutes the national identity and the national history. This is particularly the case, for example, in one part of the United Kingdom. The opposing paramilitary groups in Northern Ireland justify the violence of their actions by offering wildly contrasting accounts of the history of Ireland and what it means to be Irish. And many history teachers have often found themselves dangerously caught in the middle.
- (iv) It needs to acknowledge, and if necessary combat, views of history to which pupils are exposed elsewhere than in the classroom – in newspapers and magazines, television, the cinema, or even the football stadium. Some researchers have suggested, for example, that only some 20% of pupils’ historical consciousness comes from what they are taught in school.

What this suggests, therefore, is the need for a history curriculum which is balanced in content and which, to repeat an earlier point, equips pupils with the ability and knowledge to question and evaluate the accounts they are given.

- (4) The issue of the role that creating a sense of national identity should play in the history curriculum is part of the broader question about history teaching and the development of values. You will have gathered from what I have said already that I do not believe that history teaching should strive to persuade young people into the values of, say, a liberal democracy – any more than it should seek to gather them into the arms of a fascist dictatorship. I may fervently hope that they embrace the former and reject the latter; I may even believe that fascists make very poor historians. But, in matters of content – the events, the people, the ideas that are chosen for study and the judgments that are made – history teaching is not about the transmission of a set of political, social or moral values chosen by whoever happens to control the curriculum.

But, that is not to say that history teaching can have nothing to do with values education. In one very important sense, it clearly is about the transmission of certain kinds of values. To echo the English philosopher, RF Atkinson, who pointed out some time ago:

... there is one way in which commitment to values is absolutely central to history. Historians must recognise such *intellectual* values as concern for truth, validity in argument and respect for evidence ... There is no reason in logic why a bad man should not be a good historian ... (but) a man who, in his writing about the past, showed

little or no regard for the intellectual values would not be an historian at all.

- (5) And, finally, to turn to more practical considerations surrounding the development of a history curriculum. I want to pick out two with which we have wrestled.
- (i) How most effectively to reconcile the two chronologies – the chronology of the past and the chronology of the pupil. By that, I mean that, if history is taught strictly chronologically to pupils over, say, a 10 year period, there is a very real danger that a young person's knowledge and understanding of the more distant past will remain forever that of a five or six year old. This seems neither justifiable nor desirable. It seems essential, therefore, that curriculum development should allow for some re-visiting. Pupils look again, for instance, at periods of medieval history – but from perspectives and in ways which deepen their knowledge and understanding rather than merely repeat what has been done before. In visual terms, the curriculum needs to look more like a spiral than a straight line.
 - (ii) How do we describe and measure achievement in history in ways which will enable us to keep track of how well pupils are progressing through the curriculum? This issue becomes particularly acute where we are concerned with enabling pupils to participate in the processes of historical study – the analysis of documents, the evaluation of interpretations. We need, therefore, to build into the curriculum not only what is to be taught but also what are appropriate means of assessment.

Appended documents

Context

- ❖ **Separate curricula for England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland**
- ❖ **Before 1988 (1989 for history) no national curriculum – schools free to choose**
- ❖ **Applies only to pupils 5-14 in state schools – not to independent schools (about 8% of school population)**
- ❖ **Relates only to content and standards – not to how history should be taught or which resources should be used**
- ❖ **Has been revised twice since it was first introduced**
 - **less detail**
 - **greater flexibility**

Issues

- ❖ **Need to provide a coherent, balanced and broad historical education for all pupils which ensures they make progress by:**
 - **expanding their range of knowledge**
 - **deepening their understanding of how events might be related**
 - **developing their ability to make sense of the raw material of history**

- ❖ **Avoid indoctrination/history as propaganda:**
 - **recognise that historical accounts are a series of tentative judgements based a study and interpretation of the available evidence**
 - **wide and continuing public debate about what history to select**

- ❖ **Promote a balanced sense of national identity:**
 - **offering a narrative which acknowledges the undesirable as well as the desirable aspects**
 - **raising the question – ‘how do we know this to be true?’**
 - **recognising diversity and different viewpoints about what constitutes national identity**
 - **questioning crude historical accounts which are presented outside the classroom (eg in the media)**

- ❖ **Respect for *intellectual* values**

- ❖ **Practical concerns:**
 - **Reconciling the two chronologies (the pupil and the past)**
 - **Describing and measuring achievement**

DEVELOPING A HISTORY CURRICULUM: THE BRITISH EXPERIENCE

Knowledge, skills and understanding

	Key Stage 2 (7-11)	Key stage 3 (11-14)
<u>Chronological Understanding</u>	<p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) place events, people and changes into correct periods of time (b) use dates and vocabulary relating to the passing of time, including ancient, modern, BC, AD, century and decade 	<p>Pupils should be taught to recognise and make appropriate use of dates, vocabulary and conventions that describe historical periods and the passing of time</p>
Knowledge and understanding of events, people and changes in the past	<p>Pupils should be taught:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) about characteristic features of the periods and societies studied, including the ideas, beliefs, attitudes and experiences of men, women and children in the past (b) about the social, cultural, religious and ethnic diversity of the societies studied in Britain and the wider world (c) to identify and describe reasons for, and results of, historical events, situations, and changes in the periods studied (d) to describe and make links between the main events, situations and changes within and across the different periods and societies studied 	<p>Pupils should be taught:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) to describe and analyse the relationships between the characteristic features of the periods and societies studied including the experiences and range of ideas, beliefs and attitudes of men, women and children in the past (b) about the social, cultural, religious and ethnic diversity of the societies studied, both in Britain and the wider world (c) to analyse and explain the reasons for, and results of, the historical events, situations and changes in the periods studied (d) to identify trends, both within and across different periods, and links between local, British, European and world history (e) to consider the significance of the main events, people and changes studied

<p>Historical interpretation</p>	<p>Pupils should be taught to recognise that the past is represented and interpreted in different ways, and to give reasons for this</p>	<p>Pupils should be taught:</p> <p>(a) how and why historical events, people, situations and changes have been interpreted in different ways</p> <p>(b) to evaluate interpretations</p>
<p>Historical enquiry</p>	<p>Pupils should be taught:</p> <p>(a) how to find out about the events, people and changes studied from an appropriate range of sources of information, including ICT-based sources (<i>for example, documents, printed sources, CD-ROMS, databases, pictures and photographs, music, artefacts, historic buildings and visits to museums, galleries and sites</i>)</p> <p>(b) to ask and answer questions, and to select and record information relevant to the focus of the enquiry</p>	<p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <p>(a) identify, select and use a range of appropriate sources of information including oral accounts, documents, printed sources, the media, artefacts, pictures, photographs, music, museums, buildings and sites, and ICT-based sources as a base for independent historical enquiries</p> <p>(b) evaluate the sources used, select and record information relevant to the enquiry and reach conclusions</p>
<p>Organisation and communication</p>	<p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <p>(a) recall, select and organise historical information</p> <p>(b) use dates and historical vocabulary to describe the periods studied</p> <p>(c) communicate their knowledge and understanding of history in a variety of ways (<i>for example, drawing, writing, by using ICT</i>)</p>	<p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <p>(a) recall, prioritise and select historical information</p> <p>(b) accurately select and use chronological conventions and historical vocabulary appropriate to the periods studied to organise historical information</p> <p>(c) communicate their knowledge and understanding of history, using a range of techniques, including spoken language, structured narratives, substantial explanations and the use of ICT</p>

DEVELOPING A HISTORY CURRICULUM: THE BRITISH EXPERIENCE

Breadth of Study

Key Stage 2 (7-11)		Key Stage 3 (11-14)	
<p>During the key stage, pupils should be taught the knowledge, skills and understanding through a local history study, three British history studies, a European history study and a world history study</p>		<p>During the key stage, pupils should be taught the knowledge, skills and understanding through three British studies, a European study and two world studies</p>	
<p>LOCAL HISTORY STUDY</p>	<p>A study investigating how an aspect in the local area has changed over a long period of time, <i>or</i>, how the locality was affected by a significant national <i>or</i> local events <i>or</i> by the work of a significant individual</p>	<p>In their study of LOCAL, BRITISH, EUROPEAN AND WORLD HISTORY, pupils should be taught about:</p> <p>(a) significant events, people and changes from the recent and more distant past</p>	
<p>BRITISH HISTORY In their study of British history, pupils should be taught about:</p> <p>(a) the Romans, Anglo-Saxons and Vikings and <i>either</i> Victorian Britain <i>or</i> Britain since 1930</p> <p>(b) aspects of the histories of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales, where appropriate, and about the history of Britain in its European and wider world context, in these periods</p>	<p>ROMANS, ANGLO-SAXONS AND VIKINGS IN BRITAIN An overview study of how British society was shaped by the movement and settlement of different people in the period before the Norman Conquest and in-depth study of how British society was affected by Roman <i>or</i> Anglo-Saxon <i>or</i> Viking settlement</p> <p>BRITAIN AND THE WIDER WORLD IN TUDOR TIMES A study of some significant events and individuals, including Tudor monarchs, who shaped this period and of the everyday lives of men, women and children from different sections of society</p> <p>VICTORIAN BRITAIN A study of the impact of significant individuals, events and changes in work and transport on the lives of men, women and children from different sections of society <i>Or</i></p> <p>BRITAIN SINCE 1930 A study of the impact of the Second World War <i>or</i> social and technological changes that have taken place since 1930, on the lives of men, women and children from different sections of society</p>	<p>(b) history from a variety of perspectives including political, religious, social, cultural, aesthetic, economic, technological and scientific</p> <p>(c) aspects of the histories of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales where appropriate</p> <p>(d) the history of Britain in its European and wider world context</p> <p>(e) some aspects in overview and others in depth</p>	<p>BRITAIN 1066-1500 A study of major features of Britain's medieval past: the development of the monarchy, and significant events and characteristic features of the lives of people living throughout the British Isles, including the local area if appropriate</p> <p>BRITAIN 1500-1750 A study of crowns, parliaments and people: the major political, religious and social changes affecting people throughout the British Isles, including the local area if appropriate</p> <p>Britain 1750-1900 A study of how expansion of trade and colonisation, industrialisation and political changes affected the United Kingdom, including the local area</p>

<p>A EUROPEAN HISTORY STUDY</p>	<p>A study of the way of life, beliefs and achievements of the people living in Ancient Greece and the influence of their civilisation on the world today</p>	<p>A EUROPEAN STUDY BEFORE 1914</p>	<p>A study of a significant period <i>or</i> event in the pre-history or history of Europe</p>
<p>A WORLD HISTORY STUDY</p>	<p>A study of the key features, including the everyday lives of men, women and children of a past society <i>selected from</i>: Ancient Egypt, Ancient Sumer, the Assyrian Empire, the Indus valley, the Maya, Benin or the Aztecs</p>	<p>A WORLD STUDY BEFORE 1900</p>	<p>A study of the cultures, beliefs and achievements of an African, American, Asian <i>or</i> Australasian society in the past (other than those included in the programme of study for key stage 2)</p>
		<p>A WORLD STUDY AFTER 1900</p>	<p>A study of some of the significant individuals, events and developments from across the 20th Century, including the two World Wars, the Holocaust, the Cold War, and their impact on Britain, Europe and the wider world</p>

APPENDIX III

PRESENTATION BY Mr Jean-Michel LECLERCQ, France

NATIONAL HISTORY CURRICULUM IN FRANCE

In presenting the French history curriculum, I will consider features which both characterise a specific situation and join preoccupations existing elsewhere. At first I will indicate how in France curricula are developed and implemented under conditions of control and flexibility exhibiting a strong national orientation. Secondly I will mention some of the problems which need to be solved in the organisation of the French history curriculum, problems which in my opinion are common to practically all history curricula. These include how much emphasis is to be put on national history as opposed to world history, to the history of the past as opposed to contemporary history. But one also needs to decide on the concept of historical knowledge itself, should it be seen as a narrative process based mainly on chronological approach or as an interpretation never escaping subjectivity. So that the French history curriculum will bear the mark of its own traditions and at the same time, feature a broad international perspective.

1. The development and the implementation of curricula in France

France has national curricula. This means that curricula are approved and implemented by the Ministry of Education.

Nevertheless, the drafting of curricula is the task of two relatively independent bodies, the National Council for Curricula (Conseil national des programmes) and the working parties (Groupes Techniques) for the different subjects. The National Council for Curricula is composed of educational staff (researchers, inspectors, principals, teachers), of members from the national administration, and from local communities, of representatives from unions and parents associations. Its role is to propose general guidelines for the curricula but not to draw up curricula themselves. The curricula for each particular subject is drafted by a Working Group, composed of experts named by the ministry, and who are university professors, general inspectors, school teachers, and so forth. The Minister of Education must approve all Working Groups proposals before they can be implemented.

As you see, there is a strong central control which, from a long time, seems necessary to maintain the influence of the government and to keep the coherence of the educational system. Nevertheless, the setting up of the National Council for Curricula and of the Working Parties, in 1989 only, has been a signal of the will to somewhat weaken central control and to accept that civil society takes a look at the curricula.

To go into more detail, I have to mention that a curriculum corresponds to two kinds of documents. An administrative one listing the contents to be taught which has only some pages and a pedagogical one, much longer, presenting the contents plus commentaries to help the teachers to make a better use of the curriculum. The book for history curriculum in lower secondary school has 220 pages but includes the curricula for geography and civic education.

Concerning the history curriculum, in a first step, I will concentrate on some basic information about the contents.

The profile of the curriculum is very different for primary school, for lower secondary school and for upper secondary school.

For the primary school, the curriculum only indicates very broad areas of study with some key-points to stress in each of them and a list of skills to be acquired by the pupils (Figure 1).

FIGURE 1
PRIMARY SCHOOL
YEAR 1 to YEAR 5

AREAS OF STUDIES

- **Prehistory**
- **Antiquity**
- **The Middle Ages (476-1492)**
- **Early-modern times to the end of Napoleonic era (1492-1815)**
- **The 19th Century (1815-1914)**
- **The 20th Century and the present world**

KEY POINTS FOR THE 20th CENTURY

Industrial and urban expansion in Europe
Obstacles to setting up of the French Republic
Inequality between women and men

SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES

To be able:

- **to differentiate between the recent past and the more remote past;**
- **to identify information on the past and place it chronologically;**
- **to construct and use various timelines, to locate specific events in timelines;**
- **to comprehend and compare the length of different periods of time;**
- **to seek out elements of the past and interpret them with the help of the teacher;**
- **to learn about twenty events and dates and to understand the role of persons and groups mentioned in the key points.**

As for the secondary school there is a contrast between the lower level and the upper level.

At the lower level, the study units for each form are many and for each one is indicated a number of periods (a period in France is 55 minutes) which has not much flexibility and must in any case respect the weekly time table of about one hour and 15 minutes (Figure 2).

FIGURE 2

LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL

<u>Topics</u>	<u>Number of periods per year</u>
Form 6	
- The origin of agriculture and writing	2 – 3
- Egypt: the Pharaoh, gods and people	4 – 5
- The Bible and the Hebrews	3 – 4
- Ancient Greece	9 – 10
- Ancient Rome: from Republic to Empire	9 – 10
- The beginnings of Christianity	3 – 4
- The end of the Roman Empire in Western Europe and the legacy of Ancient world	2 – 3
Form 5	
- The Byzantine Empire	2 – 3
- The Muslim world	4 – 5
- The Carolingian Empire	3 – 4
- The Church	4 – 5
- Political leaders and society	7 – 8
- The kingdom of France (10th to 15th Century)	2 – 3
- The birth of modern age (Humanism, the Renaissance, the Reformation)	6 – 8
- Europe and discovery of the world	3 – 4

- **The French Kingdom in the 16th Century:
the difficulty of imposing royal authority** 2 – 3

Form 4

- **Description of modern Europe** 3 – 4
- **The absolute monarchy in France** 3 – 4
- **The questioning of the absolute monarchy in France** 3 – 4
- **The main phases of the revolutionary period in France** 7 – 8
- **The transformation of Europe** 2 – 3
- **The industrial age** 7 – 8
- **Liberal and national movements** 3 – 4
- **The partition of the world** 2 – 3
- **France from 1815 to 1914** 4 – 5

Form 3

- **The First World War and its consequences** 4 – 5
- **The USSR under Stalin** 2 – 3
- **The crisis of the 1930s as exemplified by France and
Germany** 6 – 7
- **The Second World War** 5 – 6
- **From 1945 to the present – growth, democracy, inequalities** 10 – 12
- **Economic growth, and demographic change and their
social and cultural consequences** 3 – 4
- **From the Cold War to the world of to-day** 7 – 8
- **France since 1945, as an European and world power** 6 – 8

At the upper level there is a greater flexibility of the curriculum. For Form 2 we have still six study units, but for the two other forms we have only 3 study units. Besides this, there is no prescriptive repartition of periods. The single constraint is the weekly time table which, according to the possible options at this level, may vary from 1 to 3 hours (Figure 3).

FIGURE 3
UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

CONTENTS

Form 2

- **Citizenship in Antiquity – an example**
- **One aspect of Christianity**
- **The diversity of Medieval civilisations**
- **The Renaissance, a new vision of mankind and the universe**
- **Revolution in France, a turning point in history**
- **Changes in Europe from 1800 to 1848**

Form 1

Industrial era and its civilisation
Nations and States from 1850 to 1914 (France from 1848 to 1914)
From one war to the next one

Last form

The Second World War
The world since 1945
France since 1945

This panorama invites to a deeper analysis of the possible flexibility in the implementation of the Curriculum.

2. The possible flexibility

If you consider that central control of the curriculum and flexibility are antinomic, this panorama induces the impression that the flexibility of history curriculum is very limited. But two different aspects must be distinguished.

On one side it is possible to argue that teachers enjoy a large autonomy to implement the curriculum. It is particularly true for primary school teachers who practically are allowed to decide what to teach and how to teach it. At this level the guidelines for the areas studies as well as the knowledge and skills expected leave much space for choice and adaptation since it is clearly stated that all the curriculum cannot be taught. The lower secondary school teachers may seem have far less freedom with many compulsory study courses and allocations of time varying with only one hour more or less. But nevertheless it is necessary to observe that the wording of the study courses is such that teachers are invited to select some items from many. The situation is still clearer at the upper secondary school where the study courses are very broad and

necessitate choices which may freely use the available periods. Besides this, as we are going to check later on, history teaching is focused on an interpretation of events which also offers to the teachers large opportunities to insist on some specific topics and to invest more time on them. All these aspects refer to what in France is called the “pedagogical freedom of the teacher” which has never been seen as incompatible with central control and appears as a way to introduce flexibility in the implementation of the curriculum.

But, on the other side, the adaptation of the curriculum to specific cultures or regions is not really accepted. There is one history of France and not several. Recently the progress of decentralisation has inspired less tight conceptions of national unity and the teaching of local languages and cultures now can be organised. It is often an opportunity to reserve a space for local history and to accept new ideas on the making of the nation-state which often was to the prejudice of some parts of the country. But it must remain additional material to the national curriculum. The progress of decentralisation with more educational initiatives of local authorities may lead to reconsider the situation. But probably it will be a longer and more uncertain process than in many other countries in Europe like Germany, Spain or Russia. If we move now to the main problems of the history teaching, on the contrary the French options do not really differ.

3. The balance between National History and World History

In most of the countries, one aspect of the history curriculum which has been often discussed is the balance to keep between the National History and the World History. Mainly from the eighties, the development of international exchanges, the building of the European Community and an increasing awareness of the dangers of nationalism have convinced the decisions-makers and the curricula-developers that it was necessary to offer an history curriculum which does not seclude the students from relationships with other parts of Europe and of the world.

France have followed this path.

The curriculum for primary schools already states that national history has a large place but that Europe and the World are seriously taken into consideration

The trend is still clearer in the lower secondary school where the number of periods per year is always bigger for world history than for French history (Figure 4).

FIGURE 4

LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL – PERIODS PER YEAR FOR FRENCH HISTORY AND WORLD HISTORY

Form	Periods per year French History	Periods per year World History
6		32-39
5	4-6	29-37
4	14-17	20-26
3	9-12	37-42
2	11-13	25-31
1		
Last		

Beside this, the history curriculum for lower secondary school lists for each form a number of “chronological landmarks” which are the basic events to be remembered. Here also the number of landmarks for French history is always smaller than the number for other parts of the world (Figure 4).

FIGURE 5

CHRONOLOGICAL LANDMARKS FOR FRENCH HISTORY AND WORLD HISTORY

Form	Number of chronol. landmarks, French history	Number of chronol. landmarks, World history
6	8	1
5	8	3
4	11	10
3	23	6

A similar situation exists in the upper secondary school. In form 2, among 8 study units, only one, “Revolution in France, a turning point in history”, is strictly concerning French history and in other ones French History can be approached only in larger contexts such as Christian Religion, medieval civilisations, Renaissance or Europe from 1800 to 1848. In form 1, no unit is specifically concerning French history which appears only as an aspect of general evolutions such as the civilisation of industrial era, the development of nations and states during the 19th Century. In the last form, “France since 1945” is one of the 3 study units, the two other ones being focused on world history (“The second World War” and “The World since 1945”).

It is necessary to mention that a completely different conception of the history curriculum had predominated for a long time since the beginning of the Third Republic in 1875. In France, like practically in all modern states but perhaps still more eagerly, the teaching of national history has been considered as irreplaceable for the promotion of national consciousness and patriotism. And of course this has opened the

door to many distortions of the past which often has become a pure mythology with heroes and events considered as having played a decisive role for the foundation of the nation. The present history curriculum for lower secondary school still stresses that students must have a “national memory” and that “national identities” exist. But now it is also clear that the reference to these concepts has to be dissociated from nationalistic views because there is always a plurality of nations and because for this reason the uniqueness of each nation is necessarily relative. The focus on world history in upper secondary school may also help to make the distinction between a natural interest for national history and its abusive interpretation to encourage a spirit of superiority and of intolerance.

It would be easy to show that the French history curriculum shares with nearly all other curricula this search for a balance of national history and European or World history. On this point, to take just one example, I again may refer to the English Final Report for History Curriculum which states that “an understanding of British history should be the foundation of pupil’s historical learning” and at the same time insists “on the need to introduce pupils to the history of nations or regions in Europe and outside Europe.

4. History of the past and history of present

Another question which draws attention everywhere is the place to reserve in the curricula to history of the past and to history of the present. Actually the question is confronting to a dilemma. There is the tendency to consider that there is only history of the past because only past events offer the conditions for a sound and objective historical knowledge and because the possibility for such a knowledge for present is lacking. But on the other side there is the tendency to see the teaching of history as a tool to better understand the present time. In this regard, concentration on the history of the past would not be sufficient and could be even dangerous in encouraging erroneous transposition of interpretations. Therefore the teaching of the history of the present seems inescapable although difficult and controversial it could be.

In France the matter has raised long discussions. Finally the choice has been made to increase as much as possible the dimension of the history of the present. As you probably have noticed history of the present exists at each level. “XXth Century and the present world” is an area of studies at the primary school. A similar study unit takes place in form 3 of the lower secondary school. Study of the world and of France since 1945 is in the curriculum of the last form of upper secondary school. It is worthy to note that the history of contemporary periods does not hesitate to tackle with controversial issues like the Vichy regime or colonial wars. It is expected that the pupils, under the guidance of the teachers, have sufficient objective information to build their own opinion.

5. The nature of historical knowledge

This point of view relies on a conception of historical knowledge which is shared by most of the curricula developers and for this reason I think it is not necessary to touch it in detail. I will only mention some aspects which are perhaps more underlined in France.

Firstly I believe that the definition of historical knowledge has its starting point in an effort to reduce the distance between a kind of historical knowledge which would be reserved to schools and the kind of historical knowledge which is based on scientific methodology. For a long time indeed, in France like in many other countries, history textbooks have offered mainly a linear narration of events leaving few possibilities of personal reflection by the students. On the contrary nowadays, in the textbooks nearly as in scientific investigations, the focus is on a reflexive approach of the events and we find here again the attention to pay to interpretation. As I have already touched this matter in my introduction to the seminar, I will not use the few minutes which are left to return to this topic.

I prefer to insist on a conception of the historical knowledge which is probably a kind of national tradition. I mean the idea that history has a very specific status. The positivist theory never had a very large audience and the increasing importance given to quantitative aspects never reduced the interest for qualitative aspects. As says a methodologist of history teaching, history is a “soft science”. This explains that in France interpretation remains the axis of the historical knowledge but it must always be built with patience and precaution. This is the reason why the study of documents and of chronology must always be the first step for the pupils as well for the historian. Hence some interpretations are possible and others not. It depends on an exercise of the judgement in which freedom and constraints are necessarily associated as in democratic education everywhere.

It could be the main conclusion to draw from an analysis of the history curriculum in France or elsewhere. It could be the challenge for this seminar.

APPENDIX IV

**FEDERATION OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA
PROPOSAL**

HISTORY CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Summary

PRIMARY SCHOOL

Goals of courses in History

The goal of courses in history for grades 5 – 8 of primary school is to familiarise the pupils with historical phenomena relevant for the development of human society from international, European and BiH perspectives, and to learn about the flow of events and paths which human society went through in different historical periods.

Key tasks of the syllabus in history are to:

- present political, economic and cultural development, thus presenting to the pupils the key phenomena in human development in different historical periods and their key features;
- present history as a science and a subject;
- develop in pupils a sense of tolerance and of a democratic right to hold different opinions;
- develop in pupils a sense of their surroundings and to help them understand better modern society and its historical condition;
- allow pupils to acquire a sense of Bosnia and Herzegovina as an integral part of European and international community;
- introduce to pupils the “craft” of a historian and all the different sources of knowledge.

5th GRADE

SYLLABUS WITH NUMBERS OF CLASSES ALLOCATED

I	INTRODUCTION TO HISTORY	24 + 12
II	PEOPLE	7 + 3
III	SOCIETY: FEATURES OF PERIODS	5 + 3
IV	PRE-HISTORY	6 + 3
V	URBAN CULTURES	6 + 3
		48 + 24

6th GRADE – See appendix V page 56

7th GRADE

CURRICULUM WITH NUMBERS OF CLASSES ALLOCATED

I	NEW AGE	4 + 2
II	BEGINNING OF NEW AGE	3 + 1
III	FORMS OF GOVERNMENT	4 + 2
IV	ECONOMY – UNEVEN DEVELOPMENT AND SEVERAL TYPES OF MANUFACTURE	4 + 2
V	ACHIEVEMENTS OF NEW AGE	2 + 1
VI	BOSNIA UNDER OTTOMAN RULE	1 + 1
VII	FROM THE FALL OF THE KINGDOM TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE <i>EYALET</i>	5 + 2
VIII	CLASSIC TIMES OF THE BOSNIAN <i>EYALET</i>	5 + 3
IX	CONGRESSES OF GREAT POWERS – WATERSHED YEARS OF 19 th CENTURY HISTORY	2 + 1
X	TOWARDS CIVIL SOCIETY	7 + 3
XI	ECONOMY OF THE 19 th CENTURY	2 + 1
XII	SCIENCE, CULTURE, ART	2 + 1
XIII	REFORMS IN THE BOSNIAN <i>EYALET / VILAYET</i>	8 + 3

8th GRADE

CURRICULUM WITH NUMBERS OF CLASSES ALLOCATED

I	FEATURES OF THE PERIODS	1
II	EUROPE AND THE WORLD IN 1878-1914	3 + 1
III	BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA UNDER AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN ADMINISTRATION	5 + 3
IV	WORLD WAR I	5 + 2
V	BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN WORLD WAR I	3 + 2
VI	THE WORLD BETWEEN THE TWO WARS	8 + 3

VII	BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA AS PART OF THE KINGDOM OF SERBS, CROATS AND SLOVENES / KINGDOM OF YUGOSLAVIA	5 + 3
VIII	WORLD WAR II	6 + 3
IX	BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN WORLD WAR II	4 + 2
X	WORLD OF DIVISION AND INTEGRATION	5 + 2
XI	BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA UNDER SOCIALISM	4 + 2

TEACHING INSTRUCTIONS

In teaching primary school history syllabus, the following principles should be observed:

- development of historical knowledge as the goal of education and adoption of scientific historical thinking in the realisation of the educational purpose. In that sense, it is necessary to promote the universal principles of education, as set out by UNESCO;
- introduction of, and respect for, human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- promotion of solidarity, tolerance and non-violent conflict resolution;
- recognition of the right to difference in opinions, positions and beliefs;
- struggle against prejudice and all forms of discrimination;
- individual's positive reaction to changes around him/her;
- development of critical thinking, which includes media, cultural and political literacy;
- development of sensitivity towards environmental problems.

The contents for the primary school history curriculum were selected in such a way as to allow the students to learn about historical phenomena in the development of human society in relation to the world, Europe and Bosnia and Herzegovina, and to learn about how it went through different historical periods through its development. Insight into political, economic and cultural development should enable students to acquire a picture of the key phenomena of human development through different historical periods and their features. In the realisation of curricula, teachers should try to use different sources (history reading books, selected essays, video, encyclopaedias, etc.). The level of interpretation should correspond to the age of the students, and the number of terms and notions they meet for the first time should thus be limited. As a 5th grade student is encountering history as a subject for the very first time, the textbook should be carefully adapted to the students' age.

Realisation of this curriculum includes textbooks as a merger of key body text and vignette texts. Key body text presents the main content, and vignette text should offer additional information.

TEACHERS' PROFILE

Successful realisation of the curriculum depends on the profile and the level of training of the teachers. The teachers should be required to follow all the key scientific publications and the practical application of new knowledge in historiography. Seminars should be organised periodically, to allow teachers access to new scientific information and further training in methodology and pedagogical work.

SECONDARY SCHOOL

1st GRADE

(2 classes per week – 70 per academic year)

		unit classes	other purpose classes
Curriculum content			
I	Introduction to historical studies	6	3
II	History of historiography and theory of historiography`	15	9
III	Prehistoric culture	4	2
IV	Prehistoric culture in the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina	3	1
V	Civilisations of Eastern peoples	7	3
VI	Culture and civilisation of pre-Columbus America	1	-
VII	History and modernity	10	6

2nd GRADE

(2 classes per week – 70 per academic year)

		unit classes	other purpose classes
Curriculum content			
I	The Mediterranean – the cradle of Europe	2	-
II	Life and culture of Ancient Greeks	8	2
III	Hellenism	2	1
IV	Life and culture of Ancient Romans	8	2
V	Key notions of the Middle Ages	2	1
VI	Four medieval Europes	4	2
VII	Middle Ages in Western Europe and medieval Bosnia and Herzegovina distancing and approximation	6	3
VIII	Key states in Western Europe in 18 th and 19 th Centuries	3	1
IX	On the border of Western Europe	3	2
X	Summer and autumn of Bosnian Middle Ages	10	3
XI	All equal, all different	2	1
XII	Evaluation and interpretation	1	1

3rd GRADE

(2 classes per week – 70 per academic year)

Curriculum content

I	Creation of the modern world	(10 + 4)
II	Balkan and South Slav world between two civilisations	(7 + 6)
III	Bosnia and Herzegovina in the Ottoman Empire	(13 + 7)
IV	Bosnian micro-cosmos	(16 + 7)

4th GRADE – See Appendix V page 56

APPENDIX V

DETAILED CURRICULA FOR THE 6th GRADE OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL AND THE 4th GRADE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

PRIMARY SCHOOL

6th GRADE

CURRICULUM WITH NUMBERS OF CLASSES ALLOCATED

I	SLAVE-HOLDNIG	2 + 1
II	ANCIENT GREEKS	9 + 4
III	ANCIENT ROMANS	9 + 4
IV	TERRITORY OF MODERN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN ANCIENT TIMES	4 + 2
V	KEY FEATURES OF MIDDLE AGES	3 + 1
VI	FORMATION OF EAST AND WEST	4 + 2
VII	FEUDAL RELATIONS	3 + 1
VIII	CHRISTIANITY AND ISLAM	3 + 1
IX	DEVELOPED FEUDALISM	4 + 2
X	EASTERN AND WESTERN CULTURE	2 + 1
XI	MEDIEVAL BOSNIA	7 + 3
		50 + 22

I SLAVE-HOLDNIG

- Key features of slave-holding (2)

II ANCIENT GREEKS

- Times of myths, legends and heroes (1)
- Polis. Athens. Sparta (1)
- Democracy and oligarchy (1)
- Colonisation and wars (1)
- Religion and philosophy (1)
- Greeks' love for beauty (1)
- Life of Ancient Greeks (2)
- Alexander the Great. Hellenism (1)

III ANCIENT ROMANS

- Italy. Romulus and Remus. Kingdom (1)
- Republic (1)
- Romans as conquerors. Roman army. Civil wars (1)
- Empire (2)
- Roman law (1)
- Economy. Daily life of Romans (1)
- Philosophy and religion (1)
- Art (1)

IV TERRITORY OF MODERN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN ANCIENT TIMES

- Illyrians and their cultural heritage (1)
- Romans. Provinces of Dalmatia and Pannonia (1)
- Ancient culture in the territory of modern Bosnia and Herzegovina (1)
- Ancient culture in my area (1)

V KEY FEATURES OF MIDDLE AGES

- Division into periods (1)
- Feudalism (1)
- Society. Religion. Civilisation (1)

VI FORMATION OF EAST AND WEST

- Great population shifts (the Huns – Attila, Germans and Germanic states) (1)
- Franks. The times of Charles the Great (state, Renaissance) (1)
- Byzantium. Attempts to revive the Roman Empire. Justinian. The Arab world. Birth and expansion. Muhammad. (1)
- Interfusion of eastern and western civilisations (1)

VII FEUDAL RELATIONS

- Feudal system (feudal landowner, serf, property, *pronoia*) (1)
- Status of vassals (1)
- Description of a feudal estate (1)

VIII CHRISTIANITY AND ISLAM

- Creation and development of Christianity. Schism. Catholic West and Orthodox East (1)
- Features of Islam (1)
- The Crusades. Conflict between papal authority and the empire. Heresy (1)

IX DEVELOPED FEUDALISM

- Commerce and city (1)
- Class monarchy (1)
- Contradictions of feudal society. Medieval parliament (1)
- Venice (1)

X EASTERN AND WESTERN CULTURE

- Knighthood. Science (1)
- Regions of the world of art (Arabs, Byzantium, Western European world) (1)

XI MEDIEVAL BOSNIA

- Slavs and boundaries of their civilisation. From ancient homeland to modern ages. Medieval Bosnia between East and West (1)
- Territorial and political development of medieval Bosnia (1)
- Society (1)
- Economy (1)
- Religion in medieval Bosnia (1)
- Culture and arts (1)
- Fall of the medieval Bosnian state (1)

SECONDARY SCHOOL

4th GRADE

(2 classes per week – 60 per academic year)

40 unit classes and 20 other purpose classes

Curriculum content

- I Age of nations and revolutions
- II Bosnia and Herzegovina in modern times
- III Bosnia and Herzegovina in 20th Century
- IV Bosnia and Herzegovina in the first Yugoslavia
- V Bosnia and Herzegovina in the second Yugoslavia

- AGE OF NATIONS AND REVOLUTIONS

- Key features of liberal capitalism

- Ideas of liberty and equality of people
- Constitutional revolutions
- Dissolution of traditional society and authority
- Development of anthropocentric and nation-centric world
- Classical German philosophy

- The notions of nation and citizen as new forms of identity
- Development of parliamentary systems
- Political parties and the role of print media
- Glossary of new terms

1. Napoleon's wars and their impact on the emergence of civic ideas in South Slavic areas

- The Congress of Vienna
- The Holy Alliance
- Revolutions of 1848
- Glossary of new terms

2. Europe and the world in 1870s

- Completion of formation of nation states (Italy, Germany)
- Glossary of new terms

3. Global social processes in the world

- Social reforms in Russia
- Industrialisation in Japan
- Civil war in the US
- Glossary of new terms

4. Opening of the Eastern question

- Great powers' interests in the East
- *Gülhane Hat-I-serif*
- Paris peace treaty – Europe's move
- *Seferi* order
- Glossary of new terms

5. Natural sciences as a factor of development

- Key scientific and technical discoveries (from steam engine to dynamite)
- New trends in literature and art (expressionism, impressionism, surrealism)
- Glossary of new terms

6. The Far East in the early 20th Century

- Growth of China and Japan
- Political and military grouping in Europe
- Glossary of new terms

- **BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN MODERN TIMES**

7. French revolution and its impact on developing a stronger sense of belonging among Slavs

- Strengthening of the religious component as the basis of national identity
- Glossary of new terms

8. Emergence of religious nationalism

- Division of the category of 'Bosnian' into three religious and corresponding new categories of denomination, 'Serb', 'Croat' and 'Moslem'
- The Illyrian Movement
- '*Nacertanije*' by Ilija Garasanin
- Josip Juraj Strossmayer
- Glossary of new terms

9. European basis of national identity

- Language, literature, religion
- Cited categories among Bosnian Catholics and Bosnian Orthodox Christians and their cultural-identity relationship with Belgrade and Zagreb
- Problems of Bosnian Moslem national identification and the process of 'deciding' in terms of Serb or Croat national belonging
- Modernisation and European development of identity
- Glossary of new terms

10. Social structure

- Relations in agriculture
- Dissatisfaction from the peasants
- Rebellions
- *Ciflik* work
- Glossary of new terms

11. Political fate of Bosnian aristocracy

- Movement of Husein-kapetan Gradiscevic
- Ali-pasha Rizvanbegovic
- mer-pasha Latas

12. Beginning of the modernisation of Bosnia and Herzegovina

- Osman Topal-pasha
- Glossary of new terms

13. Nation and culture

- The 19th Century as fertile ground for Bosnian nationalisms
- Denial of particularity of Bosnia and Herzegovina
- Controversy of the character of Bosnia and Herzegovina complexity in relation to the idea of a nation state
- Establishment of national cultures and their coexistence and interpenetration or confrontation with the category of common Bosnia and Herzegovina identity
- Drama of Bosnia and Herzegovina identity
- Glossary of new terms

14. Bosnia and Herzegovina in new European trends

- Bosnia and Herzegovina and Europe
- Bosnia and Herzegovina at the Berlin Congress in 1878
- Change of empires in Bosnia and Herzegovina – withdrawal of the Ottomans and arrival of Austria-Hungary, influence of the change of character of the rule over Bosnia and Herzegovina national-religious communities
- Change of social structure
- Migrations (changes of national structure of population and migrations of Bosniacs to Turkey)
- Censuses
- Arrival of foreign capital
- Glossary of new terms

15. Development of European character in Bosnia and Herzegovina

- Modernisation, urbanisation, industrialisation
- Glossary of new terms

16. Kallay and Bosnian nationhood

- Development of ethnic political parties
- Development of ethnic cultural societies
- Moslem movement for religious and educational autonomy and Serb movement for educational autonomy
- Establishment of regular hierarchy of the Catholic church in Bosnia and Herzegovina
- Position of the Islamic community
- Position of the Serb Orthodox community
- School system reform
- literary movements and European aesthetic trends
- Glossary of new terms

17. Organisation of administration in Bosnia and Herzegovina

- Legal position of Bosnia and Herzegovina and internal political development
- Establishment of the Bosnian Parliament
- Constitution of the province
- Glossary of new terms

18. Significance of year 1903 for South Slavic peoples

- The end of Kallay, Hedervary and Obrenovic
- Arrival of youth to the political arena
- Glossary of new terms

- BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN 20th CENTURY

19. Contradictions of the idea of freedom

- Scientific, social and technological progress
- Development of freedom and democracy as well as violence and destruction
- Glossary of new terms

20. Europe and the world on the eve of World War I

- Hot spots
- Annexation crisis
- Local wars and interests of great powers
- Great powers and their interests in South East Europe
- Balkan wars, causes and reasons
- Russian revolution of 1917
- Glossary of new terms

- BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN THE FIRST YUGOSLAVIA

21. Yugoslav board and the state of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes

- Serb government
- Corfu and May Declarations
- International diplomacy at the end of the war
- The Treaty of Versailles and the creation of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes
- Glossary of new terms

22. Bosnia and Herzegovina in World War I

- The assassination in Sarajevo
- Problems with feeding the population
- Population of Bosnia and Herzegovina in World War I
- Bosnia and Herzegovina units at the frontlines, rebellions and unrest

- Establishment of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes
- Glossary of new terms

23. Nationalism and totalitarianism

- Political map of the world between two wars
- Young Turk revolution
- The Versailles Peace Treaty
- World economic crisis in 1929
- Socialism and Stalinism in USSR
- Civil dictatorships in Europe between two wars
- Fascism in Italy, Nazism in Germany and Fascism in Japan
- Spanish civil war
- Colonies between two wars

24. Bosnia and Herzegovina within the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes 1918-1929, and Kingdom of Yugoslavia 1929-1941

- Position of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the new state
- Bosnia and Herzegovina and the St. Vitus Day Constitution ('the Turkish paragraph')
- Mehmed Spaho and *JMO* [Yugoslav Moslem Organisation]
- Glossary of new terms

Bosnia and Herzegovina as the focus of Serb-Croat national-political ambitions

- Nature and character of nationalism between two wars
- Party political life
- Dictatorship
- Establishment of the Banate of Croatia
- Place of religious communities within national parties
- Glossary of new terms

27. Arts and aesthetic scene

- Emergence of social writing and overall thought of the time
- Development of science and technology
- Glossary of new terms

28. World War II and new distribution of power in the world

- Attack against Poland
- Great battles in Europe
- War in the Pacific and the role of the US in World War II
- The fall of Berlin and the establishment of American-Russian confrontation
- Hiroshima and Nagasaki
- The Holocaust
- Hitler and Stalin
- Glossary of new terms

29. Bosnia and Herzegovina in World War II

- Nationalism, collaborators and anti-Fascism among South Slavs with a focus on the situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina
- Communism, anti-Fascism and anti-nationalism, results, forms and consequences
- Military centres and operations on regional fronts
- Glossary of new terms

30. Victory of the idea of popular resistance

- *ZAVNOBIH* and *AVNOJ*
- Relations between ideology and reality
- Tito and his role in social and political events
- Glossary of new terms

31. Results and consequences of the war

- War crime trials in Nuremberg and Tokyo
- Post-war arrangements in the world
- Founding of the UN
- the 'Cold War' period

32. Local wars and political crises after the war

- Arab-Israeli war
- Korean war
- Cuban crisis
- Vietnam war
- War in Afghanistan
- Glossary of new terms

33. De-colonisation

- Neo-colonialism
- Non-aligned movement and the third world
- Integration processes in Europe after the war
- European Union
- Dissolution of the communist world and its consequences
- Glossary of new terms

34. Science and technology at the end of the 20th Century

- Human in space
- Nuclear disaster in Chernobyl
- Development of film, photography and ICT
- Cloning
- Environmental protection
- Culture and sports
- Glossary of new terms

- **BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA IN THE SECOND YUGOSLAVIA**

35. Bosnia and Herzegovina after World War II (1945-1963)

- Economic and social development
- Emancipation of Bosnia and Herzegovina statehood
- Ideas and practice of socialism
- Ways of dealing with national and religious issues
- Etatism
- ComInForm
- 1963 constitutional reform
- Glossary of new terms

36. Bosnia and Herzegovina from 1963 – 1992

- Crisis of the idea of socialism
- Fall of Rankovic
- National tensions
- 'Praxis' magazine
- Croatian spring and Serb liberalism
- 1974 Constitution and the idea of federalism
- Crises of communist systems in Hungary and Czechoslovakia
- Glossary of new terms

37. Dissolution of a joint state

- Mikhail Gorbachev
- Fall of the Berlin wall
- Democratisation of the East
- Causes of dissolution and destruction of the joint state
- Ethnic conflicts in 1980s
- Glossary of new terms

38. Disintegration of the Yugoslav Communist League

- Abolishment of autonomous provinces of Vojvodina and Kosovo
- Ante Markovic
- Parliamentary life and victory of national concepts of organisation of society
- Glossary of new terms

39. Bosnia and Herzegovina as an independent state

- First parliamentary elections
- National parties
- Nationalism and the war against Bosnia and Herzegovina
- Domestic and foreign peace initiatives
- Vukovar
- Srebrenica
- Refugees
- Destruction of economy

- Change of structure of population
- Glossary of new terms

40. Dayton peace agreement: End of the war – end of the problem? – internal political organisation of the country

APPENDIX VI

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