



**THE EUROPEAN DIMENSION IN THE
TURKISH HISTORY CURRICULUM:
AN INVESTIGATION OF THE VIEWS OF TEACHING
PROFESSIONALS**

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ABSTRACT

This study highlights three main concerns in relation to history teaching in Turkish secondary schools. The first one investigates student and practising history teachers' and history teacher educators' views on the existing Turkish secondary school history curriculum and its implementation. The second concern is to explore the perspectives of the same population about Europe and the European dimension in history teaching. The last one deals with their suggestions on the improvement of the history curriculum with the potential inclusion of the European dimension. These issues are considered important, because the recent political developments accelerating the process of Turkey's integration into Europe indicated the necessity for preparing the Turkish public for this purpose. History teaching in schools is one of the channels to prepare Turkish youth to take a part in Europe through developing their perspectives and abilities.

The methodological design of the study embraces both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Questionnaires were completed by student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators from various secondary schools and three universities in Turkey. Semi-structured interviews were carried out with a small number of participants selected from the above three groups. The data are analysed to find out the participants' general views about the issues mentioned above as well as the similarities and differences amongst the views of the three participating groups and between student teacher and teacher educator participants from the three universities.

The results of the study show that most of the participants are critical of the existing curriculum and the current practice of history teaching. Their criticism focuses on the presentation of the aims and objectives of the curriculum, the selection of curriculum content and pedagogical problems. According to the research findings, the presentation of Europe and European history in the current curriculum is inadequate. Furthermore, the participants' disclosed varying views about European matters, but their positive views about Europe related issues and a potential inclusion of the ED in history teaching observed were encouraging.

Based on the suggestions of the participants, it is argued that the Turkish secondary school history curriculum needs to be improved by including a European dimension.

Specifically, the aims and objectives of history teaching, the criteria for the selection of curriculum content, pedagogy and history teacher education programmes should be shifted from the existing traditional approach to the new critical and skill-based approaches. In other words, this study argues that the purpose of history teaching is not to develop a particular identity or citizenship consciousness through the transmission of predetermined content knowledge. Instead, it suggests that history should be taught to enable learners to develop historical and critical thinking skills through exercising and utilising the methodology of history, which help them orientate themselves in local, national, European and global contexts.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACOEI	A Charta of European Identity
ASP	Associated Schools Project
CDCC	The Council for Cultural Co-operation
CEI	Committee on Education and Instruction (Talism- Terbiye Kurulu -Turkey)
COE	The Council of Europe
COEC	Council of European Communities
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
EC	European Community
ECSC	The European Coal and Steel Community
ED	European dimension
EEC	European Economic Community
EU	European Union
ETUC	European Trade Union Confederation
EUROCLIO	European Standing Conference of History Teachers Associations
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HEC	Higher Education Council (Yükseköğretim Kurulu - Turkey)
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
MONE	The Ministry of National Education (Turkey)
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NCE	National Convention of Education'
NCHWG	National Curriculum History Working Group
NEDP	National Education Development Project (Milli Eğitimi Geliştirme Projesi -Turkey)
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NSC	National Security Council (Milli Güvenlik Konseyi - Turkey)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate of Education
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
SCHP - SHP	Schools' Council 11-16 History Project – Schools' History Project
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
ST	Student Teacher
STQ	Student Teacher's Questionnaire
T	Teacher (practising teacher)
TE	Teacher Educator
TES	Turkish Education System
TQ	Teachers' Questionnaire
UK	The United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USSR	The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

CHAPTER ONE

THE SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Turkey's long standing application to become a member of the European Union (EU) was recognised by the EU members in 1999 at the Helsinki Summit, where the EU declared Turkey's candidacy for full membership. This brought up the question of Turkey's political, economic, social and cultural integration into Europe. Among these elements, the social and cultural integration of Turks is considered problematic because Turkey has a mainly Muslim population and its historical and cultural background is different from the rest of the EU. The challenges here are how Turks perceive Europe and Europeans in the context of history and how Europeans define and form their conceptions of Turks. Despite the fact that Turkey has adopted policies of modernisation, taking western civilisation as its model of development for over a century, the mutual perceptions of Europe in Turkey and Turkey in Europe still depend on social and cultural factors stemming from history. Naturally this has implications for the construction of historical accounts about 'the self' and 'others' and particularly transmitting these accounts to the next generations.

The integration process of Turkey that was put into practice after the Helsinki Summit required Turkey to carry out essential transformations concerning legislative and economic issues including its educational system. The history curriculum and history teaching in secondary schools constitute two problematic areas within the sphere of Turkish education that require attention and improvement. These two areas have been critiqued by many authors. The critics comment that the history curriculum and history teaching are insufficient, out of date and do not give pupils an objective perspective of history encouraging them to become conscious and critical citizens in a developing society (Dilek, 1999; Kabapınar, 1998; Demircioğlu, 1999; Tekeli, 2000, Silier, 2003). Furthermore, the formation of the history curriculum and history teaching in schools is considered crucial for the process of Turkey's integration into the EU, since they are closely linked to individuals' perception of Europe.

Moreover, as Safran (2003) points out, the realities of the Turkish history curriculum and the recommendations on history teaching made by the Council of Europe (COE) in 2001 (COE, 2001) demonstrate almost completely opposite perceptions and

perspectives of history teaching. The inclusion of a European dimension (ED) in the Turkish history curriculum might be considered appropriate to develop a better understanding of Europe and European history during the processes of Turkey's integration into the EU. In this study, the concept of the 'ED' is used to refer to an awareness of Europe and European matters, and to consider them in relation to other issues in local, national and global contexts. For example, the ED in history teaching is used to refer to the place and importance of European history within a variety of historical dimensions and contexts, and the pedagogical methods developed or adapted in various European countries to form objective, fair, tolerant and peaceful approaches to history teaching.

The main hypothesis suggested in this study is the potential inclusion of an ED in the Turkish history curriculum. Data obtained from questionnaires and interviews are examined in order to explore the implications of this hypothesis for improving the secondary school history curriculum, pedagogy and the education of history teachers. This chapter provides the context of the study by examining the influence of westernisation in Turkey. Then it introduces brief general information about Turkey and its education system. Global and European issues including Turkey's position within these broader political and educational contexts are considered next. The second half of the chapter details the development of the research topic, including a definition of the research area, an outline of the research questions together with some personal reflections. Finally, the structure of the thesis is outlined.

The following section describes how Turkey has been influenced by the West.

1.1. Turkey's Journey to the West

Located in Anatolia since 1071¹, a place witnessed to many civilisations of ancient times, Turkey has been a bridge between Asia and Europe since even before the Turks arrived from Central Asia. Coming from the high steppes of Central Asia, the Turks did not see Anatolia as the final destination of their journey towards the west. The legendary ideal of the 'Red Apple'² drove Turks from east to west, from Central Asia to

¹ The Battle of Malazgirt between Seljuk Turks and the Byzantine Empire on 26 August 1071 is accepted as the beginning of Turkish history in Anatolia.

² Turkish wording of this ideal is 'Kızıl Elma' which is described as a legendary ideal amongst the Turks that symbolises the idea of ruling the world. The 'Red Apple' itself was imagined as a pure gold, spherical object being located on a throne or in a temple in a place or country which the Turks could

Anatolia and the Balkans and from Egypt to Algeria in North Africa. Although it was attributed to the archetype of ‘spreading the word of God in order to provide peace and justice in the world’³ after the Turks converted to Islam, the ‘Red Apple’ ideal continued to influence Turks for many centuries.

The Turkish flow towards the west conducted by the Seljuks⁴ and the Ottomans⁵ continued until the end of the seventeenth century when the Ottoman Army was stopped outside Vienna in 1699. The Turkish domination in Central and Eastern Europe was maintained for a period and then started its regression which ended after the defeat by the Allies in the First World War. The defeat of the Great War not only signalled the end of Turkish withdrawal from Europe, but also proclaimed the forthcoming collapse of the Ottoman Empire by putting its government under the mandate of the Allied powers. This process led to the Turkish War of Independence and consequently the foundation of the new Turkey. Under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal, the Turkish War of Independence was carried out against the Allied powers and Greek Armies from 1919 to 1922 and ended with the defeat of the Greeks. After the Lausanne Treaty the foundation of the new Turkish Republic was declared in the remnants of the Ottoman Empire on 29 October 1923.

However, Turkish enthusiasm for the west was ongoing. Starting from the eighteenth century, the Turks tried to modernise the army, the navy and other state organisations in a similar way to how those developments had been carried out in European countries. The modernisation of government offices based on western bureaucratic model in the nineteenth century was followed by many economic and social reforms taken from European models. The new republic also turned its face to the west by taking European civilisation as a model for its developments. The adaptation of law systems from

reach by going towards the west. This object was symbolised as a sign of victory or sovereignty. It was also attributed to the places that were chosen to be conquered. For more information, see Gökalp, 1989.

³ This ideal was conceptualised as ‘Nizam-ı Alem için İla-yı Kelimetullah’ in old Turkish and aimed to spread the word of God (Allah) in order to provide peace and justice in the world. It was described as an action against impiety and disbelief by defending the beliefs of God’s existence, oneness, eminence and outstandingness and the superiority of the Koran. This idea is attributed to the Sultan or the leader of the Muslims, the role of the representative of Allah on Earth and gave him the authority of ruling the world and spreading the word of Allah in order to reach divine peace and justice.

⁴ Seljuks, a Middle Eastern state firstly established in the geography of today’s Iran by Turks in the 11th century. Then it was extended through many parts of the Middle East and divided into many parts between the members of the dynastic family. Its successor in Turkey’s geography called Anatolian Seljuk State ruled until the second half of the 13th century.

⁵ The Ottoman Empire was founded in a small part of north-western Anatolia at the end of the 13th century and widened through all Western Anatolia, Thrace and some parts of the Balkans. The Ottomans then captured Constantinople from the Byzantium in 1453. Its expansion continued until the 17th century and included many parts of the Middle East, North Africa, some parts of Caucasus, Crimea, the Balkans and Eastern Europe and some parts of Central Europe.

European countries, the transition from Arabic to Latin script, the acceptance of secularism as one of the basic principles of the new state are a few of the examples demonstrating the influence of western civilisations on Turkey within recent history. The transformation of the education system was an important step, which was considered a driving force for the further reforms. The transition to participatory democracy by having the first free elections in 1946 was another milestone in Turkey's move toward the west.

The country has been trying to get closer to the western world and to find a place in the new world order for many decades. Its involvement in the United Nations (UN), the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the COE and many other supranational and international organisations is the indicator of Turkish intent to earn a place in the international community and civilisation. Turkey's application to become a member of the EU also demonstrates the country's dream of an enhanced future integrated within western civilisations. Nevertheless, neither the journey of the Turks towards the west in the past nor the processes of Turkish integration into the western world since the foundation of the new republic progress smoothly. There have always been opponents, problems and challenges coming from outside the country as well as those arising from within Turkey itself.

On the one hand, while some groups in the international community, particularly in the west, support Turkey's process of getting closer to western civilisation and its participation and integration in the wider global community, others oppose this process. The pro-Turkish groups argue that Turkey's modernisation and its integration to modern civilisation can set an example for other societies and countries in the Middle East and Asia, particularly for Islamic countries. However, the anti-Turkish groups maintain that Turkey does not fulfil the requirements of democracy, human rights and other conditions of modern civilisation. Therefore, it should not be given a prominent place in the modern world order.

On the other hand, there is another version of this political and intellectual clash which has been going on amongst Turkish politicians and intellectuals for decades. While some uphold that Turkey's future is dependent on its integration and participation in modern civilisation and the new world order, others contend that Turkey's independence and sovereignty are more important than any other issue. This second

group views the development of global organisations and international communities as a trick of imperialism and regard the issue of Turkey's participation in a broader community as a threat towards Turkey's existence. Further contextual information about Turkey will be discussed in the next section.

1.2. Turkey: general information

Turkey, the nucleus of the old Ottoman Empire, lies between Asia and Europe as a cultural and geopolitical focal point. Turkey was established as an independent republic in 1923, with Mustafa Kemal, the leader of the War of Independence, becoming the first president. The republican period introduced a secular constitution and many other important changes for the westernisation of the country. Some of those important changes were the abolition of the caliphate, the launch of the secularised academic curricula, the replacement of Arabic script with Latin, westernisation of the legal system and giving of suffrage and equal rights to women. The process of democratisation also brought a market economy, which has endured throughout most of the post war period. Nevertheless, Turkish democracy has had several interruptions by its military in the last 45 years. Although in all cases the military returned political power to the civil authorities, their influence on Turkey's political structure still exists. As a result of military interventions, the Turkish Army still has had influence on political structure particularly by means of the National Security Council (NSC), which was established after the 1960 Military Coup, and strengthened by the 1982 Constitution brought into force by the leaders of the 1980 Coup. The NSC acts as an advisory body to government particularly on constitutional matters and national security issues.

Turkey's political structure is described as a parliamentary democracy based on the principle of the legal separation amongst the systems of judicial, legislative and executive powers. In practice however, the executive and legislative powers normally come together under the authority of the ruling political party or coalition. According to the 1982 constitution, the leader of the political party that gains the majority of seats in the parliament is given the authority of setting up the government. Turkey has a unicameral parliament of 550 members directly elected for a five-year term. Only parties gaining more than 10% of the national vote are eligible for seats in parliament. Head of state, the president is elected by an absolute majority of the parliament for a seven-year term.

In the earlier republican periods, Turkey's economy was out of the government's control and was mainly based on agriculture. However in 1931, the ruling Republican People's Party adopted étatisme as Turkey's official economic strategy. According to this programme, individual enterprise was to retain a fundamental role in the economy, but active government intervention was seen as necessary to boost the nation's welfare and the state's prosperity. The strategy of étatisme promoted industrialisation in the country under the government's control. This policy controlled the Turkish economy until the early 1980s. The liberalisation of the Turkish economy then began leading to the growth of the private enterprise in various sectors of the economy such as industry and services, together with agriculture. Currently, Turkey's economy is mostly based on services industry and agriculture.

The official language is Turkish, spoken by the majority and the mother tongue of about 82 percent. Approximately 17 percent of the population speak Kurdish. Arabic or some Caucasian languages, Hebrew, Greek and Armenian are also spoken by small minority groups. Turks ethnically constitute at least 80 percent of the population; Kurds form around 10 percent. Other minorities include Arabs, people from Caucasus countries, Dönme, Greeks, Jews and Armenians. About 99 percent of the population are nominally Muslim, the majority of whom are Sunni Muslims. Alevi (Shia) Muslims constitute approximately a quarter of the whole population. In Turkey, migration from rural areas to major cities has been a phenomenon for the last forty years mainly because of economic reasons. Therefore, despite the fact that the urban areas are far more populated than rural areas, the urbanisation process of Turkey is still in progress. It is a consequence of this that most people in the urban population live in the underdeveloped peripheries of big cities.

The next section introduces the Turkish Education System (TES) briefly.

1.3. Education in Turkey

One of the biggest reforms adopted after the foundation of the republic was in the field of education. The 1924 Law of Unification of Education unified the TES by closing religious schools, eliminating religious teaching from public schools; and putting all schools under the authority of the Ministry of National Education (MONE) (Akyüz, 1999). The MONE was given the responsibility of opening new elementary and secondary schools and other institutions, running those institutions and developing them

in accordance with the country's modernisation policy (Handbook of Primary Education in Europe, 1989). The unification of education was not only seen as a means of modernisation of the country but also acted as an apparatus for the process of secularisation, which was one of the basic principles of the new republic (Berkes, 1964). The foundation stones of the development process of TES are:

- 1- *Ending of religious schools and the establishment of secularised ones (1925).*
- 2- *Acceptance of Latin characters (1928).*
- 3- *Making primary education compulsory for 5 years for those under the age of 15 and making literacy courses compulsory for the 15-45 age groups of men and women (1929).*
- 4- *The establishment of the first university (University of Istanbul) by reorganizing the Ottoman University (Daru'lfünun-i Osmani) in 1933.*
- 5- *The extension of compulsory education from five years to eight years (1998).*

The unification also led to the centralisation of the education system under the administrative control of the MONE. The responsibilities of the ministry are varied, from the establishment of the curriculum to the design, building and maintenance of schools. Some other important duties of the ministry are the co-ordination of different areas of work of private and voluntary educational organisations, the provision and development of the educational materials and the training and employment of teachers. They are carried out by central branches and local agents of the MONE (OECD, 1965). Beside the structure of the ministry, there is a supreme advisory body called the 'National Convention of Education' (NCE). It is convened every year by the MONE and makes suggestions on almost all matters related to education. Its members are invited from universities and higher offices of the government. On the other hand the other advisory body, the 'Board of Education' is a permanent organisation within the MONE.

Education at all levels is financially supported by the central government. Educational budget constitutes approximately ten percent of all public spending. Local associations, social, cultural and industrial organisations, and individuals also provide funding for building and maintenance of the schools. Every school also has associations that cover some of their expenses, such as the School and Family Union.

The purpose of the TES is to increase the welfare and wellbeing of Turkish citizens and Turkish society, to support and facilitate economic, social and cultural development in national unity and integration and to make the Turkish nation a constructive, creative and distinguished partner in modern civilization (MONE, 2001). According to the Basic Law of National Education the general objectives of TES are:

A. To bring up each member of the Turkish nation to be a citizen devoted to Atatürk's reforms and principles and Atatürk's nationalism as expressed in the constitution; who adopts, protects and promotes the national, moral, human spiritual and cultural values of the Turkish nation; who loves his family, nation and country and always tries to advance them; who is aware of his duties and responsibilities towards the Turkish Republic, a democratic, secular and social state governed by the rule of the law, based on human rights and basic principles set forth in the preamble of the constitution: and who makes this awareness a part of his behaviour.

B. To bring up all Turkish citizens as constructive, innovative and productive individuals who are balanced physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and emotionally; who have sound personalities and characters; who are free and scientific-minded with broad, world-wide perspectives; who respect human rights and value personality and initiative; and who have a sense of responsibility towards society.

C. To prepare all Turkish people for life by developing their interests, talents and abilities to enable them to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, habits of cooperation and professional skills to make them happy and enable them to contribute to the welfare of society (OECD, 1989).

In summary, the objective of education is to train good people, good citizens and qualified manpower. According to the same law, the principles of TES are: Universality and equality, individual social needs, orientation towards an integrated society, educational rights, equality of educational opportunity for all, continuity, Atatürk's reforms and principles, education for democracy, secularism, scientific approach, future organisation, co-education, co-operation between school and family, and education everywhere (Akkoyunlu, 1991; OECD, 1989).

At the present time eight years of basic education is compulsory for all people between the ages of six and fourteen. The cost is covered by the government, whilst there are some private schools in the country. Basic education can be divided into three levels according to the curriculum. The general aim of the first two years is to develop basic skills of literacy and computation. From year three to year five the objectives of education are: to learn the Turkish Language, history, geography, natural sciences, maths, writing, music, sport, drawing and manual work. It is expected that students will develop their skills and knowledge about these subjects and begin to learn a foreign language in the last three years of basic education. On the basis of primary education the largest single block of time is devoted to the Turkish language. Maths, sciences and humanities are other important subjects.

The purpose of secondary education is to give pupils a minimum common culture, to identify individual and social problems, to search for solutions, to raise awareness in order to contribute to the socio-economic and cultural development of the country and to prepare pupils for higher education, for a profession, for life and for business in line with their own interests skills and abilities. *"At secondary level, 2.3 million pupils are being educated and 134.800 teachers are being employed in 6.000 education*

institutions” (MONE, 2001: 65) in the academic year 2001-2002. Secondary education follows basic education. There are many types of secondary schools, some private and some state funded. Some offer general education and others are more vocational or technical for a minimum of three years schooling. Anatolian and Science high schools only accept the pupils with higher academic abilities. Every pupil who has completed his/her primary education can attend to one of these schools. Except in private schools, this level of education is free in Turkey, however it is not compulsory. Besides, in order to enrol in secondary schools, except general lycées, pupils are required to pass some exams (local or nationwide) or at least obtain good grades. The general structure of the TES, from nursery to postgraduate level, is shown in Figure 1.1.

The duration of education in general lycées is three years in total. At these schools pupils are prepared especially for higher education. They have opportunities to develop their knowledge and skills needed for different educational fields. Vocational high schools provide a three-year education after primary school. They prepare pupils for a vocational life in particular areas and for higher education. Vocational schools are categorised as teacher training lycées, religious lycées, commercial lycées, and vocational-industrial lycées and so on. The subjects and sections of technical lycées are generally the same as in similar kinds of vocational high schools, but they provide four years of high quality education. Anatolian lycées and other private lycées or colleges have the same programme as in general high schools, but their medium of education is mostly in a foreign language (generally English, French or German). They offer four years of quality education with a wide-range of academic opportunities.

The curriculum of primary schools and lycées is generally determined by an agent of the MONE. The Committee on Education and Instruction prepares the school curriculum (Kaplan, 1999). However, some optional courses in the last three years of primary schools and lycées are determined at school level according to the subject area of teachers in the school and other opportunities. This decision is made by the ‘teachers committee’ of the school, which is constituted by all teachers and administrators of the school.

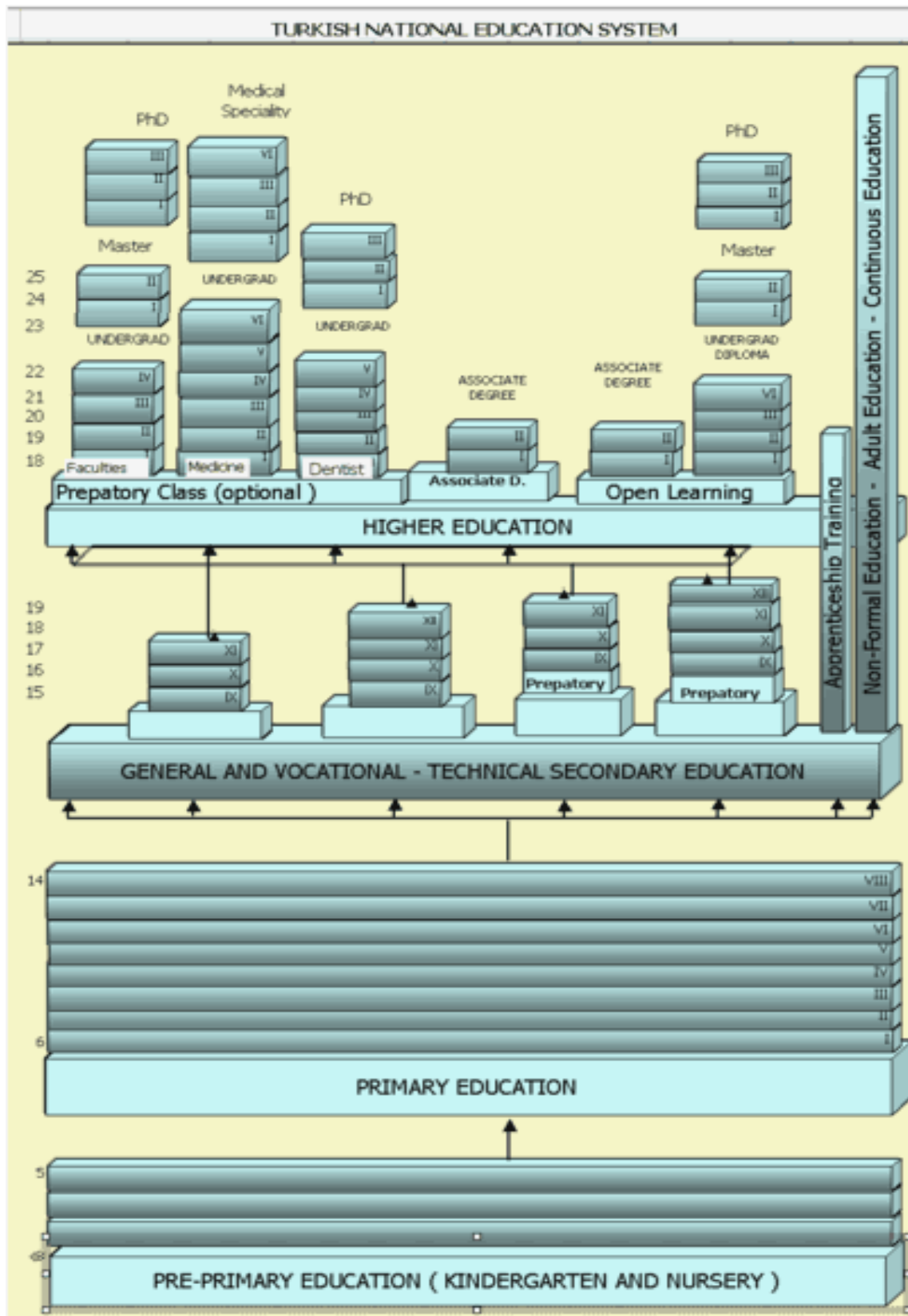


Figure 1.1. General Structure of TES (taken from MONE, 2001)

The Turkish school curriculum is based on a mixture of theories developed in other countries. Dilek (1999) indicates that the Turkish curriculum was firstly formed from a

mixture of French encyclopaedism (classical humanism), Russian polytechnicalism, American pragmatism (social reconstructionism) and Turkish nationalism. He explains that:

... the curriculum theory was humanistic and knowledge-based which primarily aimed to give cultural heritage 'in terms of literature, music and history' as in the encyclopaedic view. It was designed to prepare good and productive citizens of the republic as in the polytechnic view. It later advocated social reconstructionism because it was believed that education is a way of improving society, and at the same time developing individuals as members of society laying stress upon social values (Dilek, 1999: 24).

However, it must be considered that the Turkish curriculum blended all these perspectives in the pot of Turkish nationalism (Kaplan, 1999), which was first formulated as a systematic theory by Ziya Gökalp in the early twentieth century (Turkish Review, 1989). Starting with the theory of classical nationalism, Gökalp's theory of national utopianism was established to unify the Turkish public and the new nation-state and to create a new vibrant society, which would be based on the dynamics of the Turkish nation, the religion of Islam and European civilisation (Turkish Review, 1989). As a reflection of Gökalp's position, a theorist and educator, this perspective had a big impact on the formation of the first Turkish school curriculum in the mid 1920s and still has impact on the TES. Nevertheless, the components of Gökalp's theory were slightly changed later as it started to lay stress on secularism instead of the unifying role of the Islamic religion (Dilek, 1999). As explained in chapter three, the concept of Turkish nationalism has influenced the formation and development of the history curriculum, but the perspective of nationalism concerning history and history teaching in Turkey has shifted over time.

The broader issues of globalisation and Europeanisation, and their implications for education in a general sense are considered in the following section.

1.4. Global and European Issues and their Implications for Education

In a broader context outside Turkey, the second half of the twentieth century witnessed rapid economic, political and socio-cultural changes in the world which led towards a more international and interdependent structure of society. It has been argued that the principal drive of those changes was mainly due to financial and economic reasons since the growing local, national and trans-national economies were considered the cause for interdependent societies, nations and countries (Priestley, 2002). However, the role and impact of the drastic results of World War Two in these processes towards

unification and integration of a broader community should not be ignored. These changes, mostly initiated in financial and economic structures, inevitably influenced other areas of human life, particularly in political and social spheres, and are defined as ‘globalisation.’ Giddens defines the social effects of globalisation as:

... the intensification of worldwide social relations that link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away, and vice versa. This is a dialectical process because such local happenings may move in an obverse direction from the very distanced relations that shape them. Local transformation is as much a part of globalisation as the lateral extension of social connections are across time and space (cited in Priestley, 2002: 174).

As the above shows, globalisation itself, and by means of its agents, such as trans-national and regional groupings, supranational organisations and multinational corporations has had impact on many local and national settings. Among them, impact on the nation states in general, and upon education systems in particular, was considered to be the most important issue (Priestley, 2002). Green (1999) states that globalisation caused nation states to lose their absolute sovereignty in political and economic areas. Thus many nation states turned to education as the setting in which they could still maintain control and demonstrate their power (Dinç, 2001). According to Goodson (1995) the introduction of centralised national curricula in several countries from the beginning of the 1990s emerged as nation states’ reaction to globalisation.

While nation states chose the control of education as a response to the growing influence of globalisation, some international organisations approached education from a different perspective (Özbaran, 2002). They considered education as an instrument for developing mutual relationships between various countries. Among those international organisations, UNESCO and the COE are the most prominent ones. In its constitution, the purpose of UNESCO’s foundation is described as:

...contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among nations through education and science and culture in order to further universal respect for the rule of law and human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed of the world, without the distinction of race, sex, language or religion. (cited in Slater, 1995: 60)

To achieve those goals, UNESCO initiated many projects aiming to promote education for international understanding by focusing on the themes of the countries and cultures of the world, people and their environment, human rights, and other general world problems (Özbaran, 2002). One of the areas covered by the work of UNESCO was history teaching in schools and history textbooks, because history teaching was not only considered as the cause of many problems between nations but also as having a potential for developing international understanding. Besides UNESCO, the COE and

the EU as multinational organisations are associated with work on developing international understanding and tolerance in the European context (Low-Beer, 1997).

Communication, co-operation and integration amongst European countries and nations have been important issues especially since the end of the Second World War. After 1945 Europe was politically and economically shattered. The balance of powers in the continent was drastically changed. Another fundamental problem was to overcome and avoid the remains of the disasters of the immediate past. The answer to all these problems was positioned in the promotion of European collaboration and integration (Wæver, 1995). As Wæver (1995) puts it, Jean Monnet, the initiator of the idea of a united Europe, proposed a broader integration between European countries than merely economic co-operation. Similar to Monnet, Jacques Delors, a former president of the European Commission, stressed the importance of social integration in Europe:

Completion of the internal market, a central element of European integration, will become really meaningful only if it brings balanced economic and social progress within the large frontier-free area... [These] will not be enough to make Europe a tangible reality. Each and every Community citizen needs to feel bound by the links which unite European society (in Lodge, 1989: 303).

Manuel Castells (1998) on the other hand, argues that the idea and the progress of European integration or unification were at first based on defensive reactions rather than economic motives or community and humanity ideals. European integration is also considered as an agent of globalisation as well as a reaction against it (Anderson, 2000; Castells, 1998; Pieterse, 1995). Communication and co-operation between European states, particularly of Western Europe, have led to the establishment of various treaties, organisations and institutions. Among them, the EU and the COE are the most important ones.

After World War Two, the EU or with its earlier name the European Economic Community (EEC) emerged as one of the most prominent international organisations, established to put an end to wars between different European nations, to reduce political and socio-cultural disagreements, to rebuild economies and to establish trust (Peck, 1997). Founded as the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) in 1951 by Belgium, West Germany, Luxembourg, France, Italy and the Netherlands (Peck, 1997), the EEC was institutionalised as an economic power after the Treaty of Rome in 1957.

The community increased its size by accepting Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom in 1973, Greece in 1981 and Spain and Portugal in 1986 as its new members. The Maastricht Treaty of 1992 turned the community into the EU as a broader unity

(EU, 2005a: http://europa.eu.int/abc/12lessons/index3_en.htm), not only addressing political and economic competencies but also aiming to develop social and cultural relationships to form a broader integration under the idea of European citizenship (Osler and Starkey, 1996). The EU was built upon the principles of the rule of law and respect for the rights of individuals (Barthélémy, 1997). Its vision is to establish a new European citizenship in order to respond to the European's expectations (EU, 2005a: http://europa.eu.int/abc/12lessons/index3_en.htm) It aimed to develop stable economies, to raise standards of living, and to improve close relations between the member states by removing trade barriers between member states and forming a "common market" (Peck, 1997). After its transformation to the EU, the size of the community continued to grow by accepting Austria, Finland and Sweden in 1995, and Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia in 2004 as new member states (EU, 2005a: http://europa.eu.int/abc/12lessons/index3_en.htm). Currently the membership of the EU stands at twenty-five. Other countries have applied for membership, Turkey being one of those countries. European integration on the EU's website is described as:

Economic and political integration between the member states of the EU means that these countries have to take joint decisions on many matters. So they have developed common policies in a very wide range of fields - from agriculture to culture, from consumer affairs to competition, from the environment and energy to transport and trade (EU, 2005b: http://europa.eu.int/abc/index_en.htm).

The objective of integrating member states directed the educational focus of the EU from a sole context of vocational training and exchanges to broader educational areas. The importance of economic, social and cultural areas for developing the ED and preparing the future citizens of Europe were the main drive of this objective. Article 126 of the 1992 Maastricht Treaty (Appendix C) revealed the Union's interest in establishing co-operation between member states to improve the quality of education by supporting and supplementing their action, while considering and respecting their institutional, cultural and linguistic diversity. The objectives were put into practice by the introduction of a number of educational programmes and projects initiated and funded by the EU (EU, 2005a: http://europa.eu.int/abc/12lessons/index8_en.htm).

Furthermore, the COE is one of the international organisations aiming to develop relationships and collaboration among nations and countries in Europe. Founded in 1949, the COE is the oldest contemporary European-wide political organisation. The

number of its members (forty-six in 2005) is higher than that of any other European organisation today. The mission of the COE is to:

... defend human rights, parliamentary democracy and the rule of law in Europe; to develop continent-wide agreements to standardise member countries' social and legal practices; and to promote awareness of a European identity based on shared values and cutting across different cultures (COE, 2005: http://www.coe.int/T/e/Com/about_coe/).

Another important duty of the Council is to establish optimal conditions for a calm, critical and constructive dialogue amongst member states (Barthélémy, 1997). Audigier (1993: 16) adds that “*teaching the rules of social life and interiorising in a critical way the rules of wishing to live together*” are the other tasks of the COE. Since its establishment, the COE has not only increased its membership size but also widened its missions, influence and institutions around the continent. The establishment of the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) in 1961 (COE, 2005: http://www.coe.int/T/e/Com/about_coe/) was one of the important steps towards the COE’s work on education, culture, youth and sports.

Many of the Council of Europe’s initiatives have taken education at their centre. Education for democratic citizenship and human rights, and history teaching are two main themes that the Council has given priority to for many years. Starting from 1953, the Council of Europe has organized many conferences and initiated various projects to develop history teaching in European countries. The initial attempts carried out by the Council were mostly on the selection of content in history textbooks, the definition of the aims and function of history teaching, and the eradication of bias and prejudice from history textbooks (Low-Beer, 1997; Slater, 1995). Another aspect was about developing a European idea in history teaching in order to reach a shared approach to history and to provide a European perspective of history teaching (Vigander, 1967). A European idea in history teaching later turned into the pursuit of developing a European identity (Ahonen, 2001) and a European citizenship (Slater, 1995) through formal education with an emphasis on history teaching. Some other works of the Council focused on the areas of history teacher training, the improvement of the conditions and quality of the teaching and learning of history in a European context, developing resources for history teaching, the place and importance of history teaching in human rights, civic and political education, and its contribution for developing a multicultural approach (COE, 1995a; 1995b; 2001; 2002; Slater, 1995; Barthelemy *et al*, 1997; Pingel, 2001; Stradling, 2000; 2003; Ecker, 2003a).

The following section details Turkey's position within broader political and educational contexts considering recent developments in Turkish education with some emphasis on educational problems, particularly those of history teaching.

1.5. Turkey within broader Political and Educational Contexts

Being located on the eastern periphery of European geography⁶, Turkey has had close political, economic, social and cultural relationships with many European countries since its foundation as a republic in 1923. Once ruling the eastern part of Europe and having superiority and dominance in European politics, Turkish politicians, intellectuals and the Turkish public were influenced to consider Turkey as a part of Europe.

International politics of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries also intensified the contentions and relations between Turkey and powerful European nations, which had significant impact on the formation of modern Turkey, based on western ideas of nation-state, republicanism, modernity, secularism and others. As a result of those influences, Turkey has turned its face towards western civilisation, particularly to Europe and has inclined to participate in European-wide political, economic and socio-cultural organisations.

As a member of NATO, Turkey has played an important role in the defence politics of the western world against the USSR-led Iron Curtain countries until 1989, and still represents the power of NATO in southeast Europe. Turkey has also been a member of the COE since its foundation in 1949, and participates in most of its programmes and projects. From 1959 Turkey has aspired to join the EU and formally applied for full membership in 1986. However, since the beginning, Turkey has had many problems in the application process. The most significant ones are its unstable and underdeveloped economy, the issue of Cyprus, the influence of its army in domestic politics, the internal policies against separationist terrorist groups and its poor image regarding the issue of human rights. After Turkey's initiatives and progress in improving its situation, the EU officially declared Turkey as a candidate for full membership in 1999 at the Helsinki Summit. The EU again approved Turkey's progress between 1999 and 2004 and decided on 17 December 2004 to start negotiations with Turkey in October 2005. From its first application to today, Turkey has been trying to develop itself according to the

⁶ The geographical definition of Europe is abstruse as well as the political and cultural ones. These issues are discussed in chapter two in detail.

EU standards by introducing laws and regulations required by the EU in many different areas and putting them into practice, to improve its economy particularly in recent years, and to complete reforms in several other areas.

One of the areas in need of reform was education and training, and this involved almost half of the country's population. The improvement of the physical conditions of schools and universities with the help of the World Bank and volunteers is supported by the extension of compulsory education from five years to eight years in 1998. The expansion of universities starting from 1992 was also initiated with the objective of improving the country's human capital. These reforms carried out in education have had impact on the country's recent developments, but have not covered all the problems and insufficiencies of the TES. For example, many schools in the country are still lacking space to accommodate the number of pupils. They therefore, apply a 'shift system' in which some classes attend school from early morning to lunch time, whilst the others use the same school facilities in the afternoon. The other important problems are the school curriculum being insufficient and outdated, lack of teaching materials and resources, inefficient teachers together with an under-developed teacher training system and so on.

The particular example of an outdated curriculum area that I wish to investigate in this thesis is history. The secondary school history curriculum constitutes one of the areas within education that needs attention and improvement in respect of Turkey's potential integration into Europe (Aydın, 2001; Tekeli, 1998). The issue of curriculum is also related to history teaching and history teacher training. The main issues related to the history curriculum are centralised around the formulation of the aims and objectives of history teaching and the definition and selection of the content (Özbaran, 1998; Aydın, 2001; Tekeli, 1998). The problems of history teaching are the overuse of textbooks (Kabapınar, 1998; Tekeli, 1998); teaching methods and techniques, which are mostly didactic, based on memorisation and rote learning (Dilek, 1999; Demircioğlu, 1999; Kaya *et al*, 2001; Silier, 2003); and the centralised nationwide university entrance examination (Tekeli, 1998). The lack of qualified academic staff in history education subdivisions, insufficient and inadequate pre-service teacher training particularly on theoretical aspects of history teaching and teaching practice are defined as the main problems of history teacher education in Turkey (Demircioğlu, 1999; Tarih Vakfı, 2002). Apart from all these general issues that will be discussed in chapter three, the space allocated to European history and the presentation and teaching of Europe in the

curriculum and pedagogy form another problematic area of Turkish history teaching. Bearing in mind all these issues and problems pertaining to the teaching of history in Turkey, the next section describes how the research topic of this thesis was arrived at.

1.6. The Development of the Research Topic and Personal Reflections

The initial review of the literature on history teaching in Turkey indicated the lack of empirical research in the area. Most of the studies carried out on history teaching in the Turkish context were focused on the analysis and critique of history textbooks. Only a few of the studies went further than the textbooks, and these were about history teacher training and history teaching at the primary school level. It also revealed an urgent need for research on the history curriculum and pedagogical aspects of history teaching at secondary school level in Turkey.

Moreover, my readings, made me consider the state of the Turkish secondary school history curriculum in a wider European context. My readings helped me to reflect upon the place of Europe in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum and the ED in history teaching within this context. This reflection took me back to my own school experience and university education as well as prompting me to read and learn more about the ED.

I remembered the history courses I took in my primary and secondary education of which the contents were mostly selected from Turkish history and presented Turks and Europeans as two poles of historical narratives. I checked the current history curriculum and saw that nothing had changed in it, specifically in relation to the place and perspective of Europe. My experiences as a student of history in a well-recognised university also presented a parallel picture of Europe in the Turkish context. Although the number of courses on European history in the department where I studied history was more than in the secondary school curriculum, the perspective of Europe was almost the same. I gradually developed a new picture of how Turks and Europeans were presented in the context of history teaching. According to my conception, history was introduced as a narrative of the struggle between ‘us’ and ‘the others.’ The Turks, whatever their names, roles or positions in history formed the side of ‘us’ while the Europeans were mostly treated as ‘the others.’

Conversely, publications on the ED in education and history teaching in particular demonstrated a completely different conception of history. In contrast to the Turkish

conception of history teaching, the literature on the ED in history teaching placed an emphasis on peaceful and tolerant approaches to history, aiming to develop communication and relationships between various societies, cultures and nations (COE, 2001; Marchand and van der Leeuw-Roord, 1993; Stradling, 2001; Stobart, 2003; van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004a). Therefore, it seemed unattainable to combine these two approaches of history teaching.

However, the positive developments after the 1999 Helsinki Summit about Turkey's long standing application to become a full member of the EU aroused interest and excitement amongst the Turkish public. This also had a significant impact on Turkish people living abroad, particularly in European countries. Apart from the increase of general interest and enthusiasm about Europe in Turkey, there were also many initiatives for the improvement of political, legal, economical, cultural and social issues in Turkey in preparation for a potential integration into the EU. The educational dimension of change for the potential integration into the EU did not receive such attention in the country (Erdoğan, 2001).

As a Turkish student studying in England, my interest in the process of Turkey's application to become a member of the EU started to grow as a result of news I came across everyday in the media, and my conversations with Turkish and non-Turkish friends and colleagues. These encounters, together with the initiatives taken by the Turkish government and non-governmental (civil society) organisations as preparation for potential membership of the EU, stressed the place and importance of education, particularly history teaching, in this context. My thoughts were mostly driven by the general political-ideological views on Turkey's potential membership of the EU in the country.

On the issue of European integration, there have been two distinctive general perspectives in Turkey that can be defined as pro-European and anti-European views. The holders of pro-European perspectives argue that Turkey's development and democratisation inevitably depends on membership of the EU, which will initiate and facilitate the processes of political, legal, economic and socio-cultural reforms and developments. On the other hand, anti-Europeans evaluate the issue of EU membership as a trick of western imperialism that will result in loss of national sovereignty (Manisalı, 2001). The supporters of the latter proposition also underline that the recommendations, particularly in the areas of democratisation and liberalisation, set as

the pre-conditions of European integration, contradict Turkish national policies, which were developed against potential threats to constitutional order.

Although the anti-European view has existed for many years, the latest developments of Turkish internal politics demonstrated the superiority of pro-European views. The last two governments constituted by various political parties from different political and ideological stand-points gave priority to integration in Europe, which is evidenced by Turkey's progress towards potential EU integration in recent years. However, like many other people in or outside the country, I have observed in recent years that the preparations done in political, legislative and economic matters have not had any worthwhile impact on the social and cultural lives of Turkish people or on their mentality. Millions of Turkish people have experienced philosophical swings between pro and anti European perspectives. It is due to the fact that the attractiveness and prospect of European integration were seen in opposition to the mentality in which Turkish people were brought up with the ideas that 'there are no friends or allies of Turks on the earth other than Turks' or 'all sides of Turkey are surrounded by enemies.' The above statements indicate the controversy between the direction that Turkey is moving towards and the mentality shaped by the TES over recent decades.

Turkey needs to improve its human resources according to the requirements and necessities of reforms and developments implemented for European integration in order to put political, legislative and economical reforms and developments into practice, and facilitate them. Education in all forms emerges as the best alternative for this purpose. However, the characteristics and underpinnings of Turkish education did not seem to be appropriate to bring up new generations of Turkish young people for integration and participation in the European context. Therefore, Turkish education that was structured to raise citizens for the nation-state was required to transform itself in order to educate Turkish people as European and global citizens, who will be aware of consciousness and responsibilities of the new roles and identities.

As a result of developments related to the process and procedures of Turkey's potential integration into the EU, the country needed to change the purpose and functions of its educational system and educational establishments. Along with the changes needed in legislative, governmental and ministerial levels, it was also necessary to change understanding, standards and functioning of educational programmes in order to enable Turkish people to acquire the consciousness and responsibilities of European

citizenship. Educational practices and their philosophical underpinnings, together with teaching and learning environments in Turkey must be reconsidered and reorganised to meet the challenges of the process of European integration.

Having these ideas in my mind and sharing and debating similar and contrasting perspectives of other colleagues on Turkey's potential integration into the EU and possible implications of this process in educational contexts also guided me to reflect on my own field and focus: history teaching and the history curriculum. My initial thoughts and concerns about the place, perspective and presentation of Europe in Turkish history teaching led me to think of the Turkish secondary school history curriculum with a different state of mind.

I asked myself 'will it be necessary to change how the curriculum introduces history, particularly the history of Europe or Turkish history in relation to European nations and countries, and the way that we teach it, if Turkey joins the EU?' this question created a dilemma for me, because it would be ironic to present Europeans as the historical and continuous enemies of Turks while trying to join the 'Union of Europeans.' Conversely, the structure of the TES, the understanding and approaches of education in general and history teaching in particular were designed according to the same political and ideological perspectives constructed on the idea of nation building by means of education. Therefore, any change in the presentation of Europeans would require alterations of all those elements to Turkish educational domains.

I then discussed this issue with my friends and colleagues. Their answers to my question increased the number of pros and cons as well as helped me to realise the potential of this issue as a research topic. Particularly one of them, who worked as a history teacher in a Turkish secondary school at that time, commented on this issue by saying that

*We bring up new generations to realise the threat of the others, mostly Europeans by teaching them what happened in the past. The representation of Europe and European cultures, societies, nations and countries in the curriculum is only for filling the gaps or fulfilling the official formalities.*⁷

Hearing this reflection from a history practitioner and similar ones from others specifically made me realise that there is a difference between what Turkish history teachers, at least some of them think about teaching European history and what is foreseen in the curriculum. I became more inclined to focus on Turkey's potential integration in the EU and started to consider the situation of history teaching and

⁷ Personal communication

specifically history curriculum in this context as a research topic. I discuss the development of my inquiry and the research questions next.

1.7. The Definition of a Research Area

After the consideration of historical, contextual, educational and personal matters, the main research area was identified as the potential inclusion of an ED in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum and its possible implications. Having been identified as professionals in the field, the views of practising history teachers and history teacher educators were thought to be the major contributors of data for the empirical study. Furthermore, obtaining the views of history student teachers on the issues under investigation was also essential because they represent prospective members of the history teaching profession and citizens of Turkey in the future, which will potentially be a part of an integrated Europe. Therefore, the empirical parts of the study were designed to obtain Turkish practising and trainee history teachers and history teacher educators' views on the two main research questions presented below.

I. What are the views of Turkish history educators (student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators) to a potential ED in the secondary school history curriculum?

II. In what ways does the Turkish curriculum need to be changed to bring about a better understanding of an ED?⁸

The main components of the empirical study, a broad questionnaire administered to a large sample of the target population and semi-structured interviews carried out with a smaller group of participants, both address all the research questions explored in the coming chapters. This study is thought to be important because there are only a small number of existing studies in the Turkish context examining the views of professionals in the field of history teaching. Neither has there been an enquiry investigating the secondary school history curriculum, particularly in relation to a potential inclusion of a ED. Therefore, it will perform an important task in the field of history education particularly in the Turkish context by not only providing empirical data and insight about the secondary school history curriculum and a potential ED but also by posing new questions of enquiry in relation to history teaching and the ED.

⁸ The development of research focus and research questions are discussed in detail in chapter four.

Furthermore, this research may be considered timely because in 2003, the Turkish Government decided to develop the primary and secondary school curricula in order to fulfil the requirements set as pre-conditions for Turkey's potential integration into the EU, and to reach the educational standards achieved in developed countries. The processes of curriculum development and renewal have still been continuing in Turkey including the secondary school history curriculum. For that reason, the results and implications of this study will be helpful for providing assistance to those people and institutions involved in the history curriculum innovation projects. It also aims to provide some insights into the problems and potential of history teacher education in Turkey that might be helpful for identifying the problems of this area and considering potential solutions.

1.8. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters. This chapter introduces the central and subsidiary themes that will be examined throughout the thesis. The second chapter is formed from the review of literature about Europe, including the ED in education and in history teaching. The main areas included in the literature review are the work carried out in history teaching in European contexts, particularly by the COE and the ED in education in general and its place in history teaching. Chapter two also includes a critical discussion of the concept of 'European identity' and the place of history teaching in its formation. Chapter three reviews history teaching and its function and purposes with a special reference to the relevant literature chosen from the UK context. The change and development of history teaching in the same context is another area covered in this chapter. Chapter three also talks about the state of the history curriculum in Turkish secondary schools, the practice of history teaching and the education of history teachers.

Chapter four explores the methodology, including the choice and justification of methodological and ethical issues, the outline of the research design and the processes of data collection and analysis. The fifth, sixth and seventh chapters present the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data together, using a thematic approach. Chapter five introduces the analysis of data on the participants' view of the present secondary school history curriculum, the state of history teaching in Turkish schools and the education of history teachers. The sixth chapter analyses the data on Europe, European history and

the ED while chapter seven presents the analysis of data on the potential impact of an ED on the history curriculum. The last chapter provides a discussion of the findings obtained from the analysis of data with reference to the relevant literature. It also presents the implications of this study for policy and practice and my concluding remarks.

1.9. Summary

This chapter introduced the context of the study, starting from an examination of the influence of westernisation in Turkey by considering global and European issues including Turkey's position within these broader political and educational contexts. This chapter provided a discussion of the development of the research topic including a definition of the research area, together with some personal reflections. It also introduced two main research questions formulated to investigate Turkish history educators' views on a potential ED in the secondary school history curriculum and their suggestions on how to change the same curriculum to bring about a better understanding of an ED? The last section of chapter one presented the structure of the whole thesis. The next chapter provides a review of relevant literature on the issue of the ED in history teaching.

CHAPTER TWO

THE EUROPEAN DIMENSION IN HISTORY TEACHING

I outlined in chapter one that Turkey has been looking for opportunities to join the EU in order to put its long standing policies of modernisation and westernisation into practice. The member countries considered Turkey's application to join the EU reasonable, but set many preconditions for Turkey to improve its political, social and economic situations, including education. The Turkish government acknowledged the demands of the EU by introducing new legislation to develop these situations in the country, which is also expected to trigger the improvement of its social structure and human capital. However, it is considered that changes in political, economic and legislative levels will take a long time to be disseminated to the Turkish public and consequently to be put into practice. As a result, preparing the Turkish public to be aware of the potential that would be provided by EU membership and their rights and responsibilities can be considered as an essential part of the integration process. One of the means that can facilitate the preparation process is through formal education systems. Within formal education, social subjects, such as citizenship and political education, history, geography and foreign languages maintain the importance of preparing the public in general, and school pupils in particular, for joining the EU.

As a school subject, history has an importance in shaping people's perceptions of themselves and their own background, whilst considering other people, countries, societies and cultures. Hence, history teaching in Turkish schools has an effect on Turkish people's understanding of Europe and Europe related matters. However, as discussed in chapter three, the current version of history teaching in Turkey makes a sharp distinction between 'us' and 'others', and 'national' and 'international' matters (Tekeli, 1998; Özbaran, 2002; Silier, 2003) and consequently influences pupils' perceptions of Europe and Turkey's potential integration into the EU negatively. Based on this point, it is thought to be useful to consider a potential inclusion of the ED into the Turkish secondary school history curriculum in order to better prepare the Turkish public for EU membership. The inclusion of the ED into the history curriculum can also be evaluated as an opportunity to identify the current problems of the curriculum, history teaching and history teacher education in Turkey and to provide alternatives for their improvement. The principal aim of this study is defined as exploring Turkish

history educators' views on the potential inclusion of the ED in the secondary school history curriculum.

This chapter seeks to present a critical review of the literature on the ED in education and the ED in history teaching. It is divided into two main sections. The first one discusses the ED in education as a broader issue starting from the discussion and definition of Europe and the other terms and concepts shaping our understanding and identification of Europe and the ED in education today. It continues with the investigation of the ED in education. The second section explores the ED in history teaching. This section includes the position of the ED in history teaching in the formation of European identity, the change, development and current state of history teaching in Europe.

2.1. Europe and the European Dimension in Education

As will be revealed in this chapter, the ED in education is a way of educating the new generations about Europe and European matters in order to raise their awareness and consciousness of being a part of Europe. However, it is thought essential to examine the meanings of relevant concepts, such as Europe, European identity and European citizenship which have been influential in the shaping of people's understanding of Europe today. Besides, it has been recognised that the idea of the ED in education is a consequence of the processes and developments started in Western Europe more than a half century ago and have radically been influencing and changing the shape of education and particularly history teaching in the continent particularly in the last fifteen years. The processes and developments mentioned are not only the results of the global political and economic transformations but also the indicators of European-wide movements towards greater unity and collaboration. Therefore, they have implications for the ED in education in general, and history teaching in particular. It is thought to be useful to examine the concept or the idea of Europe in relation to Turkey first.

2.1.1. What is Europe?

'Europe' was first used as a geographical term in ancient Greek sources to distinguish continental Greece from the islands in the Aegean Sea. As Berting and Heinemeijer put it "*later on Hekataios, among others, divided the world into a western part: 'Europe', and an eastern one: 'Asia including Libia', which is afterwards known by Romans as Africa*" (1995: 52). However the geographical definition of Europe has been attributed

to various masses of land in different periods of history. For example, Barthélémy states that:

... at the time of crusades, the crusaders believed that it [Europe] included the lands of the Middle East. In 1453, with the creation of the Ottoman Empire, it stopped at the foothills of Constantinople (1997: 13).

Europe as a geographical concept has been used widely following the nineteenth century scientific perspective (Convery, 2002). However, there has never been an agreement on positioning and borders of Europe. According to Coulby and Jones (1995) there are differences between various geographical definitions of Europe, because those definitions mostly have political, [historical (my addition)] socio-cultural or operational motives to suit particular conclusions. The main contentious area of geographical Europe is its eastern border. While some writers state that the natural border of Europe in the east is the Ural Mountains, Caucasus and then the Bosphorus and Gallipoli, others exclude or include the whole of Russia, which once caused the emergence of the concept of Euroasia, (Barthélémy, 1997) or draw different lines for the eastern border of Europe (Wæver, 1995). D. Peacock defines one of the conventional outlines of geographical Europe:

Europe can be defined as the past, the present and the future of the peoples living in the geographical area which stretches from the North Cape to the Mediterranean, from Iceland and Cape Roca to the Urals (Peacock, 1982: 31 cited in Shennan, 1991: 28).

It is thought to be appropriate to make it explicit here that although most European or Western authors recognise that a small part of Turkey's geography is in Europe, they generally exclude Turkey from their map or definition of Europe (Barthélémy, 1997; Wæver, 1995; Bugge, 1995), or sometimes they refer to Turkey as a place where Europe ends (Bugge, 1995). For example, one of the objections to Turkey's application for joining the EU comes from the geographical perspectives that Turkey is not situated within the natural borders of European geography. However, the same statement did not apply to the case of the Mediterranean island of Cyprus, which is geographically not any closer to the continent at all.

Another area to discuss is, as Macdonald and Fausser (2000) and Garcia (1993) point out, the use of the concept of Europe and the geographical area of the EU or Western Europe interchangeably by some authors. Sultana expresses this in a broader vision:

In the attempt to identify what Europe is, that is in the attempt to establish identity through difference, there is a very real danger of peripheralising countries, belief systems, languages, rendering invisible the histories and concerns of the politically and economically weak regions (1995: 18).

Vigander also touched on this point by indicating that the earlier works of the COE and other organisations were mostly concentrated on Western Europe:

We are really concerned, not with a European, but with a Western European community extending as far east as Greece and Turkey. This is an unfortunate limitation of “the idea of Europe”, but as it seems, an inevitable one for the moment. Only future developments that may be hoped for, can bring about a more extensive European community (1967: 71).

According to Shennan the definition of Europe is not only a problem for geographers, it has also been a controversy amongst historians and philosophers, and “*can be interpreted at more than one intellectual level*” (1991: 22). Garcia (1993) underlines this point by stating that geographical Europe does not coincide with its cultural, economic or political definitions. Pók *et al* (2002) indicate the problem of historical representation in Europe. They highlight ‘*unity, difference and diversity*’ as the main characteristics of Europe from a historical standpoint, which needs a corresponding perspective of cultural representation. Nevertheless, they are aware of the fact that it is not possible to locate a single perspective of Europe as a replacement for the multitude of perspectives and related essentials that are connected to one another in various complex ways (Pók *et al*, 2002).

Heinen (2000) discusses four distinctive factors to identify Europe. The first one is specific cultural roots that have historically integrated Greek, Jewish, Roman, Arabic, Byzantine and Chinese influences. The second one portrays the separation of worldly and religious powers and inter-state warfare as the identifying factor of Europe. The unique social system of Europe constitutes the third factor. The last one is the collection of political, social and historical arguments, particularly those occurring after 1945 which make it clear that there is no alternative to the rule of law and democracy.

Barthélémy (1997) states that in a general context, Europe can be identified in three terms: civilisation, values and projects. As he puts it, ‘*Europe*’ and ‘*European civilisation*’ are sometimes used interchangeably to refer to a European model of life (Barthélémy, 1997). European civilisation is a wider concept that includes social, religious, cultural and economic aspects of life in Europe with their plurality and diversity. Human rights, tolerance and pluralistic democracy are mentioned as the basic European values (Pingel, 2000; ACOEI, 1997: http://www.europa-web.de/europa/02wwswww/203chart/chart_gb.htm). On the other hand, European projects refer to those projects, institutions and organisations aiming to create communication, co-operation, and integration between the countries, nations and individuals of Europe (Barthélémy, 1997).

Berting and Heinemeijer (1995) define Europe from a different perspective. They consider Europe as a common ‘*European heritage*’ with a specific cultural identity. In their conception, Europe is established on these components:

a) a common cultural and spiritual heritage derived from Greco-Roman Antiquity, Christianity, Renaissance and its humanism, the political thinking of the Enlightenment and of the French Revolution, and all types of socialism; b) a rich and dynamic material culture that has been extended to all the other continents; c) a specific conception of the individual expressed by the existence of and respect for a legality that guarantees human rights and liberty of the individual; d) a plurality of states with different political orders which are condemned to live together in one way or another; e) respect for the peoples, states and nations outside Europe (Berting and Heinemeijer, 1995: 57).

However, Slater (1995) and Tonra and Dunne (1997) raise the point that neither the whole nor the separate parts of these criteria are appropriate enough to describe Europe adequately. Slater argues that it does not seem possible to locate a clear definition of Europe or a set of criteria to define “*what is Europe*”:

... the criterion of ‘the European idea’ is too elusive; geographical Europe’ too vast and unmanageable; a common European past too partial and limited; European ‘culture’, ‘heritage’ and ‘tradition’ too lacking in definition, ambiguous and value-laden (1995: 18).

The above discussions show that conceptions of Europe vary according to a viewer’s perspective and the context in which s/he views it. Therefore, it is difficult to provide a comprehensive definition of Europe that can be shared by different people, groups, nations and countries. Besides, as discussed above, the historical and cultural criteria used by many authors to define Europe mostly exclude Turkey. The criterion of geography on the other hand, is not satisfactory enough to provide a clear perspective of whether Turkey can be included in Europe as well as what Europe is. However, it is thought that the policies, projects and vision for the future may present a better framework in which Turkey’s place in Europe can be viewed and evaluated clearly. In this respect, this study discusses how the concept of Europe is perceived and used by Turkish people through investigating the views history student and practising teachers and teacher educators.

As I indicated in chapter one, the projects of European co-operation and integration envisage the formation and recognition of European identity and citizenship in order to unify the diversity of people, societies, cultures, nations and countries in Europe. And the ED in education and history teaching is given a role in developing a common European identity and a notion of European citizenship. Hence, the examination of these two concepts thought to be indispensable in order to understand better what the ED is and how it can be reflected in the Turkish history curriculum with respect to facilitating

Turkey's integration into Europe. The idea of 'European identity' will be discussed next to investigate how Europe is being perceived by the Europeans, and what place Turkey occupies in this concept.

2.1.2. The idea of European identity

*European identity "... nothing less than a shared humanism based on democracy, justice and freedom"*¹

The idea of a 'distinctive European identity' was first referred to in the Treaty of Rome (1957) as a tool to lay the foundations of European integration (Tonra and Dunne, 1997). The Resolution of the Council and Ministers of Education of 24 May 1988 (Council of European Communities, 1988)² aimed to promote a sense of European identity amongst the people of Europe in order to enhance European unification. However, the definition of European identity has continued to be an unclear, complex and problematic area (Convery, 2002).

Some authors and official documents of the EU, the COE and other European-wide organisations state that European identity is the second strand of a dual identity collaborating with a national one (Castells, 1998; Fossum, 2001; Edwards, 2000; ACOEI, 1997: http://www.europa-web.de/europa/02wwwswww/203chart/chart_gb.htm), while other authors locate it in a list of multiple identities (Convery, 2002; Panebianco, 1996; Berting and Heinemeijer, 1995). Berting and Heinemeijer for example, point out the integration of multiple identities: *"perspectives on modernity address the integration of different levels of identity, such as a modern European identity, national identity, regional identity and ethnic identity"* (1995: 61).

There are also others arguing that European identity is a new version of a national identity to create a European super-state (Delgado-Moreira, 1997; Tonra and Dunne, 1997). Delgado-Moreira argues that European identity is a project of the EU aiming to *"turn the emerging super-state into a political consensus and a national narrative... at the same time maintaining cohesion and identity at the union level while respecting the nations"* (1997: 15). Wæver also mentions three types of European identity:

European identity one: projecting pictures of European continuity, coherence and inherent values; European identity two: a European political construct based on civic, political values that are shared and to which citizens of a European republic could pledge their loyalty. European

¹ A former EC Commissioner, Carlo Ripa di Mienna's comment cited in Torna and Dunne (1997: 7)

² The full text of the Resolution can be seen in Appendix A

identity three: a construct of European identity by contrast to some external others or the threat coming from outside (1995: 209).

The first type indicates the traditional conception of European identity, while the second one highlights a more contemporary and rational understanding of it. The third idea of European identity stated above by Wæver is constructed through opposition to the identity of others. Some authors regard this definition of European identity more realistic than the previous two by illustrating some cases (Smith, 1992; Tonra and Dunne, 1997). For example, Tonra and Dunne assert that in the recent past

European identity has been defined at least partly in contra-distinction to others; democratic Europe against authoritarian Europe and free market Europe against command economy Europe. ... Europe's cultural identity has been posited again in socio-religious terms. On the basis of the Turkic peoples, Muslim Bosnians and Albanians and Europe's African and Asian citizens are excluded from what is described as European (1997: 11).

On the other hand, Barthélémy (1997), Castells (1998) and Rusen (2000) list a series of values underlying Europe and European identity, such as the respect for diversity, rule of law and human rights; the defence of freedom and pluralistic democracy; a concern for the preservation of the European and world ecological balance; and the will to maintain peace in Europe and throughout the world. Besides, Delgado-Moreira (1997: 10) asserts that the word “*European*” embraces geographical, historical and cultural elements contributing to European identity, and European identity is built on the accumulation of a cultural route of “*Greece-Rome-Christianity-Renaissance-Western democracy*” (Delgado-Moreira, 1997: 10)

The values and principles that have been mentioned as the criteria or the conditions of European identity receive strong criticism from various perspectives. First, sources of identity other than the national ones, such as ethno-national minorities and social movements are invisible in the definitions of European identity (Delgado-Moreira, 1997). Second, proposals of European identity do not address how to benefit from national and cultural differences (Delgado-Moreira, 1997). Instead, they aim to overcome these differences and “*promote European ‘myths’ by presenting a highly selective interpretation of European history*” (Tonra and Dunne, 1997: 8). For example, Tonra and Dunne assert that Turkey’s position in Europe demonstrates a cultural exclusion policy of the European identity building project.

... it is clear, from unofficial statements, that a major question mark hangs over Turkey: Is it European? This is not a question of history or geography but one of cultural identity. Regardless of its secularisation, its level of economic development, the stability and plurality of its political system or its avowed European vocation, the Turkish application is a monument to Europe's implicit determination of its cultural and thus political borders (1997: 9).

Third, the principles of liberty, freedom, humanity, tolerance, rule of law and the concept of democracy are shared by all people around the world and therefore, cannot be monopolised by the Europeans alone (Castells, 1998). Moreover, if it is defined by ethnic, national or racial criteria European identity would inevitably contradict the principles of rationalist and humanist thought (Tonra and Dunne, 1997). Fourth, the claim “Christianity is one of the basics of European identity” undermines centuries of religious contention between Rome and Byzantium, Catholicism and Protestantism, the religious and the secular (Tonra and Dunne, 1997; Castells, 1998). Although the place of Judaism in European culture is mentioned sometimes, the role of Islam, at least, in the transmission of Greco-Roman accumulation to Modern Europe is underestimated or ignored (Dance, 1967).

In addition to these issues discussed above, Von Benda-Beckman and Verkuyten (1995) state that in order to develop a shared European identity, it is also important to create a shared history attempting to redraw the past in European terms and stressing a shared European heritage. However, Pieterse (1995) argues that the re-writing of European history from this perspective stresses culture and civilisation because these areas cover the things that can reconcile and overcome national differences. At the same time, the version of history underlying European identity neglects or simply undervalues conflicts between European nations and that devastating attempts at tyranny occurred in Europe (Pingel, 2000). Moreover, Tonra and Dunne (1997) assert that this process may lead to a selective history of a distinct Europe purged of the contribution of others, such as Africans, Arabs or people of the Far East. Eriksen (1993: 75) in Von Benda-Beckman and Verkuyten (1995: 20) criticises the ironic result of re-writing history from a European perspective as he states: “...*the outcome is bluntly phrased, a history of Europe where Greece ostensibly has the same history as Ireland, but not the same history as Turkey*”.

As the discussions started with the point that European identity was first mentioned in the Treaty of Rome, Panebianco (1996) argues that the introduction of European identity is a top-down project. Because the construction process of European identity has been parallel with the European integration process, Ahonen (2001: 91) identifies European unification as a project of identity building from a top down approach. The method of constructing a European identity from top to down has been criticised by various authors. For instance, T. Wilson raises awareness that the attempts to construct a European identity from a top down project may produce similar results of the nation-

building projects of the former USSR and Yugoslavia (cited in Tonra and Dunne, 1997). Moreover, Castells (1998) asserts that citizens of European countries are still not involved in the processes of European unification or integration. The processes are mostly led by deal-making agencies or the Council of Ministers. Therefore, there might be an inconsistency between the kind of European identity introduced by these bodies and the expectations of Europeans in the future.

In this section, the idea of a European identity and its critiques has been investigated. The discussions indicate that the definitions of European identity or the criteria used to define it predominantly possess elements that rule out Turkey and its particular characteristics. Although, there are strong criticisms against these restrictive definitions, it is possible to argue that there is no place for Turkey and Turkish elements in a project of common European identity. However there are some exceptions, such as Wæver's definition of European identity as "*a European political construct based on civic, political values that are shared and to which citizens of a European republic could pledge their loyalty*" (1995: 209) which can embrace Turkey, since it comprises of universal values and aspirations. It is also seen that introducing an ED by means of education, particularly through history, geography, modern languages and civic and political education, has been a part of the project of building a European identity, which will contribute to the development of citizens of the new Europe.

From the above point of view, a potential inclusion of the ED into the Turkish secondary school history curriculum is considered as a contribution to the process of developing a sense of European identity and European citizenship consciousness in Turkey. However, how Turkish people, particularly those being involved in history teaching, view Europe and European identity is important to see the equilibrium between the ways in which Europeans and Turks perceive each other. These issues are taken up in the empirical study. As pointed out earlier, developing a notion of European citizenship to facilitate European co-operation and integration is another mission attributed to the ED, which will be discussed next.

2.1.3. European citizenship

Similar to European identity, European citizenship has been considered as a part of European integration project. Osler and Starkey state this as: "*citizens of European states have to acquire a feeling of European identity and citizenship in order for political developments to progress*" (1999: 199). As the above quotation shows,

European citizenship is generally perceived as a process of building a concept of belonging based on political, social, cultural and religious commonalities as well as segregations in order to contribute the formation and development of an integrated Europe (Dekker, 1993).

Citizenship itself is defined in two main ways. The first conception involves the notion of belonging to a community or to a nation-state bounded with rights and responsibilities, access and belonging. Lehning (1999: 3) describes this conception as *“an identity and expression of one’s membership in a political community”* as well as the rights and responsibilities. The second one encompasses an *“understanding of intersubjectively shared practices that contribute to democratic changes of and within a community”* (Wiener, 1998: 4). According to Wiener (1998) citizenship can be described as a setting where institutionalised relationships between citizen and ‘polity/community’ materialise. Starkey (1995) on the other hand, simply defines citizenship as a commitment to the community and knowing about it.

The origins of European citizenship can be traced back to the early twentieth century (EU, 2005: http://europa.eu.int/abc/index_en.htm). However, the concept gained importance after the Maastricht Treaty in 1992 which introduced citizenship of the EU as a notion that presents rights and responsibilities for the nationals of the member states of the union.³ Related articles of the Maastricht Treaty launched new rights and benefits for the citizens of the EU. Some of the rights are residing, voting and standing as candidates in local and European elections in other EU countries and receiving wider diplomatic protection outside the EU. Lehning makes it clear that the rights and identity in European citizenship *“are not attached to citizens as members of separate member states that together form the European Union, but to citizens as citizens of the European Union”* (1999: 3). The legal status and political form of European citizenship is considered as its main strength (Arthur *et al*, 2001).

Examining the policies of the EEC and EC, Dekker and Portengen (1996) in Arthur *et al* (2001: 120) state that European citizenship is formed from the basic elements of *“knowledge of Europe, as well as a willingness to participate and to see oneself as a European”*. On the other hand, Osler and Starkey (1999) indicate the pluralistic aspect of European integration. They state that European citizenship is a feeling of identity with a multicultural and multilingual community, with a common project for the future

³ Articles 8-8d of the Maastricht Treaty on European citizenship can be seen in appendix B

as well as the identification of Europe within a wider global context (Osler and Starkey, 1999). The Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences (1997) in Osler and Starkey (1999) add that European citizenship requires the awareness of cultures, social structures, languages, history and philosophy of one's own country and of Europe. According to Starkey education for European citizenship needs to be rooted in "*thinking, feeling and doing*" (1995: 21). It should also include teaching the principles of democracy, social justice and respect for human rights (Starkey, 1995).

The above discussions indicate that the concept of European citizenship is attached to the process of European integration. Therefore, considering European citizenship in the context of Turkey does not refer to the processes and developments that happened in the past in relation to its co-operation with and integration into Europe. However, developing a concept and understanding of European citizenship through the inclusion of the ED in education in general, and in history teaching in particular, can be seen as an opportunity to facilitate and accelerate Turkey's integration into the EU. Therefore, Turkish history educators' views on the inclusion of an ED in the history curriculum and its potential impact on pupils' construction of a European citizenship conception are seen as necessary to deal with in the empirical study. Moreover, the investigation of the existing links between history teaching and citizenship education in Turkey, which is discussed in chapter three, is considered as a precondition for considering a potential construction of European citizenship.

The discussion of issues of European identity and European citizenship have indicated that formal education is an important channel for raising the awareness of European issues around the continent, particularly amongst young people, in order to develop their sense of belonging to Europe and actively taking part in the processes of economic, political, social and cultural integration and development. The connection between these concepts and history curriculum, pedagogy and the education of history teachers is discussed in consideration with the ED in pages 68-70. The next sub-section will explore the concept of the ED in education, which can be evaluated as a means of generating and developing the sense of a European identity and the notion of European citizenship.

2.1.4. The European dimension in education

Although the term has been used for almost three decades, the definition of the ED is not an easy task. Convery (2002) distinguishes two main approaches to a definition of

the term. The first one is identified as a “prescriptive” or official approach apparent in the policy statements and other official documents issued by European, national or local institutions or organisations, while the second approach arises from and is favoured by the writers and researchers working in the fields of social sciences and education (Convery, 2002). It is thought to be appropriate to analyse the general meaning of the term, ‘the ED’ before discussing its contextual meanings and uses.

As previously mentioned the word “*European*” *embraces geographical, historical and cultural elements contributing to Europe*” (Delgado-Moreira, 1997: 10). However, Barthélémy (1997: 11) states that in the Phoenician language, it was used to denote the “*setting sun*”, which referred to what happens in the West or what belongs there. It can also be attributed to anything that belongs to or relating to Europe. On the other hand, “*dimension*” denotes the “*measurable size of a body in all directions*” (Barthélémy, 1997: 11); a particular/significant aspect of something; or the extent or size of a situation or a problem under consideration. The combination of the two words has been used to refer to economic, political, social, legal or mostly educational aspects of European-wide policies, practices, activities or relations.

Barthélémy (1997) and Ryba (1995) state that the concept of ‘the ED’ was first used in the resolution of the Council of European Ministers of Education of 1976, while Mulcahy (1991) asserts that the term with its full idea and understanding was first used in the 1977 Community Policy Statement ‘Towards a European Education Policy’. In the first occasion stated above, the ED was used to refer to the promotion of closer relations between educational systems of European countries (Barthélémy, 1997; Ryba, 1995). However, it was the 24 May 1988 Resolution of the Council of Ministers of Education which attributed to the ED the role of “*developing a required kind of education to sustain Europe’s aspirations to become a more integrated social and cultural community*” (Mulcahy, 1991: 213). Therefore, the ED in this era was referring to closer integration and co-operation between the countries of Europe. The promotion of student exchanges, language teaching, international schools, teacher training and teacher mobility were given importance at this era (Convery *et al*, 1997).

In his preface to Margaret Shennan’s book ‘Teaching about Europe’, Maitland Stobart defines the ED as a dynamic and evolving concept covering three distinct notions: “*education in Europe; education about Europe; and education for Europe*” (cited in Shennan, 1991: xv). This definition provided a significant framework to examine the

ED (Convery, 2002). Although Stobart states that the term 'Europe' in this context is not synonymous with any European organisation and should be used to refer the whole of the continent, writers and researchers have often used the term of the ED interchangeably with the educational policies and practices of the EU and the COE (Starkey, 1995; Brock and Tulasiewicz, 2000; Barthélémy, 1997; Safran, 2003).

Convery (2002) states that Stobart's notion of 'education in Europe' represents the community ideal of the EU; whilst humanist ideal fostering the European unification is represented by the notion of 'education for Europe.' According to Convery (2002) Starkey's (1995) conception of education for European citizenship; 'thinking, feeling and doing' for Europe is also compatible with Stobart's framework of the ED.

'Education in Europe' is represented by doing; 'education about Europe' is embodied by thinking; and 'education for Europe' is represented by feeling in Starkey's model of European citizenship (Convery, 2002). On the other hand, Brock and Tulasiewicz (2000) develop a different idea of the ED. In this view, the ED includes European knowledge, European skills and European attitudes. In Convery's (2002) analogy, European knowledge is the equivalent of Stobart's notion of 'education about Europe'; European skills correspond to 'education in Europe'; and European attitudes are represented by 'education for Europe' (Brock and Tulasiewicz, 2000). Tulasiewicz (1993) additionally includes 'commitments to European values and ideals' that may enable pupils to live and work in the continent together with other elements.

A similar understanding of the ED emerges from official documents, particularly from those produced by the bodies of the COE and the EU. In these documents, the ED is defined as a dynamic, evolving and multi-faceted concept and an approach to education aiming to prepare young generations for the purposes of work, study and leisure in the wider community of Europe and the rest of the world. As a reflection of this notion, the official documents generally evaluate the ED from an educational perspective. For example, the Maastricht Treaty of 1992 states that the action of the community aims to develop the ED in education, particularly by the learning and diffusion of the languages of the member states; to favour student and teacher mobility; to promote the co-operation between teaching establishments; and to develop exchanges of information, experiences, educators and so on (Maastricht Treaty, 1992: Article 126)⁴.

⁴ For detailed explanation see the complete text of Article 126 in Appendix C

The Green Paper on the ED in education issued by the European Commission in 1993 summarises the progress achieved since its beginning and proposed guidelines for the future. It clearly states the commitments of contributing to European citizenship, providing opportunities to improve the quality of education and preparing young people for better social and professional adjustment as the purposes of the ED (European Commission, 1993). An important aspect of this paper is that it led to the introduction of two main European Union educational programmes, Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci (Barthélémy, 1997).

Feneyrou (1993) defines the ED as the significant aspects of Europe. His definition of the term reads as:

the past – historic ties between member countries, their community of origin; the present – the current ties, the economic, political and cultural community; and the future of Europe, the common interest of the member countries (Feneyrou, 1993: 32).

According to Feneyrou (1993) these significant aspects form the content of education and training in Europe. However, he believes that it is a problematic area to come to a decision about for what particular purpose and from which perspective the content would be introduced to learners. Therefore, it is necessary to convince the people of Europe about the significance of the aims and perspectives of a European content (Feneyrou, 1993).

As Shennan (1991) asserts, the ED is sometimes used interchangeably with the terms of ‘European awareness’, ‘Europe in the curriculum’, ‘European education’ or ‘European perspective’. According to Shennan (1991) all the terms used both in informal discussions and official documents underline the growing significance of improving the quality and quantity of learners’ knowledge by making Europe a new focal point of their educational lives, though each one of them refers to a different thing. For instance, a distinction between the ED and European perspective is made by M. McGhie (1993), where she links the ED to the concept of European citizenship. According to McGhie the ED is an “*attitude of mind based on a set of principles, guidelines or values ... to help [Europeans] towards an understanding of unity in diversity and of [their] responsibilities as citizens of Europe*” (1993: 33). Alternatively, the European perspective is a process of sensitisation to different cultures, attitudes, behaviours and beliefs in order to develop a European identity (McGhie, 1993).

On the other hand, Raymond Ryba (1995) asserts that the ED in education is to recognise that:

educational activities are no longer being limited to the memorising of facts about Europe; that, on the contrary, the most important element of learning about the ED of education lies in helping pupils and students to understand the new rights and responsibilities related to being a part of modern Europe and encouraging those attitudes of tolerance, respect for democracy, respect for the rights of others, etc, which characterise what is best about Europe (Ryba, 1995: 33).

He describes the ED in education as an element that should be added ‘across the curriculum’, wherever it can be usefully introduced, but he criticises that the ED is only considered as a part of history, geography and modern languages teaching in most educational contexts (Ryba, 1995). The National Curriculum Council (NCC) of the UK defined the ED in a way that is similar to Ryba’s definition. According to the NCC it is:

a part of an education, specifically intended for co-operation with others, including non-British, to facilitate living and working in the United Kingdom as a part of Europe, and other European countries (NCC, 1990 cited in Tulasiewicz, 1993: 241).

The above discussion of the concept has highlighted several components of the ED, such as integration, co-operation, participation, unity, diversity, rights, responsibilities, knowledge, skills, attitudes, commitments and so on. However, none of the definitions or conceptions provides a comprehensive explanation of the ED. Nonetheless, I would like to focus on two definitions of the concept here. The first one introduces the ED from a general perspective.

The term ‘ED’ implies a knowledge of the customs, culture, language and economic situation of other European countries – but – the crucial aspect is comprehension of how all these elements create different perspectives in our understanding of other Europeans and ourselves (Ritchie, and Sanz, 1998).

The second one, on the other hand, locates the concept within the sphere of education and includes many of the attributes mentioned by other writers. This definition of the ED in education is cited in Convery (2002), which was taken from a publication by ETUCE a committee of the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC):

... the ED is a concept which, applied to education, means that students and teachers must be conscious of both their common cultural base and the rich national and regional diversity they share, and have access to the opportunities that living in Europe offers, in terms of employment, culture and personal development. ... The ED must be an inclusive concept which does not deny or suppress the distinctive characteristics of individual cultures represented throughout Europe, nor exclude a wider international perspective (cited in Convery, 2002: 45).

The exploration of the meaning of the concept in the available literature has led me to form my own conception of the ‘ED’. It has shaped my understanding of the ED in education. In my conception, ***“the ED refers to an approach to education from a European perspective that aims to raise an awareness of Europe and European related issues, in order to develop positive or at least neutral/unbiased attitudes towards Europe, which will help young people form their understanding of European***

identity and European citizenship". Throughout the data collection, I used the term of the ED interchangeably with the concepts of 'European perspective' and 'the awareness of Europe' because 'the ED' (Avrupa boyutu) was a rather new concept at the time of this study in the Turkish language and its literal translation does not express anything more than 'an aspect of Europe'. Many times during the data collection, attempts were made to present and clarify the meaning I attributed to the ED and its components. The research findings presented in chapters six and seven investigate the meanings the participants of this study attribute to the concept of the ED. Chapter eight on the other hand, discusses research findings on the concept with the above interpretation of the ED.

As discussed in the preceding paragraphs, history teaching is one of the educational domains, which is thought to be appropriate for introducing, facilitating and nourishing the ED, along with the areas of geography teaching and modern languages. In the next sub-section, I will examine the projection of the ED in the context of history teaching, particularly at secondary school level.

2.2. The European Dimension in History Teaching

Bordas and Jones (1993) state that in many schooling systems of Europe, the ED is integrated into some of the subjects taught at schools. According to Bordas and Jones (1993) history is the first subject cited as a vehicle for promoting the ED, followed by geography. The review of the relevant literature demonstrates that 'the ED in history teaching' has been used widely in the official documents of the European-wide organisations and individual countries as well as by writers in the field of history education. It is difficult to find a clear and concise definition of the concept or its use. Therefore, it is thought to be advantageous to trace the origins of the concept before discussing the meanings and notions attributed to the ED in history teaching.

An idea of 'Europe in history teaching' or a 'European perspective of history teaching' was a phenomenon from the first COE History Conference in Calw in 1953 to the early 1970s. During this period, European-wide work on history teaching focused on the content of history textbooks and the place of history in secondary school curricula across the continent (Slater, 1995). Starting from the first conference, there were discussions and disputes concerning the purpose and notion of these European-wide collective works on history teaching. While some argued that history teaching in

European countries must serve for establishing peace and stability amongst European countries, others pointed out the necessity of generating an interpretation of history without the dominance and influence of political thoughts and practices (Vigander, 1967).

Vigander (1967) states that the initial COE conferences led to the formation of an understanding which established that it is not the duty/work of history to act or provide propaganda for European unity or finding solutions to political problems. According to this understanding it must be recognised that each period of history brings its own method and tools of writing history. Therefore, history teaching requires various kinds of historical themes, perspectives and teaching methods and approaches underlying the historical adventure of the European nations. The European idea in history teaching as a result, should be understood as an approach to “*signify a combination of education in humanism with an education in consciousness of European community*” (Vigander, 1967: 71).

From the early 1970s to late 1980, the ED in history teaching was used in some official documents and other publications with reference to various features and notions of history teaching (Goodson and McGivney, 1985). During this period, the concept was used to refer to the place of Europe and European history in history teaching and the history curriculum, developing an awareness of Europe by means of history teaching, and creating a common approach and perspective of history teaching in order to reconcile the conflicts and disagreements between European countries arising from bias and prejudice which are evident in national and nationalist versions of history (Council of Europe, 1995a; Slater, 1995; Hawkey, 1995).

However, the concept of the ED was used in the Resolution of the Council of Ministers of Education on 24 May 1988 with a direct reference to history teaching for the first time. It was stated as a part of the action programme of the Resolution “*to include the ED in their [member states] school curricula in all appropriate disciplines, for example, literature, languages, history...*” in order to strengthen young people’s sense of European identity and make clear to them the value of European civilisation by improving their historical, cultural, economic and social knowledge of Europe (European Commission, 1988).

The second important official document to mention the ED in history teaching is the Vienna Summit Declaration of October 9th 1993. In this document, the head of member

states of the COE declare that among others the council's work should particularly focus on *“strengthening programmes aimed at eliminating prejudice in the teaching of history by emphasising positive mutual influence between different countries, religions and ideas in the historical development of Europe”* (Vienna Declaration, 1993: 7) in order to reinforce mutual understanding and confidence between people, nations and states of the continent.

Another official document of the COE considering the ED in history teaching is the 'Resolution on trends and common issues in education in Europe' by the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education held in Kristiansand, Norway on 22-24 June 1997. This document refers to the changes in Central and Eastern Europe, which created an opportunity to include the ED into history curricula. It is suggested that *“history teaching in schools can, and should, make an important contribution to education in general and, in particular, to education for democratic citizenship”* (COE, 1997) by developing learners' basic attitudes of intellectual honesty and rigour, independent and critical judgement, open-mindedness, curiosity, civil courage, and tolerance.

The final important official document taking up the ED in history teaching is the Adopted Recommendations of the Council of Ministers of the member states of the COE (Council of Europe, 2001) on History teaching in twenty-first century Europe. Rec. (2001)¹⁵ comprehensively envisages that the ED in history teaching should be appropriate to:

- *show continuing historical relationships between local, regional, national and European levels;*
- *encourage teaching about periods and developments with the most obvious European dimension, especially the historical or cultural events and tendencies that underpin European awareness;*
- *develop pupils' interest in the history of other European countries;*
- *introduce or develop teaching about the history of the building of Europe itself;*
- *incorporate the education for tolerance, mutual understanding, human rights and democratic citizenship dimensions* (COE, 2001).

As the quotations and explanations from these official documents demonstrate, the ED in history teaching was considered as a new approach to history teaching in European countries aiming to provide a balance amongst local, regional, national, European and global contexts of history in the curricula of related countries. The other features of the concept are: developing a sense of European identity by highlighting the value and importance of European heritage and civilisation; eliminating bias and prejudice from

history teaching by emphasising the historical unity and diversity of Europe, mutual understandings and tolerance; and improving young people's general educational capacities and attitudes to democratic citizenship and human rights.

In spite of the fact that the ED in history teaching has been used extensively in the last fifteen years, neither have any of these official documents nor other authors, policy makers or educationalists put across a clear definition of the concept. Each document and author highlights one or more features of the concept from different perspectives that sometimes contradict one another. For example, Vaniscotte (1993) perceives the concept as a precautionary measure against the traditional way of history teaching that emphasises 'national histories' and relies on myths. On the other hand, Marchand and van der Leeuw-Roord (1993) argue that the ED in history teaching does not intend to diminish the importance of national histories. In fact, it must create a national identity with a European awareness. Besides, there are some further official documents using or referring to the concept without defining the meaning of the ED in history teaching. For instance, the reports on the content of history curricula across Europe and the COE's project on 'the ED in History Teaching' do not give a clear definition of the concept at all (COE, 1995b; 2002).

Other than the official documents, authors and researchers working in the field of history education have also used the ED. Nevertheless, very few of them have attempted to define what they mean by the ED in history teaching. And very few of them have referred to one or more aspect(s) of history and/or history teaching related to Europe. Among the others, Marchand and van der Leeuw-Roord (1993) and Stradling (2001) use the broadest view of the concept. According to Marchand and van der Leeuw-Roord (1993) and Stradling (2001), the ED in history teaching and curriculum should be introduced from a European perspective and must reflect political, social, economic, intellectual and cultural history approaches in order to avoid the danger of the hegemony of political history. It should also show unity and diversity between European countries. (Marchand and van der Leeuw-Roord, 1993; Stradling, 2001).

Moreover, Marchand and van der Leeuw-Roord (1993) argue that the ED in history teaching should be introduced from a thematic approach, because the chronological order may cause dangers of an encyclopaedic method with too many facts and too little space for exploration and analysis of different view points, and a complete coverage of European history, which can never be achieved. Stradling points out that the thematic

approach must “*provide opportunities for learners to compare and contrast developments in different countries or regions and to identify trends and patterns, similarities and differences*” (2001: 31).

The European Standing Conference of History Teachers Associations (EUROCLIO) approaches the concept as a way in which “*more European history is introduced from a wider European perspective as well as a search for the right balance between striving for scientific objectivity and serving educational objectives, like teaching to think critically, tolerance, democratic relationships or European citizenship*” (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004a). Van der Leeuw-Roord (2004a) states that the ED in history teaching is an approach to history teaching that tries to contribute to peace, stability and democracy in Europe by creating and strengthening a ‘European [historical] consciousness’.

On the other hand, Maitland Stobart (2003) argues that the ED in history teaching is a tool that serves for historical literacy (lettrism) across Europe. According to Stobart (2003) the European-wide works on history teaching have three distinguished components, ‘content, attitudes and abilities’. The three components aim to provide an active process of history teaching to promote individual enquiry, critical and reflective thinking and unrestricted expression. The comparison of this definition and his earlier model of the ED in education (see pp. 36-38) correspond with one another.

The content of history covers local, regional, national, European and global contexts together with political, social, economic and cultural dimensions of history, and stresses the importance of introducing contemporary events because it is more appropriate for attracting learners’ attention and comprehending the dynamics of today’s Europe (Stobart, 2003). The ‘content’ of history here corresponds with his notion of ‘education in Europe’. The respect for historical truth, democracy, human rights and tolerance; the recognition of different perspectives; and the eradication of bias and prejudice and giving importance to critical thinking, open-mindedness and empathy are the attitudes that would be gained by means of history education (Stobart, 2003). These attitudes are the equivalent of ‘education about Europe’. Classifying historical documents and sources; questioning analysing and reporting the historical information obtained from that; reaching unique and different points of view under the light of those evidences; and recognising the normality of having various conclusions about the same are the

abilities or skills that can be acquired through the study of history (Stobart, 2003). This also corresponds with the notion of ‘education for Europe’.

Under the guidance of the above discussions, it is thought to be worthwhile to locate a clear and comprehensive definition of the ED in history teaching at this point.

Therefore, I would like to stress that ***“the ED in history teaching is a relatively new approach to history teaching that aims to create and develop a sense of European identity and European citizenship by emphasising the political, social, economic and cultural knowledge of Europe, and the values of humanism, democracy and tolerance. The ED in history teaching endeavours to eliminate bias and prejudice from history teaching in order to reconcile the conflicts and disagreements between European countries by emphasising the historical unity and diversity of the continent. It also intends to provide a balance between the contexts of local, regional, national, European and global history; to reflect political, social, economic, intellectual and cultural dimensions of history from various perspectives to reflect the multi-cultural structure of Europe; and to improve learners’ intellectual and social capacities, such as the skills of empathy, critical thinking and the competence of collaborating in group work”***. As a result of the above characteristics of the ED in history teaching, its inclusion into the secondary school history curriculum of Turkey has been considered appropriate and necessary for two main reasons. Firstly, it may facilitate Turkey’s integration into the EU by helping new generations to learn more about European history, culture and civilisation and to develop critical but objective attitudes to Europe. Secondly, regardless of Turkey’s position in Europe, the inclusion of the ED can provide a context to underline the problems and inadequacies of the Turkish history curriculum, history teaching and history teacher training and to propose solutions for their improvement under the light of developments achieved in other countries.

During the empirical study, it was observable that some people perceived the ED in history teaching as an attempt to create a uniform history curricula and textbooks across the continent or to write a single history textbook that could be used in all European countries. Therefore, explaining various meanings and uses of the concept of the ED in history teaching was seen necessary during some interviews. I defined the concept as “a commonly accepted European perspective of history teaching, or sometimes an approach to history teaching that aims to arouse an awareness of Europe” whichever was necessary.

In some sources, the ED in history teaching is generally attributed to creating and developing a European historical consciousness, and supporting the European identity and European citizenship as the above discussions demonstrate. Thus, its role and place for developing a European identity, European historical consciousness and European citizenship will be discussed next.

2.2.1. The European dimension in history teaching, European identity and European citizenship

As discussed earlier in this chapter, introducing the ED by means of education, particularly through history, geography, modern languages, civic and political education, has been given a role in the project of building a European identity and European citizenship, or at least raising the awareness of European issues throughout the continent. Creating and transmitting a common and shared European heritage and identity is one of the building-blocks of this project (Von Benda-Beckman and Verkuyten, 1995; Fausser, 2000). Rusen (2000) calls this the ‘cultural currency’ of the European integration process necessary to accompany the common currency, the Euro. Various authors and documents assert that there is a close mutual intersection and/or relationships between history and identity and therefore between European history, history teaching in Europe and formation of a European identity and European citizenship (Wæver, 1995; Pieterse, 1995; Von Benda-Beckman and Verkuyten, 1995, Castells, 1998; European Commission, 1988; Council of Europe, 1995b; 2001; Macdonald and Fausser, 2000).

Some argue that the search for building a common European identity by means of a shared European history is a genuine appeal for intercultural communication (Macdonald and Fausser, 2000; Fausser, 2000; Rusen, 2000), while others refer to this as the process of the “*Eurocentrism of European integration*” (J. Saramago, 1999 cited in Macdonald and Fausser, 2000: 17; Koulouri, 2000). The adherents to European identity argue that the process of identity construction is ‘relative’ rather than exclusive, i.e., people’s sense and consciousness of belonging can be monitored in different levels, such as one can feel herself/himself English, British and European at the same time (Macdonald and Fausser, 2000). However, their opponents claim that creating a European identity by means of history and history teaching inevitably proposes a process of exclusion (Ahonen, 2001; Lowenthal, 1997; Koulouri, 2000).

In many of the COE's official documents on history teaching, the main themes or components of European history are evaluated as the basic factors or the domains that have place in the formation of a European identity. For instance the COE's report: 'The European Content of the School History Curriculum' maintains that:

The history of the whole of Europe, that of the main political, and economic events, and the philosophical and cultural movements which have formed the European identity must be included in the syllabuses (COE, 1995b).

It is not appropriate or necessary to determine all the components or segments of European history that have places in creating a European identity. Pingel's European-wide study of history textbooks for example found out some basic foundations to identify Europe:

- Charles the Great as "the father of Europe";
- Christian tradition as a common foundation ("Christian Occident, Europe defended itself against advancing Muslims, whereby Russia was involved in this defence");
- The Gothic and Baroque periods as cultural heritage;
- Education and human rights as new basic values;
- Industrialisation as new basic motor;
- Imperialism and nationalism as dangers to unity (Pingel, 2000: 101).

As seen in the above extracts, most of the identifying foundations of Europe are rooted in history. However, the place and use of history in the process of building any identity, including a European identity, has been a matter of question. Most of the criticisms come from the point that the nature of history is liable to distortion or alteration in order to arrive at some particular desirable end. Hobsbawm (1997) and Low-Beer (2004) argue that an identity culture attaches itself to the past through history which is actually formed from myths of nationalism. Therefore, similar to Marc Ferro (1984) Hobsbawm (1997) and Low-Beer (2004) believe that history and history teaching have been used and abused for creating or strengthening a particular entity, which is also a possibility in the process of building a European identity through history teaching. Eric Hobsbawm puts this as:

Why do all regimes make their young study history at school? Not to understand their society and how it changes, but to approve of it, to be proud of it, to become good citizens of the USA, or Spain, or Honduras, or Iraq. And the same is true of causes and movements. History as inspiration and ideology has a built-in tendency to become self-justifying myth (Hobsbawm, 1997: 357).

Lowenthal (1997) on the other hand, makes a distinction between two conceptions and uses of history: 'history as inquiry' and 'history as heritage'.

In fact, heritage is not history at all: while it borrows from and enlivens historical study, heritage is not an inquiry into the past but a celebration of it, not an effort to know what actually happened but a profession of faith in a past tailored to present day purposes (Lowenthal, 1997: x).

He also indicates that school history is more a question of heritage than history and functions for creating and maintaining national identities and thus the attempts to create a European identity through history teaching will initially require generating a European heritage (Lowenthal, 1997). Koulouri (2000) indicates the assertions that make connections between the processes of building a national identity and creating a European identity. She argues that in those situations the teaching of history focusing on ethnic, national or cultural distinctiveness, functions as an agent to establish the hegemony and cultural superiority of political and economic powers over other nations and cultures. According to Koulouri (2000) if the pursued European identity is as exclusive as national identities the inclusion of an ED in history teaching may serve for a Euro-nationalism or Euro-centrism.

On the other hand, drawing from the arguments of Paul Kennedy, Jensen (2000) states that there is a transition towards a post-national phase in history in the western world. He argues that history teaching can no longer meaningfully define and legitimate its main task in relation to transmitting a specific and dominant culture, heritage or identity particularly in some parts of Europe (Jensen, 2000). The reason is the processes moving towards some prevalent and individualised versions of history writing that diminish the power and importance of national histories. Gillis puts this as “*national history is no longer a proper measure of what people really know about the past*” (Gillis, 1994 cited in Jensen, 2000: 92).

The above arguments give a rise to the question of the function of history teaching in the formation of a European identity. Will history teaching act to construct a new kind of ‘national identity in a supranational milieu’? Will it build interactions between various versions of local, national and regional histories in Europe by enabling students to question, analyse and interpret different versions of national histories and arrive at their own conclusions? The investigation of the relevant literature demonstrates that the COE, EUROCLIO and other relevant organisations approaches to the ED in history teaching with the intention of taking the second approach (Council of European Communities, 1988; COE, 1995a; 1995b; 2001; 2002, Stradling, 2001; Stobart, 2003; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). However, some authors always draw attention to the danger of constructing a European ‘national’ or ‘supranational’ identity because the recent history of the continent is dominantly occupied by the ‘national’ and sometimes

‘nationalistic’ versions of history (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2000b), which serve for the formation of national identities (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 1998; 2000a; 2004a, 2004b; Angvik and Von Borries, 1997; Pingel, 2000).

Alternatively, developing a ‘European historical consciousness’ by means of history teaching across the continent to help people, particularly the young generation, to form their European identity(ies) has been a new phenomenon (Fausser, 2000; Lorentzen, 2000; Rusen, 2000; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2000a; 2000b; 2004a). Lorentzen (2000: 35) defines European historical consciousness as a way that “*citizens of Europe view their collective past on the European continent... to understand the present and form the future*”. The previous discussions revealed that the formation of a European identity requires a common understanding of ‘Europe’ and ‘being European’ that have components or connections in history. According to Fausser (2000) and Lorentzen (2000) European historical consciousness also entails the shared definitions and the major conceptions of Europe and European.

Rusen (2000) approaches European historical consciousness from a different perspective. According to him, the process of European unification requires a cultural backup to synchronise the political and economic integration with a social one. Rusen suggests that this cultural backing can be provided by developing a shared cultural identity, but this cannot be introduced or prescribed from a top-down process. It can be provided by a European historical consciousness which is open to, and oriented towards, the future. In order to do that, European historical consciousness should not have strictly defined or fixed borderlines. Instead, it must be made flexible for an individual to situate herself/himself in the historical processes from the past to the future by locating her/his own development and main distinguishing elements in these processes. By accommodating multiple forms of belonging, European historical consciousness can act as an important factor in the process of European unification and as an ideal medium of building a European identity (Rusen, 2000). However, he indicates that:

... it would be nonsense to enforce a European Historical Consciousness in the educational institutions of the European countries by means of a common curriculum. Such uniformity would be deadly because it would simply ignore the heterogeneity of historically rooted forms of belonging (Rusen, 2000: 77).

Heinen (2000) supports this view by asserting that European historical consciousness should include the individual’s experience and must possess greater methodological and interpretative strength.

However, on the basis of her extensive work experience on history teaching across the continent, Van der Leeuw-Roord states that the majority of history teachers and educators in Europe perceive that the function of history teaching is “*to educate a good patriotic citizen*” (2000a: 115). In this, historical consciousness is seen as a synonym of ‘national historical consciousness’ and defined as obtaining solid knowledge of the ‘national past’. According to Van der Leeuw-Roord (2000a) this approach carries some dangers to the mission of European historical consciousness and thus does not favour the process of building a European identity. The dangers are, for example, advocating and exploiting national myths, fostering ethnocentric national identities at the expense of critical thinking and reflective approaches, and highlighting the unique and distinctive national particularities in opposition to the richness and diversity of Europe (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2000a). It has also been identified that the European content of school history in many European countries is selected according to the home country’s involvement in or contribution to European history (COE, 1995b; Low-Beer, 2000; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2000). According to the reports there is no precise attempt to present an overall (spatial and temporal) and objective view of the history of Europe.

While history teaching has played an important role in the development of European identity, the place given to it in the formation and advancement of European citizenship is rather limited. Convery *et al*’s (1997) research indicates that among five school subjects, history occupies the last place in promoting the ED in education and consequently education for European citizenship. Nevertheless, history’s importance in citizenship education in general is asserted by many authors (Starkey, 1995; Davies, 1995; Arthur *et al*, 2001; Brett, 2004; Crick, 1998). As the Crick Report (1998) puts it:

The emphasis in History on the use of evidence and processes of enquiry can help pupils to discuss and reach informed judgements about topical and contemporary issues which are the lifeblood of citizenship and to develop the confidence to take informed action

Brett supports this perspective by indicating that the role of history in citizenship education should be viewed as a “*vehicle to help students develop their skills of analysis, critical judgement and expressing a point of view*” (2004: 15). Walsh (1993) also adds that history teaching contributes to citizenship education in terms of “*understanding the human present in the light of its past, or more fully, the desire to understand, assess and direct the human present – and thus shape the human future*” (cited in Brett, 2004: 16).

According to Brett (2004) four elements of history teaching can contribute to citizenship education. They are community involvement through the teaching of local history, developing an idea of historical significance, the teaching of historical interpretations, and generating moral outrage. On the other hand, Osler and Starkey (1999) propose a model of education for European citizenship, which involves acquiring knowledge, reflecting on identity, living in a community and developing skills for participation. Analysing Osler and Starkey's (1999) model of European citizenship Arthur *et al* (2001) argue that there is a multidimensional relationship between history teaching, and the development of a European identity and European citizenship. They point out that history teaching can help pupils build up a notion of European citizenship by introducing opportunities to develop some capabilities and notions suggested by Stradling (1995). They are:

- *a greater sense of European identity and common cultural heritage,*
- *more tolerance for diversity between people of different cultural and ethnic backgrounds,*
- *an appreciation of the growing political and economic interdependence among European nations,*
- *an understanding of the historical origins of current developments towards greater political and economic co-operation and understanding* (Stradling, 1995: 8).

Arthur *et al* (2001 and Davies (1995) argue that by means of the above capabilities and notions history teaching contributes to the training of European citizens and thus helps the wider efforts to reduce prejudice and discrimination. Moreover, they point out the danger of the use and abuse of history teaching as an agent of socialisation, and the potential of history teaching in developing critical attitudes about Europe (Arthur *et al*, 2001; Davies, 1995).

In this subsection, the place of the ED in history teaching and European historical consciousness in formation of a European identity and a notion of European citizenship is examined. The reciprocal relationships between these concepts are also considered. The discussions revealed that history teaching is given an important role to develop a consciousness of Europe and consequently a European identity and a perception of European citizenship. However, there are also criticisms directed towards the use of history and history teaching for the same purposes. Bearing all these issues in mind, it is necessary to investigate how history and history teaching are utilised in Turkish context in relation to the above matters, which is explored in chapter six. In the next subsection, I will discuss the European-wide work for the improvement of history teaching carried out by various organisations and institutions.

2.2.3. The change of history teaching in Europe

History has been a part of the school curriculum in many countries across Europe and throughout the world since the nineteenth century (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2001a). History as a school subject has functioned as a context in which national histories are presented to form national identities and strengthen national sentiments. In order to perform this duty adequately new versions of ‘national histories’ were written and textbooks were prepared accordingly (Schueddekopf, 1967b). However, national histories and their reflection in textbooks and history teaching consequently brought along the denigration and humiliation of other nations, countries and cultures. Thus, initiatives began with the aim of improving history teaching in the international arena, particularly in the context of the presentation of national histories in textbooks. Schueddekopf (1967b) states that those initiatives were first started in the last decade of the nineteenth century. He reports that the initial idea and attempt to write a comprehensive European history textbook goes back to 1918. Then other initiatives to improve history teaching internationally, and in Europe in particular, were carried out by various organisations until 1945.

Starting from 1945 with its foundation, UNESCO undertook the duty of inspecting and revising textbooks, particularly history textbook in the international arena (Schueddekopf, 1967b). The main objective of UNESCO’s work was to examine the content of history textbooks in the participating countries in order to determine those elements of history possessing bias, prejudice and enmity against others, to eliminate these elements from textbooks and consequently from history teaching, and to promote international understanding and tolerance by means of history teaching (Schueddekopf, 1967b). To perform its tasks in education, and history teaching in particular, UNESCO initiated various projects, publications, seminars, conferences and student and teacher exchange programmes including the ‘Associated Schools Project’ (ASP) (Slater, 1995). The second international organisation, whose work particularly focused on history teaching, is the COE.

2.2.3.1. The Council of Europe’s works on history teaching

The European Cultural Convention of the COE signed in Paris in 1954 proposed to foster the shared European heritage by means of promoting the study of the languages and history of other European States.⁵ However, the COE’s engagement in history

⁵ The full text of the convention can be viewed on Appendix D

teaching began prior to the signing of this convention because history teaching had been seen important for establishing mutual understanding and confidence amongst the people of Europe (Council of Europe, 1995a). Starting from 1953, the COE and after its establishment in 1967 the COE's related branch: the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) has organised various seminars and conferences to improve the state of history teaching in the member states. Besides, the COE and later on the CDCC initiated joint projects and activities with other related national and international institutions in Europe (Low-Beer, 1997).

The initial COE conferences on history teaching, from 1953 to 1958, looked at the content of school history on the basis of various historical periods by means of scrutinising textbooks (Vigander, 1967; Low-Beer, 1997). The aim of the early work of the COE was to eliminate traditional mistakes, prejudices from history teaching and to establish facts (Slater, 1995). It was found out that history teaching in many European countries was dominated by national history taught from a nationalistic perspective.

Low-Beer asserts this as:

national perspectives of the early 20th Century were projected back anachronistically to other times and periods, and this distorted most aspects of world history presented to pupils, and obscured any view of European history (1997: 14).

The history of other countries appeared only in relation to every country's national history. 'European History' as a course or a textbook title generally referred to rivalries or developments of separate European countries (Dance, 1967; COE, 1995b). For example, the geographical discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were presented differently in each country's textbooks as Dance exemplifies in the context of the middle ages "...far too many of our textbooks exaggerate the importance of their own nation in the treatment of medieval themes, and minimise that of the European community" (1967: 80). It was observed that the great powers of Europe found place in other countries' history textbooks, while ethnic and religious minorities were mostly excluded. Another finding was the domination of political history over other historical dimensions and themes (Schueddekopf, 1967a).

During the 1960s and early 1970, the COE's works on history teaching focused on secondary education, while specific issues, such as religion in history textbooks, co-operation in Europe, geographical discoveries or Renaissance Europe were given importance between 1972 and 1983 (COE, 1995a; Slater, 1995). In the late 1980s, history textbooks drew the attention once more. However, from the beginning of 1990

history teaching with all of its dimensions started to occupy agendas as an important European-wide issue.

It was identified throughout all these works, conferences, seminars and projects that bias and prejudice were still openly dominating history teaching across the continent (COE, 1995a). Slater reveals that “*European history was often ‘chauvinistic and Euro-centred’, and that bias and prejudice often lie less in explicit statements and overt judgements than in omissions and language usage*” (1995: 31). The main objective of school history was to build a historical cult by exalting national sentiments. Moreover, the content was still made up of national political history undervaluing local, regional, European and the world history contexts; social, economic and cultural dimensions; which also excluded contemporary issues (COE, 1991a). Nonetheless, Slater (1995) states that the scope of the content of history syllabuses in many European countries has been widened since 1945. Additionally, despite the various attempts to improve history textbooks and curricula in most European countries, they were still found deficient in establishing a European idea (Slater, 1995).

Another issue pointed out through the work of the COE was the pedagogy of history (Slater, 1995). It was claimed that history cannot be introduced as the transmission of pre-determined facts any longer. It was seen necessary to introduce pupils to the methodology of history in the classroom by means of various new techniques, strategies and resources to bring about the involvement of pupils themselves and their immediate environments into the history classroom (Low-Beer, 1997; COE, 1994). Developing pupils’ transformative skills, such as critical thinking, reasoning, questioning, analysis and interpretation was the focus of pedagogical considerations of the COE’s works (COE, 1991b). Besides, making use of the contemporary developments in the fields of educational psychology, pedagogy and educational technology in history teaching was another point arising from the work of the COE and other affiliated organisations (COE, 1994).

As the report of the 1990 Braunschweig Conference stresses, in many European countries, textbooks were used as the only resource for teaching history (Bourdillon, 1992). Low-Beer (2001) indicates that in some schooling environments textbooks are considered as the curriculum as well. Probably because of the same reason, the COE’s work was mostly devoted to history textbooks rather than other aspects of history teaching. It was recommended through many initiatives of the COE that teachers should

bring various kinds of documentary and visual materials into history classrooms as well as moving 'history teaching' out of classrooms and schools by making use of museums, historical sites, art galleries and so on (Slater, 1995).

A further area related to history teaching and covered by the works of the COE is the training of history teachers in the member states. The recommendations on this issue stress the professionalism and specialism of history teachers. The importance of education on pedagogical matters as well as the subject knowledge and other related areas, such as the understanding and awareness of geographical, sociological, economic, political, religious and archaeological matters was highlighted (Slater, 1995).

Starting from the early 1950s Turkey was involved in many of the COE's works on history teaching and hosted the 1958 Conference on the representation of history between 1870 and 1950 in history textbooks (Schueddekopf, 1967b; Slater, 1995). However, the examination of history textbooks and the state of history teaching (Tunçay, 1977; Alkan, 1982; Özbaran, 1992; Kabapınar, 1992; 1998; Arslan, 1998b; Dilek, 1999; Aktekin, 2005) revealed that the involvement on those works did not make the expected impact on the Turkish context.

With the beginning of 1990s, the European-wide work on history teaching was opened to broader ground with the involvement of various other organisations, such as EUROCLIO, the International Society for History Didactics, the Georg-Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, the Korber Foundation and so on. The COE's involvement in history teaching still continues. The COE's and the EU's financial support of projects and work carried out by other organisations are a crucial factor for the improvement of history teaching across Europe. Among others, EUROCLIO's work has occupied an important place since its foundation in 1993. Particularly, the collaboration between the COE and EUROCLIO has had great impact on the field. In the next sub-section therefore, work carried out by these two organisations in the last decade will be discussed, together with the present state of history teaching in Europe.

2.2.3.2. The recent work on history teaching in Europe

History teaching in Europe has changed radically since the end of the 1980s. The fall of communism and 'the Iron Curtain' led most of the countries in Central and Eastern Europe to turn towards the West (Bucher-Dinc cited in Macdonald, 2000; Stradling, 2004). The changes not only affected the political and economical systems of those countries but also influenced their social, cultural and educational structures (Stradling,

2004). They indicated the construction of a new Europe that named the COE's Bruges symposium: History Teaching in the New Europe (COE, 1991b).

The changes in Central and Eastern Europe and the EU's policies towards a stronger integration coincide around the same period. This helped to ground the idea of developing an ED in education, in general, and in history teaching, in particular, across the continent (Slater, 1995). Therefore, a growing number of nations and countries started to participate in the European-wide works on history teaching. Each country's rationale for the involvement of their work was different. However, the ascending shared motive amongst all was the desire for reaching an international understanding, peace and stability in Europe and making use of one another's experience to improve the approaches to history and history teaching (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004a).

From the early 1990s to 2005, EUROCLIO and the COE have initiated various European-wide projects, seminars, conferences, symposia and workshops on history teaching with support of the EU and some other institutions, namely the Georg-Eckert Institute, the Korber Foundation and so on. This work consists of long term projects on the innovation of history education, teacher training programmes and workshops, development of innovative textbooks, teaching materials and other kinds of resources, curriculum development projects, studies on development of innovative teaching and learning approaches, the application of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in history teaching and so on (EUROCLIO, 2005: <http://www.eurocliohistory.org/>).

The co-operation and collaboration between these institutions led to some European-wide comparative research projects on history teaching being established. 'Youth and History' is the first one devised to explore young people's attitudes to history and history teaching in Europe conducted in 26 countries across the continent (Angvik and Von Borries, 1997; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 1998, Tekeli, 1998). Another important project is 'European Historical Consciousness' administered by the Korber Foundation and the Institute for Advanced Studies in Humanities within the EUSTORY programme (Bucher-Dinc, 2000; Macdonald, 2000; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2001a; Pók *et al*, 2002). Apart from those, EUROCLIO has initiated various research projects and training programmes on history teaching, the most recent one of them is 'The changes in history education in Europe during the last decade' (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). It is worth note that an important sum of the COE's and EUROCLIO's recent work is devoted to

the improvement of history teaching and history teacher training in the countries of Eastern Europe (EUROCLIO, 2005: <http://www.eurocliohistory.org/>).

Turkey also participated in some of the recent European-wide projects on history teaching, such as the Youth and History Survey and several EUROCLIO projects (Angvik and Von Borries, 1997; Tekeli, 1998). Nevertheless, the involvement in these recent works were organised by a non-governmental institution, the History Foundation of Turkey, not by the MONE. Therefore, the results of the above projects mostly served for the identification of the problems and inadequacies of history textbooks and its pedagogy, not for changing the relevant educational policies and practice.

All the above mentioned European-wide projects, programmes and works have contributed to the development of history education and the ED in history teaching across Europe. However, it is not possible to discuss all of them in detail in this study. Instead of discussing the development of history teaching in Europe within a historical framework, it is preferable to explore its current state on the basis of the most recent studies, which will be presented next.

2.2.3.3. The current state of history teaching in Europe

In this sub-section, the status of history in schools, the curricula, pedagogy, textbooks and other resources and teacher training will be discussed to delineate the current state of history teaching in Europe. It is hoped to give some indications about the components and characteristics of the ED in history teaching. The results of annual EUROCLIO questionnaires demonstrate that history is an independent, compulsory subject at least for a three-year period of secondary education in most of the European countries. However, history's place in many countries' school curriculum has been under continuous pressure for over ten years. In this era, most European countries changed their school curriculum radically. Some of them omitted history and some other traditional subjects from the curriculum to make way for new subjects like ICT (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). The level of government control in European educational systems has not changed much since 1989, thereby having strong influence occurs as excessive and overburdening workloads and more responsibilities for teachers. This situation also affects history teaching to a large extent because as a school subject, history belongs more than any other subject to the public domain (Stradling, 2001; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b).

Related to the content of history, Slater proposes common criteria for ‘constructing history syllabuses in Europe’ that should “contain a balance between local, national, European and world history” and “*include substantial elements of contemporary issues studied in their historical context*” (1995: 117) within a thematic framework. Moreover, the COE’s recommendations suggest that history teaching must encompass some components, while avoiding the accumulation of encyclopaedic knowledge at the same time (COE, 2001). These components are: raising an awareness of the ED, which is open to the rest of the world; eliminating prejudice and stereotypes; developing students’ curiosity towards enquiry method and their abilities of critical thinking, objectivity and resistance to being manipulated; providing opportunity for the study of political, economic, social and cultural dimensions of history; and making it possible to study controversial issues through taking various facts, opinions, viewpoints into account (COE, 2001).

Drawing on the empirical evidence, the results of EUROCLIO questionnaires and other related studies reported the following findings. First, although the ED in history teaching has been an issue for several years, the amount of world and European history in the curricula of most European countries has not substantially changed since 1989 (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). In fact the emphasis on national history has been extended, but local history has started to find space in some countries’ curricula (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2001b).

Second, it was found out that the aims and objectives for school history have still been the same everywhere in Europe, emphasising the transmission of content knowledge, national-cultural values and attitudes (COE, 1995b; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2001b; 2004b). While the innovations and improvements developed over the last thirty years in the field of history education have been generally accepted by history professionals, it is not possible to state that they are reflected in the curricula and practice in many European countries (Van Trigt, 1999). The debates over content and skills are still ongoing (Slater, 1995; Counsell, 2000; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). Another challenging task related to this issue that is still waiting to be disentangled, is to provide balance between values and abilities both proposed by means of the ED in history teaching. As it is proposed in the COE’s recommendations (COE, 2001), history teaching is expected to promote the fundamental values of tolerance, mutual understanding, human rights and democracy (Low-Beer, 1997), at the same time it is

given the mission of developing students' critical thinking skills (COE, 2001; Safran, 2003).

Third, during all these works of the COE, the participants of conferences and seminars discussed and identified that the contemporary world is more interesting and motivating for young people than any other historical period (Low-Beer, 2001). According to the EUROCLIO's most recent survey, more recent history has appeared in the curricula of various European countries. Nevertheless, it is found out that school history in Europe becomes sensitive and controversial when it focuses on contemporary history (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). Despite the fact that the majority of the COE's and EUROCLIO'S works in the last decade have been dedicated to sensitive and controversial issues with the aim of 'disarming history', this statement indicates that there is still need for more collaborative work to handle the issues, particularly the ones arising from the most recent history of Europe, such as those arising from the clashes of Bosnia and Kosovo (Von Borries, 2001; Stradling, 2003; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2003). Von Borries (2001) and Stradling (2003) propose teaching history from multiple perspectives (multiperspectivity), including the viewpoints of ethnic minorities and distant groups, as a way to overcome the problems arising from the sensitive and controversial historical issues.

Fourth, it is observable that the organisation of the history curricula in Europe are changing from the traditional chronological approach to a thematic approach, but the thematic approach is generally organised in a chronological order, which proves that chronology still provides the framework for introducing historical content (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2001b). Fifth, a movement towards the inclusion of more social, economic and cultural dimensions of history has been monitored. However, political history still occupies the largest curriculum area in many European countries (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b).

Sixth, the studies demonstrate that history curricula around the continent have a tendency to be overloaded by excessive content and aims and objectives dominated by political and social purposes (Council of Europe, 1995b). However, the changes and developments in the history curriculum inspired by European-wide communication and co-operation of history professionals and related organisations have occurred in many European countries. This progress has led to a wide range of related activities and has

increased the freedom of schools and teachers to develop their own curricula and teaching approaches (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b).

It has been identified that history teaching in many European countries, including Turkey, is still a traditional subject with emphasis on memorisation and rote learning (Low-Beer, 1997). However, there has been a tendency towards the use of active methods and enhancing critical thinking skills in the process of history teaching throughout Europe. Students have developed more positive attitudes to school history after the changes in the curricula content and in the way that history is being taught in schools (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). Another issue verified is the necessity of including information and communication technologies (ICT) into history teaching to a greater extent (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b).

Moreover, studies ascertain that history textbooks are still seen as the most important resource for school history in many European countries. A delegate of one of the COE Seminars states: *“for most teachers teaching [history] without textbooks is like playing soccer without a ball”* (cited in Low-Beer, 2001: 22). Nevertheless, the amount of choice between school textbooks and other educational materials and tools has been increasing. Particularly the use of computer, CD, DVD and video is increasing as well as other kinds of written and pictorial resources in history classrooms (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). Additionally, it is recorded that the components of textbooks are improving. For example they include more maps, pictures, colours, task and teaching techniques (Pingel, 2001).

Furthermore, the European-wide works reveal that in some countries, the quality of the initial and in-service training of history teachers is still very poor (Ecker, 2003a; 2003b; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). History teachers do not receive adequate training to make use of the new teaching approaches, method and techniques in their practice. However, it is noted that the character of history teacher training has been changing with an increasing emphasis on practical aspects of teaching (Ecker, 2003b). Apart from that, it is noted that the professional training of history teachers should focus on pedagogical, methodological, practical training and on the role and opportunities of ICT for history. Additionally, the need for the training of teacher trainers is highlighted as well (Ecker and de Bivar Black, 2003).

As it is discussed in chapter three, the current state of history teaching in Turkey shows many similarities with the above general European picture drawn by Van der Leeuw-

Roord (2004b), Pingel (2001) Stradling (2003), Ecker (2003b) and Ecker and de Bivar Black (2003). Therefore, the suggestions for developing the state of history teaching in Europe discussed here can be taken as the ways not only for improving Turkish history teaching but also preparing the country and its people for a better involvement in Europe.

2.3. Summary

This chapter started with the discussion of Europe as an idea and entity. It has revealed that there are countless criteria to define what Europe is. Consequently, there are various definitions of Europe, approaching the term from different perspectives and dimensions. Therefore, it is not possible to locate a clear, comprehensive and value free definition of Europe that can be shared by all Europeans. The examination of relevant sources indicated that, through European-wide efforts, it has been intended to develop the concept of European identity and European citizenship in order to provide and strengthen co-operation and integration between the countries, nations and cultures of Europe. However, it has been identified that there is no agreement on the components and criteria of European identity and the concept of European citizenship is limited to the nationals of the member states of the EU. Thus, it is difficult to formulate a kind of European identity that can be accepted, absorbed and assimilated by all Europeans. The concept of European citizenship also needs to be developed and opened to people of the continent other than EU nationals.

The ED in education on the other hand, has been identified as an area that can be facilitated to create and strengthen a shared European identity accompanied by the concept of European citizenship. The official documents of the CEO and the EU conceptualised the ED as an approach to education aiming to prepare young generations for the purposes of work, study and leisure in the wider community of Europe and the rest of the world. On the other hand, authors and researchers in the field describe the concept in various ways. The summary of their descriptions can be stated as learning about the opportunities offered by the co-operation and integration of Europe, knowing about others living in Europe and changing our ways of perceiving Europe, Europeans and ourselves accordingly. In other words, the ED in education is to provide assistance for new generations to identify themselves with an evolving shared conception of Europe and to prepare themselves as citizens of this new Europe.

Section two has explored the ED in history teaching and other issues related to it. The ED in history teaching is an approach to history teaching proposing to provide a balance amongst local, regional, national, European and global contexts and political, social, economic and cultural dimensions of history in the curricula of European countries. The concept also stands for developing a sense of European identity and European citizenship by highlighting the value and importance of European heritage and civilisation and eliminating bias and prejudice from history teaching by emphasising the historical unity and diversity of Europe. Developing mutual understandings and tolerance, improving students' capabilities of individual enquiry, critical and reflective thinking and unrestricted expression and building positive attitudes to democratic citizenship and human rights are some other characteristics of the ED in history teaching.

The discussions of the ED in history teaching and the concepts of European identity and European citizenship revealed that history teaching is attributed a role in developing a European identity. However, some authors indicate that utilising history teaching to build a European identity may produce the danger of reaching a supranational or/and nationalistic identity that can also cause exclusion. Besides, the ED in history teaching is given a limited importance in the conception of European citizenship.

The last part of section two discussed the changes in history teaching in Europe in recent decades and its current state. The review of relevant literature demonstrates that the European-wide collaborative work on history teaching stresses three main areas. They are the content and design of the history curricula in European countries, the pedagogy of history teaching and the training of history teachers. Nevertheless, the majority of works have been devoted to the improvement of the curricula content that is dominated by national or nationalistic histories, bias and prejudice. The reason for this is the traditional conception of history, which considers history teaching as an instrument to transmit values and myths in order to preserve the existing status quo. The conceptions of history and history teaching in general and in the context of Turkey will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

DEVELOPMENTS IN HISTORY EDUCATION AND THE STATE OF HISTORY TEACHING IN TURKEY

A potential inclusion of the ED in the Turkish history curriculum discussed in the previous chapter may indicate the requirement of broader changes in the contexts of the curriculum, pedagogy and the education of history teachers. An exploration of the current states of these areas in relation with the conceptions of history and history teaching is considered crucial for identifying the grounds for a potential change that can be brought into agenda with the inclusion of the ED.

This chapter consists of three sections. The first one explores the concept of history teaching, its meaning, functions and development over time. Mainly based on the relevant UK literature, it includes a broad discussion of the purposes attributed to history teaching. The second section discusses the transformation of history teaching in the UK from the early 1970s to the present. The main aim of this section is to review the developments in history teaching in the UK context. This will provide a picture of history teaching from a contemporary European educational context that may help the researcher and reader to compare and contrast with the current state of history teaching in Turkey. The comparison of history curricula and the state of history teaching in these two contexts is considered important for identifying the problems in Turkish context and providing suggestions for their solutions through the empirical study. The last section investigates the place of history teaching in the Turkish school curriculum, the secondary school history curriculum and problems of history teaching in Turkey. It also considers the state of history teacher education in the country.

3.1. History Teaching: its meaning, functions and development

This section starts with a brief discussion of history as a discipline and as a school subject. Drawing on history education literature mostly selected from the UK context, it continues with an examination of the meanings, functions and purposes attributed to history teaching. The place and importance of history teaching in building learners' identities is particularly emphasised. The last part of the section investigates the recent developments in history teaching emphasising the progress in England.

3.1.1. What is history?

History is 'for' human self-knowledge ... Knowing yourself means knowing, first, what it is to be a man; secondly, knowing what it is to be the kind of man you are; and thirdly, knowing what it is to be the kind of man you are and nobody else is. Knowing yourself means knowing what you can do; and since nobody knows what he can do until he tries, the only clue to what man can do is what man has done. The value of history then, is that it teaches us what man has done and thus what man is (Collingwood, 1946: 10).

History is a Greek word meaning 'inquiry' or a 'search for the truth'. As a scientific discipline, history aims to determine the ways of research about the past of human beings (MacIsaac, 1996). According to Tosh (2000) there are two general meanings of history. One is an idea of the past that is imagined as lived events or situations of past times. However, these events or situations have not already been explored and shaped by specialists. This conception can be named as 'the past' rather than history. The other meaning of history is the image of the past that historians try to realise by examining the evidence.

The second meaning explains the function of history as an academic discipline. In general, the content of history consists of behaviours, activities and progressions of human kind within the time. There are countless definitions of history. Slater (1989) describes history as a way of investigating the past, and authenticating statements about it. According to Slater (1995) history is an organised explanatory narrative of the past which is inescapably bound to the evidence. E. H. Carr's (2001) definition of history as a continuous interaction between the historian and her/his cases supports Slater's conception. Tosh (2000) on the other hand, says that history is the collective memory of human beings; by means of those experiences people form their social identities and expectations for the future. Like Tosh, L. Febvre asserts that history is a way of organising the past for the needs of the present. He states:

History is a way of organising the past so that it does not weigh too heavily on the shoulders of men ... History has no choice in the matter, it systematically gathers in, classifies and assembles past facts in accordance with its present needs. It consults death in accordance with the needs of life (cited in Slater, 1995, 107).

Similar to this definition, Von Borries (2002) draws a conceptual picture of history and its functions with the emphasis that what is known as history is a product of today not a full reconstruction of the past.

History is an attempt to orientate one's own life in the experience of changes in time. Therefore, it is a mental construction, relating interpretation of the past, perception of the present and expectation of the future in a complicated manner – it would be better to say: in complicated manners, i.e. different logical forms like "traditionals," "exemplary," "critical" and "genetic" patterns of making sense. History is not due-to-scale reduce model or a photographic document of past realities. It is also a constant public and private debate about

different – partly exclusive – facts, interpretations and conclusions. History is “interpretation of interpretations” or “explanation of explanations.” (Von Borries, 2002: 35)

F. Braudel, in Özbaran (1997) says that there is not one history and one methodology of history; there are many kinds of histories, methodologies and points of view that are similar to those will emerge in the future. Beyond these definitions, there is an agreement about history that the works of historians are limited to the behaviour of human beings throughout time. Although history does not encompass all the past, it is not limited to what people remember about the past. The number of potential subjects is also too excessive for historians to study (Slater, 1995).

Although definitions of history vary, historians neither share nor reject any particular definition or function of history completely. However, each historian’s understanding of history leads to a different interpretation of it. Hence, history in every historian’s conception means something that is different from another one and emphasises a distinct function of the discipline. For example, while one group of historians assert that history is for knowing the human being by examining her/his experience within time (e.g. humanistic interpretation of history or the approach of the Annales School), another group argues that history is for learning about great men, nations and cultures lived in the past and reflecting their experiences on today in order to create an ideal future (e.g. the romantic interpretation of history). It can be argued that many historians, history educators and teachers in Turkey interpret and understand history from the above mentioned romantic perspective. Moreover, the concept of history and its scope and components have been changing and evolving continuously. There has been an increase in the number of history’s subdivisions or departments as well as that of the areas and issues covered by the discipline.

3.1.2. What is history teaching and what is it for?

In a general sense, history teaching can be described as the communication of methods, thinking styles and writing of history. Through history teaching, learners are enabled to know and understand better the human past (Steele, 1976). Lewis (1994) argues that learning history helps pupils understand their past, and grasp the happenings of today and predict what will happen in the future. He argues that history is an unsatisfactory and changeable subject, which is formed from fragments and includes many disagreements in its content; therefore, it is valuable because it reflects the image of human kind accurately (Lewis, 1994). Husbands (1996) also believes that learning

history provides more than having information about what happened in the past and when it happened.

...knowing about the past is never just about knowing 'when things happened'. If pupils cannot begin to explain why they happened, with what consequences and effects, if they cannot explain why some historical periods and events have a significance and resonance for them if, in short, they cannot develop an interpretative framework for their understandings of the past, then knowing about the past is reduced to a sort of quiz game (Husbands, 1996: 133).

According to Lee (1984) it is impossible to run away from the past therefore today's people must search for the best knowledge of it in order to perceive the present situations and conditions of the world in a proper context. Because of this, it is meaningless to ask what the benefit of history or learning history is. Marwick supports this view:

... it is only through a sense of history that communities establish their identity, orientate themselves, understand their relationships to the past and to other communities and societies. Without a knowledge of history we, and our communities, would be utterly adrift on an endless and featureless sea of time (1984: 7).

Slater (1992) also argues that it is difficult to have a sense of context or identity and progress in time without a study of history. Therefore, one aim of history teaching is to help learners to understand the adventure of the world and its progression throughout the time in which their national, local and cultural developments have taken shape (Slater, 1992). To sum up these ideas, it could be said that history teaching enables learners to develop historical and general skills as well as learning about what happened in the past.

Similar to the discipline of history, history teaching is conceptualised in various ways. Particularly, the purpose of teaching history in schools has been a contested area in various educational contexts (Slater, 1989; 1995; Alkan, 1982; Doğan, 1994; Dilek, 1998; Phillips, 1998; 2004; Bage, 2000). Slater expresses this complicated feature of history teaching as:

History is an unsettling and sometimes uncomfortable subject. It is controversial and often very sensitive. There is some consensus about its importance but much less agreement about what it is for (1995: xi).

According to Slater (1995) the arguments on the purpose of history teaching can be categorised into two groups. They are the 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' purposes of history teaching. Intrinsic purposes of history teaching are the ones that arise from the nature of the discipline of history and aim to develop learners' abilities and capacities of historical and critical thinking and related to some specific educational objectives (Husbands *et al*, 2003). On the other hand, extrinsic purposes are concerned with

broader educational objectives and aim to maintain the status quo (Apple, 1979) or to change society in a specific way (Lee, 1992; Slater, 1995).

Various aims and objectives of history teaching can be categorised within the intrinsic purposes of history teaching. Enabling pupils to employ the processes and skills of the historian to evaluate the records of the past as well as introducing pupils to the results of historical inquiry is one of the most important intrinsic purposes of history teaching (Kerr and Wood, 1993; Husbands, 1996). Haydn *et al* (1997) assert this idea as a way to develop historical methodology and the historian's skills to enrich pupils' educational experience, including the discipline of study and its importance for personal development. That is called the 'enquiry method'. This view of history teaching particularly emphasises the teaching of some historical concepts, such as cause and consequence, change and continuity and their usage and explanation (Slater, 1995). By means of these processes, pupils develop the ability to use the processes of history to look critically at cases, situations and ideas in their original context. Through the processes learners can develop their questioning, analysis, interpretation and evaluation skills (Kerr and Wood, 1993). Teachers are therefore, required to help pupils to obtain knowledge, stimulate their interest and curiosity (Lee, 1978) and show how the past explains the present (Steele, 1976).

Educational objectives for history lessons suggested by Coltham and Fines (1971) evaluate intrinsic purposes in a different framework. They classify history's educational objectives under four headings: attitudes towards history, nature of the discipline, skills and abilities and proposed educational outcomes (Coltham and Fines, 1971). Attitudes towards the study of history include three kinds of learner behaviour: attending, responding and imagining. The nature of historical information, organising procedures and their products form the nature of the discipline. According to Coltham and Fines (1971) studying history leads pupils to develop their skills and abilities of vocabulary acquisition, referencing, memorization, comprehension, translation, analysis, extrapolation, synthesis, judgement, evaluation, and communication. Insights into the knowledge of values and reasoned judgement are included in the proposed educational outcomes of the study of history (Coltham and Fines, 1971). Developing proficiency in information and communication technology is accounted as another educational objective for history teaching (DfEE & QCA, 1999).

Grosvenor and Watts (1995) argue that, beside the above objectives, the study of history in schools should involve pupils in the acquisition of knowledge and understanding within a chronological framework, having respect for evidence and the pursuit of historical objectivity and in understanding that there are no monopolies of the truth. Another objective of history teaching is to provide breadth and balance of the content of the subject (NCC, 1993). Steele (1976) and Lee (1992) add that history teaches pupils to think sceptically and critically, and prepares them to face the problems of the contemporary world. Moreover, “*recording the diversity and complexity of human achievement*” within the process of time (Slater, 1995: 132) and developing pupils’ general vision of the world, which is inclusive and appropriate to “*address some universal values such as tolerance, social justice and honesty*” (Phillips, 2004: 47), are other intrinsic purposes of history teaching observed in the relevant literature.

The aims and objectives of history teaching mentioned above are all designated to provide pupils with the knowledge of historical topics, historical awareness or consciousness, familiarity of historical concepts, and having the ability to use all these in their work undertaken in school and in real life. As it will be discussed in the coming parts of this chapter, some of the above aims and objectives of history teaching are mentioned in the existing Turkish history curriculum. Nevertheless, how much these aims and objectives are actually put into practice and to what extent pupils can develop these notions through studying history are matters of question, because there is not any study in the relevant literature examining these issues.

Moreover, there is another perception of history teaching that has been exercised more commonly and controversially in various educational contexts, including the Turkish one. In a general sense this purpose is explained as helping pupils to identity themselves with the past (Watts, 1993; White, 1992). It has been argued that history teaching functions as an agent to socialise learners in this conception (Alkan, 1982; Ferro, 1984; Slater, 1989; Kerr and Wood, 1993; Doğan, 1994; Phillips, 1998). Tosh (2000) asserts that governments and others controlling the power use the past to justify their objectives. According to this view, the political elites think that presenting a version of history which would legitimate their position for mass consumption, might be advantageous for them. Their aim is to fulfil this purpose by emphasising what they accomplished in the past (Tosh, 2000). The function of history teaching in this perception has been criticised by many other authors (Ferro, 1984; Lee, 1992; Crawford, 1998; Phillips, 1998; 2002; 2004), while others state that it is the function of

history to play a part in developing a consciousness of history (which is often a national consciousness), or a national or group identity (Marwick, 1984; White, 1992; Tate, 2004).

Although this notion of history teaching has been observed evidently in various educational contexts (Ferro, 1984; Slater, 1995), academics and teachers in the field approach it from two distinct viewpoints. On the one hand, Partington (1980b) states that the most important aim of teaching history is to inculcate in learners a respect and a reverence for the past of their group, community or nation. From a similar perspective, White (1992) sees the teaching of history as equipping pupils to make life choices based on what they know about things that have gone before. He argues that the central aim of history teaching in schools is to produce rational, autonomous and critical beings within a liberal democratic society. Tate (2004) also supports this view by asserting that history teaching should transmit the best of the culture, which is inherited throughout the time and associated, strengthened and preserved around the majority culture in a liberal society. He argues that history is “*one of the most effective ways of encouraging young people to feel a sense of belonging to and responsibility for the civic society of which they are members*” (Tate, 2004: 35).

On the other hand, Phillips (1998) states that the arguments proposing to develop a national identity through teaching history do not belong to history itself; they are parts of today’s educational politics. According to Phillips (2004: 47) history teaching should propose to “*produce citizens who have a properly informed perception of their own identity, as well as those of others*”. According to him history should also enable learners to become aware of the possibility of multiple identities (Phillips, 2004). Lee (1992) views the reason for teaching history in schools as being to transform pupils. He states that “*The reason for teaching history is not that it changes society, but that it changes pupils; it changes what they see in the world, and how they see it*” (Lee, 1992: 23). History in this point of view, transforms the way in which pupils think and perceive the world and their immediate environments.

These two perspectives on history teaching share the aim that pupils should acquire a critical approach to the past and develop rational powers of thinking. The main area of disagreement is the concern that history may end up distorted if it is designed solely to shed light on the present. Slater (1989) suggests a position somewhere between the two sides of the debate presented above. He states that:

*It (history) not only helps us to understand identity of our communities, cultures, nations by knowing something of their past, but also enables our loyalties to them to be moderated by informed and responsible scepticism. But we cannot expect too much. It cannot guarantee tolerance, though it can give it some intellectual weapons. It cannot keep open closed minds, although it may, sometimes, leave a nagging grain of doubt in them. Historical thinking is **primarily** mind-opening, **not** socialising (Slater, 1989: 16).*

This debate is still a continuous issue and the end of it does not appear to be in sight. The above discussions on the extrinsic purposes of history teaching also indicate that developing a particular version of identity through school history has been an issue in many educational contexts, which has been an issue of debate in European-wide studies/projects on history teaching as discussed in chapter two and evident in the Turkish curriculum that will be discussed in section 3.3 of this chapter (Slater, 1995; Kabapınar, 1998; Sylvester, 1994; van Trigt, 1999; Crawford, 1995; Phillips, 1998; Jenkins and Brickley, 1991; Yeandle, 2003; Stradling, 1993 cited in Low-Beer, 2003). The main functions attributed to school history have been examined by historians and other academics (Hobsbawm, 1997; Tosh, 2000; Apple, 1979; Ferro, 1984; Parekh, 1995). Their common conclusion is that education in general, and history teaching in particular, have been used for social and political purposes, particularly for creating and maintaining a national identity.

Apple (1979) puts forward the view that education has been used as an apparatus by the political elites to serve and to preserve the place and influence of the ‘dominant ideology’ in the society. Parekh (1995) marks this view by stating that education is seen as a tool of ‘nationalist engineering’ by some intellectuals and academics. He argues that for the powerful, the task of education is to “*instil a body of ‘basic’ or ‘national’ values, a shared view of history, a sense of pride in one’s own past, the sentiment of solidarity, and in general to initiate the pupil into the national way of life*” (Parekh, 1995: 125). As Parekh mentions, history and history teaching has been seen as one of the means for establishing or preserving the ‘national identity’ (Copeaux, 1998). History itself is evaluated as a collective memory that includes as the sum of experiments that provide people’s concepts of social identity, and the formation of their expectations about the future (Tosh, 2000). Therefore, popularising a particular version of history teaching has been seen as an advantageous way to unify the members of the nation or society (Copeaux, 1998).

Slater (1995) and Van der Leeuw-Roord (2004b) state that teaching national history to develop a national identity has been one of the principal applications of history teaching throughout Europe. Particularly in Turkey, formal education and specifically history

teaching have been attributed to the role of developing a national identity to create, strengthen and maintain the unification of the nation since the establishment of the republic (Dilek, 1998; Ata, 2002). The aims and objectives of Turkish national education given in chapter one and the purposes of history teaching stated in the Turkish curriculum, as referred to in section 3.3 of this chapter, prove this assertion. Moreover, Dilek (1998) states that the intrinsic purposes of history teaching, discussed earlier, do not receive necessary attention from teachers and academics in some Turkish universities.

The next section briefs the change and developments experienced in the UK context in order to provide a case for the analysis of the Turkish history curriculum and its implementation.

3.2. Change and Developments in History Education: the case of England and Wales

*Learning history is difficult, and does not take place in a flash at 18 or at 25. It is a gradual process of developing ideas, in which pupils need a great deal of help. A substantial part of what is learned has to be **knowing-how**, not just **knowing-that**.¹ Some of what children have to learn is not in itself historical knowledge at all, but provides both crutches and tools for assisting them to acquire that knowledge (Lee, 1994: 47).*

This subsection draws a brief picture of recent research and developments observed in the UK context, particularly in England and Wales in order to compare it with the European and Turkish contexts. History teaching in England and Wales had a turning point around the early 1970s (Sylvester, 1994; Phillips, 2000; Husbands *et al*, 2003).

Before the seventies, history was an established but not a compulsory subject in UK schools. Decisions on the status of the course and the selection of its content were left to schools, departments and teachers (Sylvester, 1994). However, Phillips (2000) asserts that as a convention or the continuation of the tradition the content of history was always selected from British history since it was appropriate to the dynamics of existing British social order. Sylvester (1994) calls this understanding of history teaching the ‘great tradition’, whilst Slater (1989) evaluates it as ‘inherited consensus’. Slater (1989) summarises the main characteristics of the traditional history teaching in the UK as:

Content was largely British, or rather Southern English; Celts looked into starve, emigrate or rebel; the North to invent looms or work in mills; abroad was of interest once it was part of the Empire; foreigners were either sensibly, allies, or rightly, defeated. Skills – did we even use the

¹ Authors’ emphases

word? – were mainly those of recalling accepted facts about famous dead Englishmen, and communicated in a very eccentric literary form, the examination length essay. It was inherited consensus, based on largely hidden assumptions (Slater, 1989: 1).

As Slater's comments indicate, the main features of history teaching in the UK became clichés and started to be unpopular amongst learners. Hence, it caused concerns amongst the professionals (Price, 1968; Booth, 1969; Phillips, 2000). As a consequence, new projects to improve the state of history teaching were initiated from the beginning of the 1970s. The Schools' Council 11-16 History Project (SCHP)² was one, particularly concerned with history in secondary schools and based on some assumptions (Shemilt, 1980). The assumptions were, firstly, history teachers believed that there was too much content in the curriculum to teach. Secondly, studying history was not regarded as helpful for pupils to develop the necessary cognitive skills, because it was mostly based on rote learning and memorisation, which caused pupils to believe that "*all historical data to originate within some text-book or other*" (Shemilt, 1980: 3). Hence, it was thought that pupils needed to be introduced to the raw material of history and 'the nature of historical enquiry'. Thirdly, it was assumed that in order to comprehend historical enquiry, pupils needed to learn about certain key concepts, such as 'change', 'development', 'cause and effect' and "*various approaches to History-the line of development, the depth study, contemporary history and local history*" (Shemilt, 1980: 4). As will be discussed in the forthcoming section history teaching in Turkey has similar problems even today.

The SCHP changed the focus of history from transmission of the cultural capital to the structure of the discipline by putting emphasis on the intrinsic purposes of history teaching, meeting the needs of pupils and developing their skills (Husbands *et al*, 2003). Slater indicates that:

...the project aimed to give teachers a rationale for selecting content, make evidence central to history teaching, review some of the new approaches to its teaching and help teachers to arrive at reasons for their belief in the value of history as a school subject (1995: 113).

This approach to history teaching has aroused interest and appreciation from the professionals and is called 'new history'. It has guided teachers to change history lessons from textbook-dominated knowledge acquisition processes to developing pupils' cognitive capacities through the use of various kinds of teaching strategies and resources in the classroom (Shemilt, 1980; Sylvester, 1994; Slater, 1995; Farmer and Knight, 1995). Phillips (2000) stated it that the new history stresses the promotion of

² It was later called Schools' History Project (SHP)

conceptual understanding and historical skills as well as historical knowledge and chronology.

The findings obtained from SCHP 13-16 study suggest something different from the traditional history courses; students of new history courses considered history more difficult than mathematics (Shemilt, 1980). They also indicate that school history has the potential to change students' conception of what history is (Shemilt, 1980).

Moreover, the new history broadened the content of school history by indicating the importance of the history of ordinary people other than that of the 'great men' or 'politics', and the need for contemporary history (Sylvester, 1994). Furthermore, this new approach enhanced teacher autonomy (Phillips, 2000). Most importantly, the SCHP and consequently the new history disprove the well-known Piagetian assumption that history demands levels of formal operational thinking, which cannot be achieved by most pupils below the age of sixteen (Booth, 1987). Through the influence of Bruner's work, the new history shows that pupils' understanding of history, its methods and concepts can be enhanced through the use of appropriate teaching strategies and resources (Booth, 1987; Lee, 1998; Sylvester, 1994).

Along with the new history, other developments took place in the discipline of history, such as women's history, black history or local history, and the introduction of new GCSE syllabuses had a big impact on changing the way that history was being taught in British schools (Sylvester, 1994). However, they all attracted criticism. For instance, Williams criticises that the new history decreases the place of chronology in history teaching "...reports [on SCHP] have commented on a similar absence of chronological sense which seems to indicate that ... traditional history may be doing better than the project" (1986: 9).

Another critique of the new history was on its approach of historical content. As Slater (1995: 116) states the SCHP and the new history was "*criticised for not offering a framework of knowledge of British and European history and the framework appeared incoherent*". This aspect of new history, which was seen as its main difference from traditional history, stimulated further debates between skills and content particularly before the introduction of the new National Curriculum History (Phillips, 1998; 2000; Counsell, 2000). Farmer and Knight report this as:

By the 1980s the history teaching fraternity was split. Some favoured a skill/concepts-based approach – although there was some debate about which precise skills and concepts. Others supported a content-based approach, stressing that skills were simply a means to an end (1995: 8).

Phillips (1996, 1998, 2000) discusses the debates that went on between different educational and political groups about the skill-content dichotomy during the preparation of the new History National Curriculum. As his work demonstrates, the opponents of the new history argued that skills and methodology of history had taken priority over historical content which caused new generations to grow up historically illiterate (Phillips, 2002). They also believed that it is impossible for pupils to understand history in the way that historians understand it, or to use historical skills, such as empathy. According to Phillips (2002) the opponents' strongest criticism was that the place and importance of British history was decreased as a result of the new approaches. Phillips (1998; 2002) indicates that with an appropriate socio-political situation, conservative educators and politicians could influence the processes of the preparation of the History National Curriculum, which introduced the extrinsic purposes of history teaching. The final report of the National Curriculum History Working Group (NCHWG) clearly displays that:

The study of history should equip young people to benefit from, rights and exercise the responsibilities, of citizens in a representative democracy... History is a vital element within the curriculum for the education of all citizens... the history of Parliament lies at the centre of British history, providing both an institutional framework and introduction to the principle of government by consent... history should teach the basic terminology of politics, the skills required for political understanding, the ability to look at politics from different angles and to recognise a political issue (DES, 1990a: 184-185).

According to Sylvester (1994: 21) the main aim of history teaching stated in the initial version of the National Curriculum History is “to help pupils develop a sense of identity through learning about the history of Britain, Europe and world” representing the view of what he calls ‘the great tradition’. Moreover, focusing on the point of developing a sense of identity, precisely a British national identity, Kearney (1994) and Phillips *et al* (1999) indicate that it is an issue in the UK context because of the complexity of the relationships between the identities of the four constitutional parts of the UK and the believed overall British identity. However, developing a national identity through history teaching was not the only feature of the NCHWG’s final report. It also placed stress on the nature of historical knowledge with its three important features being ‘information, understanding and content’, historical methodology and the possibility of various interpretations of history.

The study of history must be grounded in a thorough knowledge of the past; must employ rigorous historical method – the way in which historians carry out their task; and must involve a range of interpretations and explanations. Together, these elements make an organic whole; if any one of them is missing the outcome is not history (DES, 1990b: par. 1.3).

As a result of its characteristics addressing both content and skills, the introduction and implementation of the initial History National Curriculum received support as well as criticism from teachers and other educational and political pressure groups (Phillips, 1998; 2000). Teachers supported the way that the final report introduced the aims and objectives of history teaching and its emphasis on skills and methods. However, they criticised the fact that the level of content prescription was too high (Phillips, 1998). On the other hand, conservative politicians, and groups connected to them, stated that NCHWG's final report "*had placed too much emphasis upon interpretation and not enough upon British history and the assessment of historical knowledge*" (Thatcher, 1993: 78 cited in Phillips, 2000: 16). As a result of the above reactions, the History National Curriculum was amended twice, in 1991 and again in 1993-94. The first amendment put stress on historical knowledge and British history, whilst the second one decreased the amount of content knowledge (Phillips, 1998).

The History National Curriculum was reviewed once more in 2000 and its extent was reduced again. Nevertheless, analysing all versions of the National Curriculum, Phillips (2002: 22) asserts that "*it still largely follows the model originally proposed by the HWG in 1990*". According to Phillips (2002: 22) the main features of the history curriculum are "*chronological understanding; knowledge and understanding of events, people and changes in the past; historical interpretation; historical inquiry; and organisation and communication*". Another important characteristic of it is the combination of British (with a special emphasis on Welsh history in Wales), European and world history in a coherent scope (Phillips, 2002).

Besides, there have also been important developments in history education research. Husbands *et al* (2003) classifies the research on history teaching into three main categories: research on the purposes of history teaching that is discussed earlier in this chapter, studies on children's understanding of history and research on teaching history (Husbands *et al*, 2003). According to Lee (1998) the main feature of history education research in the UK is that it has been closely related to, and partly driven by the problems and opportunities encountered in schools, because most of the researchers have been involved in teaching or have moved into academia from school teaching.

Research on children's and adolescents' thinking and understanding of history is related to educational psychology and constitutes the largest portion of history education research in the UK. As Husbands *et al* (2003) indicate, before the 1970s, studies in this

area were mainly dominated by Piaget's theory of children's cognitive development (Husbands *et al*, 2003). However, starting from the late seventies research on pupils' understanding of history started to develop in a progressive way. Among the others, the works of Booth, Shemilt and Dickinson, Lee and Ashby have been influential on developments in history teaching.

Researching the use of historical evidence and methodology in history teaching Shemilt (1987) reports that pupils' understanding of history can be viewed in four stages. In the first stage, pupils accept historical knowledge as constant fact. In the second stage, they recognise the importance of evidence in constructing historical accounts and the nature of historical truth, which is always open to discussion. Pupils begin to distinguish the difference between evidence and information in the third stage, and realise the crucial role of evidence in historical understanding of the past in its context. In the final and fourth stage, they can be "*aware of the historicity of evidence*" (Shemilt, 1987: 56) and therefore, the possibility of a variety of historical interpretations based on the same evidence that can change with the inclusion of new evidences and adaptation of new methodological perspectives (Shemilt, 1987).

Booth's (1987) research focuses on the way in which pupils think and its impact on developing appropriate teaching strategies. He explores how pupils can handle historical evidence and think historically. Booth's (1987: 32) findings pointed out that "*pupils of a wide range of abilities and ages can engage in proper history; teaching for particular skills and understanding can and does make a difference*". According to Lee (1998) Shemilt's and Booth's work has encouraged history teachers to reflect on their practice and at the same time provided opportunities to challenge the previously established Piagetian assumptions on children's cognitive developments and learning history.

On the other hand, the works of Dickinson, Lee and Ashby have focused on children's progression in their understanding of history and their ideas about historical concepts, such as empathy, time and chronology, change and continuity, cause and consequence, and significance (Ashby *et al*, 1996; Dickinson and Lee, 1994, Lee *et al*, 1997; Lee and Ashby, 1987; 2001). Their studies highlighted that pupils can develop noteworthy ideas about the representations of the past from an early age (Lee and Ashby, 1987; 2001). They also indicate that the understanding of history and historical concepts and progression between the stages of historical understanding established by Shemilt (1987) may vary from child to child (Ashby *et al*, 1996).

Husband *et al*'s third category, research on teaching involves an alternative tradition of enquiry in the field of history education. It looks at how teachers conceptualise history and history teaching and how they transform their own knowledge of history into a form accessible to learners (Husband *et al*, 2003). This kind of history education research deals with the improvement of the efficiency of classroom practice through the active involvement of history teachers. Taking this standpoint, Husband *et al*'s (2003: 138) own research concludes that history teachers in the UK are "*upbeat about their classroom experience and their work in lessons*"; their main concern is the future of history in the curriculum.

Reflecting upon research and practice, Counsell (2004) asserts that there are five features of an effective history lesson. They are: (i) the structured process of enquiry and its presentation; (ii) the active learning process in which pupils talk, share their ideas and clarify their understanding; (iii) the steady construction of knowledge by giving pupils a sense of context and period; (iv) presenting the lesson in the shape of a puzzle that can keep pupils' interest alive from start to end; and (v) making the tasks demanding that urge pupils to think about their claims about the past (Counsell, 2004). Counsell (2004) states that the attempts to renew and improve history education have caused some problems. However, the subsequent studies done by scholars and teachers have also indicated ways of solving them. Table 3.1 summarises them.

Apart from the above encountered problems and suggestions for addressing them and renewing teaching practice, studies in history education in the UK have recently been focused on some other issues (Counsell, 2004). These issues are: improving pupils' capacities of historical writing (Counsell, 1997); making them aware of various interpretations of history (McAleavy, 2000); and helping pupils to learn and reflect upon historical significance (Hunt, 2000). Moreover, planning teachers' own curricula in which they arrange what to teach and how to teach in an hour and/or in a year also appeared to be problematical (Counsell, 2004). Good practice developed by teachers, such as Banham (2000), has established that it is possible to provide balance between studying a topic in depth and covering the broader area around that topic. According to Counsell (2000; 2004) knowledge acquisition and reflective thinking lie inside one another. They cannot be separated. There is "*interplay between new knowledge and old knowledge, between thinking and communicating*" (Counsell, 2004: 5). History teachers and scholars in the UK have also been engaged in improving the practice of using historical sources and a variety of teaching methods and strategies in the classroom,

such as role play, practical demonstration, active learning, games and so on (Counsell, 2004). Moreover, there is another category of research focused on the education of history teachers (Haydn *et al*, 1997; Husbands and Pendry, 2000; Phillips, 2002).

Table 3.1. Recent problems encountered and some ways to overcome taken from Counsell (2004: 9)

Problems encountered	Suggestions to overcome problems and to renew practice
<i>Pupils' lack of broad knowledge</i>	<i>a new emphasis upon building new knowledge, and techniques for doing so in new ways</i>
<i>Formulaic, short answers especially in work with sources and work designed to build evidential 'skills'.</i>	<i>'enquiries' concluding with substantial, interesting activities that place sources and evidential work in context</i>
<i>Learning process is very boring, too technical</i>	<i>exciting, motivating learning journeys</i>
<i>Progression problems: the search for 'false gods' of progression that will show us the 'ideal' learning path.</i>	<i>history teachers constantly asking (and theorising for themselves): what does 'getting better' at history mean? Creating their own goals, their own models of improvement and their own learning paths for pupils – models and paths that integrate concept, knowledge and skill.</i>

The discussions in this section demonstrate that history education in the UK has constantly been evolving and improving over three decades. Although there were many obstacles and constraints, professionals' belief, enthusiasm and hard work for the change and improvement have resulted in success (Husbands *et al*, 2003; Counsell, 2004) and have formed a good example for other countries like Turkey, which encounter similar problems. Most importantly, as Counsell (2004: 12) asserts, developments in the UK have proved that “*good and strong traditions need constant examination and constant renewal, preferably by those at the point of delivery in the classroom. Policy must emerge from a scholarship of practice*”.

3.3. History Teaching and the History Curriculum in Turkey

It was discussed in chapter one that, established on the remnants of the multi-national and multi-faith Ottoman Empire, the new Turkish republic proposed to build a national society. Thus, Turkish education was built on some principles that could serve to form a national identity, national awareness; and promote citizenship and patriotism (Behar, 1996; Dilek, 1998; Copeaux, 1998; Kaplan, 1999). History lessons in this context were given the main role of providing pupils a sense of national identity by the main educational approaches. In other words history lessons have been used as a tool for nation building in Turkey (Millas, 1997; Dilek, 1998). As it was discussed in section

3.2, the same issue was observed in the UK context before the coming out of the New History approach. History was written according to the new regime's ideology in the 1930s. The perspective of history teaching called Turkist History Thesis (THT) and was taught in schools for several decades as the official and valid version of history within the structure of a centralised education system and consequently in a centrally defined school curriculum (Behar, 1996).

The THT was based on the argument that Turks had contributed to the development of civilisation long before they arrived in Anatolia in the 11th Century. They had a highly developed civilisation in Central Asia. This civilisation was spread out all over the world by those of Turkish origin, who were forced to emigrate from central Asia to many parts of the world as a result of a drastic climate change (Behar, 1996). According to THT the immigrants brought their high culture with them and created many civilisations of Antiquity, such as those of Sumer, Hittite, Egypt and so on. The thesis inferred that as a highly civilised nation, the Turks created many civilisations of the Ancient world (Copeaux, 1998). The main objective of this thesis was to establish that Anatolia has been a Turkish homeland for thousands of years and many civilisations of the Ancient world had been created by the Turks. Therefore, the Turks played an important role in the creation of modern civilisation (Copeaux, 1998).

The THT had a big impact on the definition of the aims and objectives of history teaching and the content of the history curriculum from the early 1930s to the early 1970s with the intention of developing a national identity amongst the new generations (Copeaux, 1998). The results of 'the Youth and History' Project demonstrated that the THT still had influence on the general understanding of history and the perspective of history teaching in Turkey (Tekeli, 1998).

Another movement influenced Turkish history teaching from the late 1940s to the late 1970s, which is called the Humanist movement (Yuvalı, 1987). Taking European countries as a model, this movement stressed the importance of ancient Greek and Roman civilisations. Its aim was to establish a humanistic approach to culture through teaching the themes and periods of history that can be described as the products of human intellect (Copeaux, 1998). Therefore, the place and importance given to ancient Greek, Roman and other Anatolian civilisations in history syllabuses and textbooks were apparent during that period (Yuvalı, 1987). In practice however, the traces of THT

were still apparent in history syllabuses and textbooks during the time of the Humanistic movement (Behar, 1996; Copeaux, 1998).

From the early 1970s a third perspective of Turkish history started to be influential on the school history curriculum. This new perspective was called the Synthesis of Turk-Islam (STI) and mainly stressed the cultural essence of the Turkish nation. The STI regarded national culture as the main unifying element of the Turkish nation that needed to be transformed to new generations in order to maintain the nation's existence. In this perspective, national culture is formed from the old Turkish tradition and the Islamic religion (Tekeli, 1998; Copeaux, 1998). The STI emphasises that Turkish and Islamic History are closely tied to one another (Yuvalı, 1987). Therefore, it is only worth teaching pupils the historical periods and regions in which Turks and the religion of Islam met (Copeaux, 1998). This view also includes some secular and westernised ideas taken from the ideology of Atatürkçülük to legitimate itself in the socio-political context of Turkey (Özbaran, 1997; Copeaux, 1998). The impact of this perspective on the Turkish history curriculum reached its peak in the 1980s, after being given legitimacy by the leaders of the 1980 Military Coup (Tekeli, 1998). As an example of the influence of the STI on history teaching, it is worth mentioning that social sciences courses, consisting of topics selected from History and Geography, in the upper primary school level, were changed to 'National History and 'National Geography' courses in 1984 (Tekeli, 1998). Earlier than that 'The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük' course was put into force as compulsory for all upper primary, secondary and higher education students in the country (MONE, 1981).

However, critiques on the STI started to increase with the beginning of the 1990s, which led to alterations to the history curriculum in 1992. Nevertheless, the alterations made on the curriculum did not meet the expectations of pupils, teachers, parents and other stakeholders (Özbaran, 1998). Only some parts of the curriculum content were changed and the weight of history in the overall secondary school curricula was increased by bringing forth some optional history courses. This version of the history curriculum is still in force in Turkey. It puts forward the aims of history teaching that are compatible with the general objectives of the TES.

- *To teach pupils the importance of the Turkish nation in world history and their contribution to universal culture and civilisation and to enhance pupils' national feelings;*
- *To teach pupils the main characteristics and features of the Turkish nation, such as their intelligence and skills, diligence and their interest in science and art;*
- *To teach about the major events in history and compare them to present events;*

- To teach Atatürk's and other great Turkish men's contribution to humanity (MONE, 1983);
- To teach pupils about the main distinguishing characteristics of the Turkish nation in world history. Thus, they will understand the crucial importance of national identity in the survival of their nation and their duty and responsibilities in respect of their nation and country (MONE, 1983; MONE, 1998a);
- To satisfy pupils' curiosity about their cultural environment;
- To develop pupils' questioning, critical thinking abilities and the basic historical concepts, such as relativity, time and chronology, change and continuity;
- To develop pupils' sense of empathy and teaching them some methods of inquiry to learn more about the world (MONE, 1998a).

History is one of the compulsory subjects in Turkish primary and secondary school curricula. However, since 1998 it has been taught as part of social sciences (social studies) courses at primary level with the topics of Geography, except in year eight where a special history course, The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük, is introduced. As Table 3.1 demonstrates, the same course is introduced in the last year of secondary education.

Table 3.2. History in Turkish school curriculum

Level	Year	Status	Course name
Primary	4, 5, 6, 7	compulsory	Social Sciences (combination of History and Geography)
	8	compulsory	The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük
Secondary	9	compulsory	History
	10	compulsory*	History
	10	optional	History of Islam
	10	optional	General Turkish History
	11	compulsory	The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük
	11	optional	Ottoman History
Higher	1	compulsory	The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük

*In year ten History is not compulsory in technical and vocational schools

In years nine and ten of secondary education, all students have to take history courses in each year. Only students in technical and vocational schools are exempted from history courses in year ten. According to the curriculum however, technical and vocational school students are supposed to learn the content of year nine and year ten history programs within year nine alone.

3.3.1. The secondary school history curriculum

The history curriculum contains the topics (content) and attainment targets given in detail for each weekly lesson. It also includes detailed explanations and instructions on pedagogical aspects (MONE, 1998a; 1998b and 1998c). The content of the secondary school history curriculum is given in the Tables 3.2, and 3.3 below.

'The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük' is introduced as a special history course in the last year (year 11) of secondary schooling. Its content

includes the history of Turkey from 1914 to 1938 with special references to Atatürk, his life, his role and importance in Turkish contemporary history. The main topics in this course are the First World War, the Turkish Independence War and the foundation of the new Turkish Republic, revolutions and reforms and Turkish foreign policies in the 1930s (MONE, 1998c). This course has got its special separate aims and objectives that were deliberately designed to include the ideology of Atatürkçülük amongst the younger generations. This course is taught to pupils in all stages of their formal education including higher education.

Table 3.3. The content of the year-nine History curriculum (MONE, 1998a)

Topic	Share in the year 10 Curriculum	Definition of the Content
Introduction to History	6%	Definitions of History and methods of historical research, and the relation of history to other disciplines
Turkey and Its Environment in Ancient Times	9%	The remnants of Ancient History in Turkey, history of Turkey from 2000 BC to 11 th Century AC including Persian, Greek (Alexander), Roman and Byzantine Empires, and the cultures and civilisations around Turkey in Ancient Times. All these topics include governance systems, religion, social and economic structure, scripts, language and literature, science and arts.
The Emergence of Turks in the Historical Scene	17%	The emergence of Turks in History, Their migration from Central Asia to other parts of the world including the Great Migration and European Huns. History of Huns, Iskits, Göktürks Uighurs, and other Turkish states and societies.
Islamic History and Civilisation	12%	The Birth of Islam and the expansion of Islamic State and civilisation in the main theme. The life of Prophet Mohammed and the influence of Islam on other cultures also emphasised.
Turkish World-I	15%	The conversion of Turks into the religion of Islam and their contribution to Islamic civilisation. The histories of first Muslim Turkish states including, Gaznavids, The Great Seljuk Empire and Mamluks are also introduced.
Turkish World-II	18%	The Mongolian invasion of the Middle East, the Divisions of Genghis Khan's State, Tamerlane and his impact on Turkey's geography. The History of North of Black Sea from 12 th to 15 th centuries. Developments in Turkistan, India and Iran in the same period.
History of Turkey	23%	The Turkish settlement in Anatolia starting from Malazgirt War in 1071. Turkish states in Anatolia including Anatolian Seljuks and the social, cultural and economic life from 11 th to 14 th centuries.

In order to prepare them efficiently for the nation-wide university entrance exams, students of general secondary schools are divided into departments within their schools according to their exam results and choices after year nine. The departments are Mathematic, Sciences, Social Sciences and Foreign Languages. Students of Social

Sciences departments are expected to take some more history courses in addition to the compulsory ones above. Although, the optional courses of General Turkish History, The Islamic History and The Ottoman History are all optional in theory, they are taught as compulsory in almost all social sciences departments. The interesting issue about these optional courses is their content. Almost all the content of these courses is also introduced as parts of compulsory year nine and year ten history courses.

Table 3.4. The content of year-ten History curriculum (MONE, 1998b)

Topic	Share in the year 10 Curriculum	Definition of the Content
Ottoman Political History I	12%	The roots of Ottoman Turks, their relations with local societies in Anatolia, the Establishment of Ottoman State and its expansion from early 1400s to 1600s, the main topic are the wars, military developments and political relations including the conquer of Istanbul, providing unity in Anatolia and the time of Suleiman the Magnificent.
European History I	5%	European History between 1300 and 1600 including the disintegration of Feudalism and Rise of Monarchy, the European expansion and geographical discoveries, the Renaissance and the Reformation
Ottoman Political History II	12%	The start of domestic problems and riots in Ottoman Empire, Foreign policy of Ottomans from 1600 to 20 th Century, Reforms in 18 th and 19 th centuries and the way through the collapse of Ottoman Empire.
European History II	5%	European History from 1600 to 1918. the main themes are European Monarchies, the Enlightenment, the French Revolution, the foundation of the USA, the Industrial Revolution and colonialism
The Structure of Ottoman Government	18%	Ottoman governing bodies, the palace and central government, local governing bodies, Foundation system and changes in governmental structure within the time are the main issues covered.
The Ottoman Society	12%	The government's classification of the social structure, the governors and the commons, daily life in Ottoman times, changes in social structure and social life.
The Ottoman Economy	12%	Ottoman economical understanding, production, trade and consumption, the administration of economy and changes in economy are the main issues placed in this topic.
Culture and Arts in Ottoman Empire	12%	In this topic religion, culture, science, technology, architecture, fine arts, literature, sports and entertainment in Ottoman periods and their changes are introduced.
Education and Training in Ottoman Empire	12%	The education and training in Ottoman Empire, their content, method and classification, and changes in education and training are the main themes covered.

3.3.2. Problems associated with history teaching in Turkey

The TES and educational policies of the governments have been criticised for both philosophical and practical reasons. The critics have not only raised the issues of ideological perspectives dominating Turkish education but also argued that educational practices have been far from succeeding in most of the general and specific objectives (Üçyiğit, 1977; Tunçay, 1977; Kabapınar, 1998; Dilek, 1999; Demircioğlu, 1999; (Özbaran, 1998; Kaya *et al*, 2001; Silier, 2003). In particular, the problems of history teaching have been debated amongst educationalist and mostly historians for over thirty years in Turkey. The first attempt to discuss the situation of history teaching in the country was a seminar on Turkish Historiography organised by the Philosophical Association in 1975. One of the main themes of the seminar focused on the situation of history teaching in Turkish primary and secondary schools. The second collective attempt to discuss the state of history teaching was put into practice in 1994 by the History foundation as a conference (Özbaran, 1998). In between these two events there were a limited number of studies and discussions about history teaching in Turkey. However, discussions and interest in history teaching started to increase after 1994, both at an academic and public level, which are mostly driven and organised by the History Foundation (Özbaran, 1998; Berktaş and Tuncer, 1998; Kaya *et al*, 2001; Tarih Vakfı, 2002; Silier, 2003).

3.3.2.1. Problems related to the content of the history curriculum

Scrutinising Turkish literature on history teaching reveals that most of the works have been devoted to the content of history textbooks. There are a few studies on teaching practice mostly focusing on the proceedings of history lessons. At this point it is necessary to make clear that the thread of work dealing with the content of the history textbooks discusses the content of history curriculum at the same time. In Turkish contexts, textbooks have been used not only as the sole reference of history teaching, but also as a simplified version of the curriculum (Kabapınar, 1992; 1998).

Although textbooks have lost their importance in the teaching of some subjects, they still have some functions in the teaching of history and social sciences (Slater, 1995). In the structure of the centralised TES, textbooks have a special place and importance in educational practice, particularly in the teaching of social subjects. Kabapınar (1992) argues that history textbooks are seen as a political and ideological battleground in Turkey. Because of the central control and such external attempts, a textbook that may

be sold for primary or secondary school pupils must be written in respect of the criteria stated in the curriculum. Besides, it must obtain approval from the Committee on Education and Instruction (CEI), a Branch of the MONE (Kaplan, 1999; Ertürk, 1998). As a result, history textbook writers, who want to sell their books, always have to consider both the general objectives of Turkish education and the aims of the history curriculum (Tunçay, 1998). In this study therefore, works dealing with the content of history textbooks are categorised with those discussing the history curriculum.

According to the relevant Turkish literature, the main problems of history teaching are nationalistic and ethnocentric approaches, detailed and extensive content knowledge, lack of balance amongst various dimensions of history and the censorship against contemporary history. Firstly, some argued that the Turkish History Curriculum possesses a nationalistic and ethnocentric approach (Behar, 1996; Copeaux, 1998; Millas, 1997). According to Slater:

‘National’ history studies and evaluates the evidence of a nation’s past. ‘Nationalistic’ history, often concerned with political and diplomatic achievements and military victories, is essentially celebratory. The former can be concerned with examining values; the latter is almost inevitably concerned with transmitting them. Nationalistic history is to do less with examining cause than with attributing blame, conferring approval and demanding loyalty (1995: 33)

Although, as in the above quotation, there is a difference between national and nationalistic history, the Turkish curriculum has been criticised as aiming to inculcate particular political or ideological perspectives (Dinç, 2001). Besides, some authors assert that the content of the curriculum introduces a nationalistic version of history (Özbaran, 1997b; Aydın, 2001; Tekeli, 1998). Kabapınar (1998) argues that the design and features of textbooks lead to the same conclusion that the curriculum puts forward a nationalistic version of history. He explains that every textbook starts with a Turkish flag, a portrait of Atatürk and the national anthem and ends with the display of two maps, one showing Turkey’s political structure and the other demonstrating the Turkish world (Turkey, the Central Asian Turkish origin states and other areas where Turks live) in addition to their actual content.

Tekeli (1998) asserted that the nationalistic version of history presented in the curriculum influences the aims and objectives of teaching history in schools. He claims that nationalistic history views history teaching as the way of passing on social and ideological values by recounting the story of the past (Tekeli, 1998). Özbaran (2003) supports his perspective by stating that nationalistic history mostly relies on transmitting chronology based historical information and is dominated by dogmas and stereotypes.

Moreover, Copeaux (1998)) critiqued the curriculum for being ethnocentric. Behar (1992) shares Copeaux's claim by indicating that the Turkish history curriculum mainly presents Turkish history; and approaches the other cultures, societies, nations, and countries from a Turkish centred approach. Üçyiğit (1977) and Tunçay (1977) evaluate this issue on the basis of history textbooks. They both report that Turkish history textbooks overstate the contribution of Turks in world history by introducing a lot of dogmatic and exaggerated information in favour of the Turkish nation. Aydın (2001) also wrote that this approach to history teaching brings about the perception of history as a fiction and thus it does not help school pupils to consider history as a scientific discipline.

Secondly, some writers stated that the Turkish curriculum concentrates on Turkish national history alone, which does not give pupils the chance to study local history, European history and world history in some depth. Kabapınar (1998) states that more than ninety percent of the curriculum content is allocated to Turkish history. It is also identified that Turkish history is used as a broad framework within the curriculum, defining the role and place of other historical dimensions. For instance, Ottoman history is not presented as a part of European or world history. Instead European history is introduced in connection to Ottoman history in order to make the context, in which Ottoman history occurred, clear and understandable (Kaya *et al*, 2001).

Thirdly, the literature indicates that the main focus of the Turkish curriculum is political history. Kabapınar (1998) and Üçyiğit (1977) assert that political history dominates the content of history textbooks and there is limited space in textbooks allocated to the social, cultural and economical dimensions of history. Yetkin's (1998) examination of history textbooks concludes that the political history in the Turkish context mostly emphasises diplomatic and military events. The amendments made to the history curriculum in the early 1990s changed this situation. However, they did not affect the content of the whole history curriculum. These changes only influenced the presentation of Ottoman history topics. As Table 1.3 demonstrates, the proportion of social, cultural and economical dimensions of Ottoman history in the year ten programme is more than the total of all other topics (MONE, 1998b). Nevertheless, their presentation in the curriculum and textbooks does not have any coherence because all those dimensions are introduced as separate study units. There is neither a connection between those study units nor an attempt to compare and contrast those dimensions of Ottoman history to the history of other nations or countries (Tekeli, 1998; Kaya *et al*, 2001).

Fourthly, studies of Turkish history teaching clarified that the curriculum is very selective in choosing the content from various periods of history. While Yıldırım (1998) points out that the place of prehistory and Ancient times in the Turkish curriculum is very limited, Arıkan (1998) indicates that Ottoman History is given too much space in the curriculum and textbooks, particularly the periods from the fourteenth to sixteenth centuries. Some authors underline the lack of contemporary history in the curriculum (Arslan, 1998a; 1998b; Dilek, 1999; Kabapınar, 1998; Silier, 2003; Orhonlu, 1998). The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük course introduced in year eleven, starts from the beginning of the First World War and ends with a brief introduction of the Second World War. The periods of history after the Second World War are not included in the curriculum. Therefore, despite being keen to study, pupils may not have any chance to learn contemporary history through their secondary education in the Turkish, European or world context (Tekeli, 1998).

Fifthly, some authors recognise that the Turkish curriculum introduces extensive and detailed historical content knowledge (Kabapınar, 1998; Özbaran, 1998). Kabapınar's study of history textbooks (1998) reports that the details include mostly names of states, places, people, wars, conquests and treaties, and dates of significant events. It was argued by some academics and teachers that those details do not help pupils to acquire more historical knowledge (Dilek, 1999; Kabapınar, 1998). On the contrary, they make teachers rush in the classroom in order to finish the entire curriculum content; and cause pupils to get lost amongst a lot of names, events, concepts and dates.

Sixthly, in some subjects, study topics are reintroduced several times throughout various stages of schooling in the TES. The main differences between these stages are the extent and details of the information being introduced (Aktekin, 2004). For example, some general information about Ottoman history is taught in lower primary schools. The topic is introduced in a broader frame in upper primary level and is taught as the main part of the year ten curriculum as well as a separate optional course in secondary years.

Previously, this situation was defended by the statement that since some students leave schooling after their lower primary education, it is necessary to give them some historical information and a sense of history. However, as Kabapınar (2002) puts it, this is not the case anymore because completing upper primary education is compulsory for all pupils since 1998. It is also asserted that repetition of history topics will enable pupils to understand history better. In practice however, this occurs as some pupils get confused because of different styles and perspectives of textbook writers and teachers

(Tunçay, 1998). Moreover, the existence of the '*The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük*' course, which is a compulsory subject in primary, secondary and higher education levels, is another peculiar characteristic of Turkish education (Dinç, 2001).

It can be seen that some of the problems evident in today's Turkish history teaching were also encountered many European countries discussed in chapter two and in England and Wales in the recent past. For example, the excessive load of the curriculum content encouraging rote learning and memorisation, which is discussed in section 3.2 of this chapter, is the problem seen in all contexts. Besides, the influence of politic and political thoughts on the shaping of the aims and objectives of history teaching has been a phenomenon in European, the UK and Turkish contexts. This implies that the developments experienced in the UK and other European contexts may set an example for changing history curriculum and history teaching in Turkish schools.

Apart from the general problems discussed above, the introduction of European history in the secondary school curriculum forms another issue that can be considered an important current problem while Turkey's integration to the EU is on top of the political, economical and social agendas. European history in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum is only presented as a part of the year ten program, which takes up only ten percent of the overall content introduced in the whole year. European countries and nations are also mentioned if they have contact or relationships with Turks, or if they have any impact on Turkish history. Apart from the topics of European History given in Table 3.4 another topic related to Europe is the First World War. It is introduced as a part of the Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Atatürkçülük course but only the story of Turks from a Turkish perspective is emphasised. The European history in ancient and medieval times and the periods of European history after the Great War are not included in the curriculum.

Pedagogical recommendations on the teaching of European topics on the other hand, reveal some distinct characteristics. According to the curriculum, teachers should not go into the details of European history. They need to make sure that pupils grasp the knowledge of those important events of European history; understand their importance in European and world histories; and learn their impact on Turkish history. Besides, the curriculum foresaw an approach to teaching European history topics that places the Turkish perspective of history in the centre and explains the events in accordance with

this perspective (Silier, 2003). For example, it is stated in the curriculum that teachers should explain that “*starting from the time of the French Revolution, European countries applied double standard policies against the Ottoman State, which are still in force today*” (MONE, 1998b: 94). On the other hand, commenting on the data obtained for the ‘Youth and History’ project in Turkey, Tekeli (1998) states that Turkish secondary school pupils’ interest in the history of other cultures, nations and societies is lower than the pupils of any other European country that participated in the project. He argues that the presentation of European history in the curriculum and textbooks might have impact on this result (Tekeli, 1998).

As a result, it can be argued that the Turkish history curriculum neither allocates enough space for European history, nor has it got an appropriate approach to develop an understanding of Europe or a European dimension. Therefore, it is thought to be necessary to improve the curriculum in order to introduce Turkish secondary school pupils to other cultures, nations and countries of the world, including the European ones. This may include adapting and employing up to date perspectives and approaches to history teaching that have been developed in other countries such as using the techniques of empathy and role-play, employing critical thinking approaches, putting the methodology of history in use as a technique for teaching history and so on. The conclusions and recommendations of the European-wide work and projects on history teaching, which were examined in chapter two, revealed similar problems and method of solutions that can be utilised in improving Turkish history curriculum and its implementation.

3.3.2.2. Problems related to the practice of history teaching

The main problems associated with history teaching in Turkish classrooms can be described as: lack of resources and course materials; the traditional approaches of teaching based on rote learning and memorisation making pupils passive in their learning; the lack of teaching methods and strategies; and the centralised nationwide university entrance exam (Dilek, 1999; Kabapınar, 1998; Demircioğlu, 1999; Tekeli, 1998). Textbooks having been used as the main resource of history teaching in Turkey since the introduction of history as a school subject, Turkish history textbooks are written in the style of a comprehensive fact book. They present a type of historical narrative as a series of facts happening in the past times. There is no space for alternative interpretation, presentation or narrative of history. There are also a limited

number of written and pictorial sources in the textbooks (Kabapınar, 1998). However, the sources located in textbooks are not used as evidence to support the narratives. The main objective of placing the visual sources in textbooks is to arouse pupils' interest about the topic being studied. Textbooks have been used as the only resource for teaching history in Turkey (Dilek, 1999; Silier, 2003).

Besides, their sole use is not only a result of financial difficulties but also the reflection of the dominant educational ideology aiming to control the knowledge that students are supposed to learn (Doğan, 1994; Kaplan, 1999). It is reported that Turkish history teachers rarely use resources, other than textbooks (Kaya *et al* (2001). The use of information and communication technologies in history teaching is a new concept in Turkey. Their usage as resources and educational tools are limited to some exceptional state schools and private schools (Özbaran, 2002). Other resources mostly used in history classrooms are historical atlases, and historical novels.

Another problem of history teaching is the pedagogy itself. Many authors (Üçyiğit, 1977; Dilek, 1999; Demircioğlu, 1999; Tekeli, 1998; Kaya *et al*, 2001; Silier, 2003) point out that the main methods of teaching history are didactic and pupils are expected to be passive recipients of the knowledge presented by their teachers in history lessons. An ordinary history lesson in a Turkish classroom starts with preparatory questions about the topic asked by the teacher. Then the teacher explains the topics or sometimes asks one or more pupils to read the topic from the textbook. The lesson concludes with the teacher again asking some questions and giving homework. During the lesson, pupils are expected to take notes about the issues highlighted by their teacher. It is argued that this method of teaching and the structure of textbooks led pupils to memorise the knowledge presented in textbooks and by their teachers (Üçyiğit, 1977, Tekeli, 1998). Açıkgöz (1998) states that memorisation and rote learning effect pupils' enthusiasm towards the study of history negatively.

The literature also revealed that Turkish history teaching has got a deficiency of alternative pedagogical methods and techniques (Dilek, 1999; Demircioğlu, 1999; Orhonlu, 1998; Tanriöğen, 1998, Tekeli, 2000). Özalp (2000) indicates that teaching methods and techniques, such as discussion, role-play, case study analysis and group work should be brought into practice in order to develop pupils' critical and historical thinking skills; improve their abilities of doing research, analysis and interpretation; and motivate them to study history. It is also pointed out that history, museums and other

historical places, assignment and project works are rarely used as alternative means of history teaching in Turkey (Aktekin, 2004; Özalp, 2000; Tekeli, 2000).

The centralised university entrance examination form the seventh main problem of Turkish history teaching. The results of the Turkish part of the Youth and History project revealed that many secondary school pupils perceive school history as a means of preparation for the exam. Tekeli (1998) states that History does not mean anything more for pupils, because they think that they have to memorise the historical information presented in the curriculum and textbooks in order to answer the exam questions. Apart from that, the presentation of history and the style of history teaching in Turkey do not attract the attention of a potential study of history (Tekeli, 1998). The comparison of the current state of history teaching in Turkey and the problems of UK history teaching before 1970s indicate various similarities between these two contexts. For instance, rote learning and memorisation as the main learning activity and the extensive use of textbooks are the commonest problems of history teaching not only in the UK and Turkey but also in many other countries. Therefore, the strategies developed to overcome the same problems in the UK or other European countries might set example for developing history teaching in Turkey.

In this section, some important problems of Turkish history teaching relating to the content of the curriculum and pedagogy were discussed. General information about higher education in Turkey, teacher training in general and history teacher education in particular will be presented next.

3.3.3. The state of history teacher education in Turkey

3.3.3.1. Teacher training

The origins of teacher training in Turkey go back to the Ottoman Empire, during the reign of Sultan Mehmet, the conqueror of Istanbul. It is said that the Sultan established the first medrese in Istanbul in 1463 to educate primary school teachers (Binbaşoğlu, 1995; Duman, 1991). However, it is commonly accepted in Turkey that teacher education in its comprehensive meaning started in the nineteenth century (Başaran, 1994; Demircioğlu, 1999). Demircioğlu (1999) gives a broad account of the development of teacher training in Turkey from the early nineteenth century to the late 1990s and concludes that teacher education in today's Turkey is an accumulation of developments which have been achieved over the last two centuries. However, he

highlights the importance of those events occurred after the 1980 military coup in shaping of today's Turkish teacher education system (Demircioğlu, 1999).

The leaders of interim military administration in the early 1980s decided to improve the quality and conditions of education in general and teacher training in particular because they gave importance to Atatürk's ideas and foresaw that all pupils should be educated accordingly (Demircioğlu, 1999). They also recognised that the qualities of teaching and teachers were not satisfactory. The meetings of the Supreme Council (an advisory body of the MONE) held in 1981 and 1982 under the military government's rule were mostly about the improvement of teacher education in the country. In the meetings, it was decided to extend the time period of teacher training and improve the quality of teacher education programmes (Duman, 1991). As a result, all teacher education schools were attached to universities and required to implement the circular prepared by the Higher Education Council (HEC). These changes also led to the situation in which candidate teachers are selected by a nationwide university entrance examination. Demircioğlu (1999) argues that the selection of candidate teachers by a centralised nationwide examination reduced teacher quality because this examination only tests candidates' subjects and general knowledge, not their ability or enthusiasm towards the profession.

Starting from 1997, the teacher training programs and processes in the education faculties were reorganised with the cooperation of the MONE and the Higher Education Institution as part of the National Education Development Project (NEDP). The main objective of these latest changes was to meet the short- and long-term teacher requirements of the primary and secondary education institutions and improve the quality of teacher education by developing the partnership between schools and teacher training institutions. The new system, which has been implemented since the 1998-1999 academic year, is based on the principles of training pre-primary, primary and secondary school teachers with bachelor's degrees. It also puts the new non-dissertation graduate degrees ($3.5+1.5=5$ years or $4+1.5=5.5$ years) into practice for training secondary school science, mathematics and social subject teachers (HEC, 1998).

In fact, all these changes have not solved the problems of teacher education in Turkey. The quality of teacher education is still not satisfactory, particularly on the areas of pedagogical training addressing the theoretical aspects of teaching, learning and teaching methods. Teaching practice of pre-service teacher education also needs

improvement (Demircioğlu, 2002). Another important problem of teacher education is the shortage of qualified academics in education faculties whose staff are mostly specialists of other disciplines (HEC, 1998). The use of new technology in teaching and teacher education is still very low. It needs financial support and qualified academic staff to develop candidate teachers' capacities of using new technology. The centrally prepared and imposed teacher education curricula are also identified as an important problem in Turkish context (Çakıroğlu and Çakıroğlu, 2003)

3.3.3.2. History teacher education in Turkey

History Education in Turkey was established towards the end of nineteenth century. However, its conception has changed over time. Until very recently, teaching in the universities' history departments was primarily regarded as history education by many of the scholars and educators in the country. Learning and researching history itself is thought to be more important than teaching it in primary or secondary school level³. It is assumed that if someone learns the basics of history once, she/he can teach it at any schooling level. This understanding is still dominating the field of history education in Turkey (Özbaran, 2002). Another misconception is confusing the field of history education with history of education. It has been seen that many academic studies done in history education departments or subdivisions are devoted to pure history or history of education (Dilek, 1999).

Besides, most of the academics in history education departments/subdivisions are specialist historians (Demircioğlu, 1999). Their main areas of research are focused around the history of the Turkish Republic or Ottoman history. There are some academics working for history education departments who carry out research in divergent areas, such as archaeology or even theology.⁴ Despite that, these academics still educate student teachers, research assistants and doctoral students in their field of research, instead of in history education.⁵

³ This statement was made by a member of the academic commission that prepared the current secondary school curriculum, during a personal conversation.

⁴ It was observed during the data collection in the three universities.

⁵ Three out of six research assistants in Central University's History Education Subdivision were doing doctoral research on 'pure history' observed at the time of data collection.

As a result of this conception of history education, graduates of pure history departments had a right to be history teachers in secondary, even in primary schools. From the beginning of the 1990s it was made compulsory for those history graduates to obtain a teaching certificate in order to become a teacher. The government employed graduates of pure history departments or even from the other subject areas, such as politics, law or archaeology as history teachers in order to fill the huge vacancy gaps from time to time (Demircioğlu, 1999).

In 1998, the entire teacher training institutions and education faculties in Turkey were restructured with the partnership of the MONE and the HEC (HEC, 1998). The new structure unified History, Geography, Turkish Language and Literature and Philosophy group departments in education faculties under the new name of Secondary Social Sciences Education Departments. History Education departments became sub-divisions within these departments (HEC, 1998).

Furthermore, some of the history education departments were transformed into social sciences education departments (HEC, 1998) educating teachers for elementary (upper primary) schools to teach social science lessons. It is a combination of history, geography and citizenship. Another reason for the decrease in the number of history education departments is because the need for secondary history teachers was limited and the graduates of pure history department were still holding the right to become a history teacher if they have a teaching certificate. After the restructuring the number of history education departments in the country decreased to eight (HEC, 1998).

Currently in Turkey, history teacher education subdivisions implement a five-year course, which is called a combination of a bachelor's degree and an MA, with no requirement for the completion of a dissertation. In the first seven semesters (three and half years), student teachers are required to take subject specific courses mainly of Turkish history and Turkish culture. The subject specific courses are generally designed by the sub-divisions. Starting from the eighth semester, student teachers attend pedagogy and methods courses centrally defined by the HEC and implemented in the related departments and divisions of all education faculties. The pedagogy and method courses are: Introduction to Teaching Profession; Development and Learning; Planning and Evaluation in Education; Special Teaching Methods (specific to history teaching); Educational Technologies and Material Development; Classroom Management; School Experience; Textbooks Study; Guidance and counselling; Teaching Practice and two

other elective courses defined in the sub-divisions. Through these courses, student teachers are expected to gain a general knowledge of teaching and general processes of teaching in secondary schools (Demircioğlu, 1999).

In practice however, it is difficult to say that student teachers graduate with necessary qualifications. As Demircioğlu (1999: 44) states that *“they still do not learn how to make history valuable and interesting in the eyes of pupils, and they have not been prepared in ways of persuading pupils to understand the importance and benefits of studying history”*. Besides, as some relevant literature emphasises (Tunçay, 1977; Akşin, 1977; Üçyiğit, 1977; Safran, 1993; Açıkgöz, 1998, Özbaran, 1998, Tarih Vakfı, 2002) history teaching in Turkish schools is centred on dictation, rote learning and ‘chalk and talk’. This reveals that history teachers and therefore teacher educators are still not sufficiently skilled to make history relevant and meaningful for pupils. Silier (2003) adds that most history teachers are still far from the state of using ICT and other technological tools or creating materials for their own teaching, which are the current problems of history teacher education.

3.4. Summary

This chapter started with the discussion of history and history teaching together with a detailed examination of the purposes of history teaching. It is demonstrated that history as a school subject has been taught for both intrinsic and extrinsic purposes. Intrinsic purposes have gained importance in developed countries, such as in the UK through constant examination, research and renewal. Whereas, extrinsic purposes still maintain their position in the curricula of developing countries. For example, the investigation of the Turkish secondary school history curriculum in section 3.3 demonstrates that extrinsic purposes still have the crucial place in this context with a special reference to identity building.

The second section has provided a brief account of change and development of history teaching and history education research in the UK since the early 1970s. It has been demonstrated that the problems encountered in history teaching have been overcome through continuous research based on actual classroom practices. History education research in the UK has changed the established assumptions about children’s capacities and progress in learning history. It has also indicated that school history can be made

relevant, useful and interesting for pupils as well as teachers through the use of various sources, materials, teaching methods and strategies.

The last section has examined Turkish secondary school history curriculum, the practice of history teaching in this context and the training of history teachers. According to the available literature, the Turkish secondary school history curriculum has got many problems. The most important of those problems is a nationalistic and ethnocentric version of history that appears in the curriculum with the strong emphasis given to Turkish national history that reduces the proportion of local, European and world histories in the curriculum. It also affects the aims and objectives of history teaching. The second one is that political, diplomatic and military histories cover most of the space in the curriculum that do not let the other dimensions of history to be introduced. The lack of balance between various periods of history presented in the curriculum forms the third problem with the stress on the requirement of introducing contemporary history. The other important problems are the curriculum introducing extensive and very detailed historical knowledge and the repetition of the same historical topics in different schooling levels.

The review of the literature also revealed some pedagogical problems of history teaching in Turkish secondary schools. Those problems are the massive use of textbooks as sole resources and course materials in the Turkish context; physical and financial difficulties of schools that do not allow the use of other resources, materials and technologies; teaching methods that are mostly based on expounding, memorisation and rote learning; and the centralised nationwide university entrance examinations.

Apart from the curriculum and pedagogy, this chapter has provided some background information about higher education in Turkey. The development of teacher education in the country has also been discussed, with an account of the current issues of teacher training. However, the main attention was paid to history teacher education and its main problems. The misconception of history education, lack of qualified academic staff in a history education sub-division, insufficient and inadequate pre-service teacher training particularly on theoretical aspects of history teaching and teaching practice were reviewed.

It has been seen throughout this chapter that the problems of history teaching encountered in the UK in late 1960s and early 1970s were similar to those prevailing in Turkey. Besides, the political/governmental interference or influence experienced in the

UK during the preparation and introduction of the history National Curriculum have been evident in Turkey since the foundation of the republic. Therefore, the projects and research that have been undertaken in the UK to overcome these problems and improve the state of history teaching can be utilised for the improvement of Turkish history teaching. Moreover, the research experience of the UK and the state of history teaching and history curriculum in this context might provide a model to form a framework that is suitable for comparing the COE's suggestions on the ED in history teaching and history curriculum of Turkey.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

This chapter discusses the design and development of the research project and methodological considerations in order to justify the choice of research methodology established to investigate the main and subsidiary research questions. It consists of six sections. The first section investigates the purpose of this research and the research questions. Then educational research paradigms and their relationship to the quantitative and qualitative approaches are discussed, with a justification of the mixed method approach employed in this study. Section three outlines the issues of validity, reliability and ethics together with ontological and epistemological considerations. Section four takes up the development of the research instruments, including a discussion of research methodology literature on the questionnaire and semi-structured interview.

Section five presents the selection of the data sample, access and data collection. Despite various difficulties experienced in the field study, the data provide a broad and rich picture of the state of the secondary school history curriculum and history teaching in Turkey from the perspectives of history educators (teacher educators, practising and student teachers). Section five also includes contextual information about three institutions from where I collected student teachers' and teacher educators' data. The processes of data analysis are discussed in the last section.

4.1. Research Focus

As I established in my introductory chapter, this study aims to explore the participants' views on the potential implications of including the ED in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum and consequently its reflection on the practice of history teaching and history teacher education. Thus, it is related to various groups, such as pupils, parents, practising teachers, student teachers, teacher educators, school administrators, educational policy makers, and curriculum developers, who are all connected to history teaching in schools in one way or another. Obtaining the views, perspectives and suggestions of all these groups are important for this study. Nevertheless, due to the limitations of a doctoral research, this study focuses on the views of practising teachers,

student teachers and teacher educators working or studying in the field of history education.

Table 4.1. Main and subsidiary research questions

I.	What are the views of Turkish history educators (student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators) to a potential European dimension in the secondary school history curriculum?
I. a.	What do history educators think about the current history curriculum and pedagogical aspects of history teaching in Turkish secondary schools and history teacher education in relevant institutions?
I. b.	How do history educators perceive their own knowledge of Europe and European history?
I. c.	How do history educators perceive their own knowledge of history teaching in European countries?
I. d.	What do history educators understand by the concept of 'European dimension' and what do they think about the potential inclusion of a European dimension in the secondary school history curriculum?
II.	In what ways does the Turkish curriculum need to be improved to bring about a better understanding of a European dimension?
II. a.	What do history educators see as the key elements of the European dimension in the history curriculum?
II. b.	Would the inclusion of a European dimension alter the pedagogy of history teaching in Turkish secondary schools?
II. c.	What changes would be necessary in the teacher education system in order to educate trainee history teachers effectively to teach the European dimension as a part of the history curriculum?

The review of the relevant literature indicated that although 'the ED' has been an issue of discussion and enquiry in the areas of education in general, and history teaching in particular, to date there has not been an empirical study investigating the views of history teaching professionals specifically in the context of Turkey. The only study referring to this issue is the Turkish part of the European-wide survey of 'the Youth and History' (Angvik and Von Borries, 1997; Van der Leeuw Roord, 1998; Silier, 1998; Tekeli, 1998). Nevertheless, this study was limited to secondary school pupils' and a small number of history teachers' attitudes and perceptions of Europe and the state of history teaching. The gap in the research literature and the direction of Turkish politics towards European integration discussed earlier led this study to concentrate on the issues highlighted around two main and seven subsidiary research questions presented above.

The design of the empirical study guided the formation of my research approach and generation of research instruments to address the main and subsidiary research questions. Three versions of a written questionnaire and a semi-structured interview schedule were prepared to investigate the research questions. In order to provide

balance between the breadth and depth of the empirical study, and to ensure the reliability of the information collected, I aimed to address all the research questions through the use of both instruments. However, in the empirical study some subsidiary research questions were addressed through the use of related questionnaire and interview items, whilst others (precisely **I.d., II.c. and II.d.**) could only be located in the interview schedule and addressed through the qualitative data.

Moreover, the design of the empirical study led to another area of inquiry. The population of the empirical study is based on three groups of participants involved in the field of history teaching. Therefore, comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences between the views of student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators was thought to be beneficial in the analysis of the two main research questions introduced above. A similar comparison between the groups of student teachers and teacher educators chosen from three different teacher training institutions was also undertaken. This aspect of the inquiry is considered crucial in identifying professional and institutional differences in the Turkish context towards a potential ED in the history curriculum and its probable implications for history teaching and history teacher education. Examining the views of student teachers and teacher educators selected from different institutions was also important to investigate whether there is a particular political or ideological view of Europe and the ED in any institution.

So far, I have explained the focus of this study and located the research questions and other objectives related to the empirical study. General methodological issues concerning educational research and their implications for this study will be discussed next.

4.2. Educational Research Approaches and the Selection of the Research Methods

In this research, I adopted a mixed method paradigm in order to investigate the above research questions in a broad context which can be representative of the actual population and in some depth and may help to identify main themes and concepts. Therefore this section starts with a discussion of educational research paradigms and their relevance to this study, and then it penetrates to other methodological themes.

Husen states that, “*a paradigm determines the criteria according to which one selects and defines problems for inquiry and how one approaches them theoretically and methodologically*” (1997: 17). There are two distinctive paradigms in educational and

social science research: the positivist and interpretivist paradigms. These two approaches are based on two distinct ways of looking at and understanding social reality (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; Husen, 1997; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). Thus, there has been a continuous debate between the upholders of the two approaches (Blaikie, 2000). In this section, I will discuss their features to point out their relevance to the choice of methodology for this study.

The positivist paradigm is “*modelled on the natural sciences with an emphasis on empirical, quantifiable observations which lend themselves to analyse by means of mathematical tools*” (Husen, 1997: 17). Positivism assumes that the methodological procedures of natural sciences, such as the testing of hypotheses to discover facts, can be adapted to social science research (Hammersley, 1995). Therefore, it is regarded as a deductive approach starting with a theory (Bryman, 1988). In the empirical processes of enquiry, the objective is to gather data to test hypotheses, which might be confirmed, disproved or modified in the later stages. In educational and social research, the positivist paradigm is often associated with quantitative approaches and methods, for instance experiments and surveys (Hichcock and Hughes, 1995).

In contrast, the interpretivist paradigm is derived from the humanities with an emphasis on holistic and qualitative information and interpretative approaches (Husen, 1997). The purpose of empirical enquiry in this paradigm is to reach concepts or generate hypotheses and theories by means of an inductive process (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Bryman, 1988; Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Charmaz, 2000). The naturalistic or interpretive paradigm is based on the argument that there is a fundamental difference between the study of natural objects and human beings because human beings interpret situations and give meaning to them (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Hichcock and Hughes, 1995). It stresses the importance of understanding the meaning of human behaviour and interaction in their socio-cultural contexts (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Hichcock and Hughes, 1995). The interpretivist paradigm is associated with qualitative research methods, such as case studies, qualitative interviewing and participant observation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Cohen *et al*, 2000; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In addition to the characteristics discussed above, the positivist and interpretivist paradigms and the research approaches and methods linked to each one pose some further distinguishing components. The first one is the scope of research and size of data

samples. Quantitative research is appropriate to gather information from larger populations to provide a broader and more generalisable picture of the issue under investigation (Creswell, 2003). Whereas, qualitative research stresses small-scale investigation concerning an individual's subjective experiences in order to capture in-depth understanding of the meaning that the individual attributes to the phenomena (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Creswell, 2003).

The second distinguishing factor is about research questions and data collection instruments. In quantitative/positivist research, research questions and data collection instruments are pre-determined devices having relatively limited flexibility (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). Whereas, interpretivist researchers start with a general view leading to research questions and tools. Besides, they have the flexibility of formulating new research questions or re-arranging the data collection tools (Brannen, 1992).

The third factor is the role of the researcher. The researcher in quantitative investigation is viewed as an objective outsider, while the qualitative researcher enters the subject's world through observation, conversation and so on to reach her/his understanding and interpreting of the phenomena under investigation. (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Creswell, 2003). Thus, unlike the quantitative researcher, the qualitative researcher gives importance to the use of verbal interaction and controls the direction and depth of the data collection process (Hichcock and Hughes, 1995; Bryman, 2001; Creswell, 2003).

The fourth difference between the two approaches occurs in the stages of data analysis and presentation. Quantitative researchers use a deductive approach for analysis (Murphy *et al*, 1998). They generate data from various kinds of statistical tests to confirm or reject the initial hypothesis or theory. Data in quantitative research are presented in forms of mathematical models, graphs and statistical tables and are generally written in about the third person prose (Robson, 1993). On the other hand, qualitative researchers are likely to use an inductive analysis approach and more informal language, historical narratives and so on (Hammersley, 1992; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Murphy *et al*, 1998; Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

There are of course more distinctive features of the two research approaches that cannot be discussed in the scope of this study. However, it is necessary to state that quantitative and qualitative approaches also possess some similar and overlapping facets. According to Trochim (2000) for example, there is a close relationship between quantitative and

qualitative data, because all quantitative data is based upon qualitative judgements, while any sort of qualitative data can be described and manipulated in numerical formats. Moreover, Krueger and Casey (2000) state that a researcher's explanation and interpretation of quantitative results inevitably involves her/his qualitative judgements. They also indicate that it is likely to use numerical scales or values during the process of qualitative analysing (Krueger and Casey, 2000).

Furthermore, there is another group of authors and researchers who do not agree with the arguments claiming that there are sharp distinctions between the two approaches (Hammersley, 1992; 1995; Robson, 1993; Newman and Benz, 1998; Creswell, 2003). On the contrary to the supporter of positivist and interpretive paradigms, this group of researchers point out that quantitative and qualitative research approaches are/can be intertwined and complement one another because the crucial point of a research project is to find the best way to answer the specific research question(s) not to prove whether one or the other paradigm is better (Hammersley, 1992; Newman and Benz, 1998). As a result of their pragmatic approach to research, this group of authors and researchers are called 'instrumentalists' (Murphy *et al*, 1998). Hammersley puts it as:

... selection among these positions ought often to depend on the purposes and circumstances of the research rather than being derived from methodological or philosophical commitments. This is because there are trade-offs involved. For instance, if we seek greater precision we are likely to sacrifice some breadth of description; and vice versa. And the costs and benefits of various trade-off positions will vary according to the particular goals and circumstances of the research being pursued (1992: 172).

Therefore, it is argued by many researchers that quantitative and qualitative approaches can effectively be combined in a study to utilise their advantages in accordance with the purpose of the study (Hammersley, 1992; 1995; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Robson, 1993; Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Cohen *et al*, 2000; Creswell, 2003). According to Salomon (1991) what is important for a researcher is to choose the most suitable methods for her/his questions and situation, because each situation may require certain methods to be applied, and each method examines the phenomena differently. Salomon therefore, states that "*the validity of the knowledge is to be judged from within the boundaries of the systems' own structure...*" (1991: 5). Robson (1993) supports this view by asserting that choosing the best suited approach to the research questions is an important point for the design of a research project. Many researchers, including Robson (1993), point out that combining several methods of enquiry, possibly chosen from different paradigms, in a study is likely to provide a better insight into the issue

under investigation. This is called a multi-method or mixed-method approach.

Silverman commends the idea of a multi-method approach by indicating that:

...there are no principled grounds to be either qualitative or quantitative in approach. It all depends upon what you are trying to do. Indeed, often one will want to combine both approaches (Silverman, 1993: 14).

The combination of research methodologies with the purpose of overcoming the weaknesses of a single method is also called triangulation (Denzin, 1994), which I will discuss in the next section.

In this study, I employed a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods, because, in the light of the above discussions I find myself closer to the researchers who suggest the use of mixed methods. In keeping with the aims of this research and the above research methodology literature, two research methods were considered as possible data collection instruments: a set of written questionnaires and a semi-structured interview schedule. I gathered a substantial amount of quantitative data through written questionnaires to catch a broader picture of the issues.

The purpose of collecting qualitative data using semi-structured interviews from a smaller sample, which was selected from the population of questionnaire participants, is to gain a deeper insight into the issues covered by the quantitative data. Miles and Huberman (1994: 10) hold that “*qualitative data are useful when one needs to supplement, validate, explain, illuminate, or reinterpret quantitative data gathered from the same setting*”. This view best suited my research approach, because my study aims to capture a broader view of the population as well as to obtain the participants’ explanations, reasoning and the underpinning of the particular viewpoints arising from the quantitative data. Therefore, it can be asserted that this study is not limited to find out what the participants think about particular issues covered. It also seeks to discover their reasoning and explanations in depth.

Based on a mixed method approach, this study utilises the methodological framework of ‘grounded theory’ (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Straus and Corbin, 1998; Charmaz, 2000), which particularly has impact on the stages of qualitative data analysis. As Charmaz states “*grounded theory methods specify analytic strategies, not data collection methods*” (2000: 514). Glaser and Strauss (1967: 2-3), the founders of ‘grounded theory’ define their approach as “*discovery of theory from data systematically obtained from social research. ... generating grounded theory is a way of arriving at theory suited to its supposed uses*”.

In grounded theory, the researcher does not start her/his project having a theory in mind. Conversely she/he starts with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the detailed and vigilant analysis of the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Its holders argue that because of the linkage to data, grounded theory cannot be “*completely refuted or replaced by another theory*” (Glaser and Strauss (1967: 4). Instead, grounded theory can “*offer insight, enhance understanding and provide a meaningful guide to action*” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 12). The process of data analysis receives the main attention in this approach, since it is seen as a key to theory development (Charmaz, 2000). Grounded theory employs an analytical device called ‘constant comparative method’ (Glaser and Strauss (1967).

The process of analysis starts with detailed coding of the qualitative data by reviewing it carefully and at the same time comparing different codes. This is also called open coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Charmaz, 2000). Another comparison is supposed to happen in the mind of the analyst about the notions of each code and the data assigned to it, which may appear as written memos produced concurrently. The second phase of the analysis includes the comparison of properties or the pieces of data assigned to a code, which strengthens the code by integrating its properties (Glaser and Strauss (1967). The next step is to examine and recurrently compare the codes, to relate them to each other and to form concepts and broader categories representing the meaning of data in a clear and understandable way (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Normally, the analysis ends with the formation of the theory by making use of the codes, memos, categories and concepts produced earlier (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Moreover, grounded theory method includes a process called theoretical sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Theoretical sampling refers to situations in which the researcher realises that there are some gaps between the parts of her/his data and consequently in the theory being developed. In these cases, the researcher goes back to the field to collect more data specifically addressing those issues (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The aim here is to strengthen the emerging theory through gaining more insight into the field (Charmaz, 2000).

In this study, I only benefited from grounded theory’s processes of data analysis, which helped me to examine the qualitative data thoroughly. The design of my research and some other factors did not allow me to theorise from the data analysis. Firstly, I had my research questions before going to the field, not just a broad research area, which made

me bring some presumptions or theories in the empirical study. This particular aspect of my study did not fit grounded theory's notion of theorising through the vigilant analysis of the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Secondly, grounded theory requires constant interaction between the analysis process and data collection. It was not feasible for this study to go back and forth between data analysis and data collection processes in order to gain insight into the field and develop a theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The main restrictions arise from time and monetary issues and the spatial distance between the research field and the place where the other processes of the study have been carried out. Therefore, it cannot be regarded as a grounded theory research. Utilising grounded theory in the process of data analysis, particularly the constant comparison of the segments of qualitative data, offered great help to see themes and issues emerging from the qualitative data and compare them with the quantitative findings. The comparison of the qualitative and quantitative data on the other hand, to provide a context to test the validity and reliability of both kinds of data by allowing the comparison and contrast between them; and support the qualitative results in broader settings.

In this section, educational research paradigms and methods, their reflections and applications in the design and practice of any research projects in general and this study in particular have been discussed. In the next section, I will discuss the issues of validity, reliability and ethical considerations bounding the empirical aspects of this study.

4.3. Methodological Issues

4.3.1. Validity – credibility and transferability and reliability - dependability

Validity and reliability are two key factors applicable to both quantitative and qualitative research (Cohen *et al*, 2000). Validity was first defined as “*a particular instrument in fact measures what it purports to measure*” (Cohen *et al*, 2000: 105). However, with the development of new research approaches, methods and techniques, it has gained a variety of meanings and forms. Among the others, internal validity and external validity are the most referred two forms in the research methodology literature (Robson, 1993; Verma and Mallick, 1999; Cohen *et al*, 2000; Creswell, 2003).

Internal validity refers to the issue of accuracy of the information. It also deals with the question of whether the information represents the reality (Verma and Mallick, 1999). In qualitative research, the issue of validity is addressed through ‘credibility’ (Bryman,

2001). Credibility in a study is to certify that the research is carried out in accordance with the canons of good practice and that it honestly represents the research settings or the views of the informants (Bryman, 2001). Triangulation and respondent validation are two commonly used methods to increase internal validity or credibility in a research study (Rubin and Rubin, 1995) and to reduce bias.

Triangulation is the combination of research methodologies with the purpose of overcoming the weaknesses of a single method (Denzin, 1994; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Bell, 1999; Cohen *et al*, 2000). Cohen *et al* (2000:112) define triangulation as “*the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour*”. According to Brannen (1992) there are four types of triangulation of multiple methods, multiple researchers, multiple data sets and multiple theories (Brannen, 1992). Multiple methods triangulation is utilised in this study, which refers to the situations in which the same method is applied on different occasions or different methods are used along with the same object of study that is also called between-method (Brannen, 1992). In order to provide triangulation and increase the validity and credibility, I employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods. However, as Hammersley (1992) points out, triangulation does not mean that a research project has no weaknesses and the researcher will obtain a coherent picture of the reality. Bearing this issue in mind, I analysed the qualitative data through a series of coding and analysis processes to strengthen its credibility (Charmaz, 2000). Moreover, the quantitative and qualitative data were analysed by means of multiple group comparisons to increase the validity and objectivity (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Furthermore, the researcher needs to be aware and be honest about her/his own beliefs, values and biases that may affect the research process. Considering the qualitative data Cohen *et al* point out that:

validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher (2000: 105).

However, Strauss and Corbin (1998) indicate that it is not possible to provide complete objectivity in any study. Therefore, subjectivity should be recognised as an issue in any research and appropriate measures should be taken to minimise the researcher’s influence on the processes of data collection and analysis (Keats, 1994). In this study, the data collection tools were reviewed by other researchers and then piloted in order to reduce any bias that may have come from the researcher. Besides, to minimise

respondents' bias, the qualitative data was read, coded and then checked several times during the process of analysis.

On the other hand, external validity deals with the issue of the generalisability of research results (Creswell, 2003; Cohen *et al*, 2000). However, generalisability is a problematic issue. It is an essential feature of a quantitative research project while the objective of qualitative research is not to produce generalisable results, because "*human behaviour is infinitely complex, irreducible, socially situated and unique*" (Cohen *et al*, 2000: 109) for the interpretivists. Therefore, the findings of qualitative research tend to be oriented to the contextual uniqueness and significance of the aspects of the social world being studied (Bryman, 2001). In qualitative research, generalisability is substituted by transferability inviting readers to make connections between the elements of the study and their own experience. According to Bryman (2001) and Charmaz (2000) transferability can be achieved by providing rich accounts of the details of the phenomena. On the other hand, Glaser and Strauss (1967) argue that generalisability can be achieved in qualitative research. They state that "*by comparing where the facts are similar or different, we can generate properties of categories that increase the categories' generality and explanatory power*" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967: 24).

This study is bound by the issues of generalisability and transferability since it attempts to combine quantitative and qualitative research methods. Although it was aimed to keep the sample of quantitative data as high as possible, it could not be achieved due to the limitations of time, funding, and the realities of the research setting. Hence, transferability of the findings gains importance in this study. Informants were chosen from diverse backgrounds and various educational settings to situate the research in a broader context (Creswell, 2003). Besides, contextual information about the settings where the participants work and study is provided to enable the reader to make comparisons for transferability purposes.

Reliability of a research project refers to the consistency of the research results obtained by different researchers in the same settings or by the same researcher over time (Cohen *et al*, 2000; Bell, 1999). In qualitative research, reliability is addressed through 'dependability' that underlines the issue of whether the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The issues of reliability and dependability are addressed by employing alternative forms of data gathering instruments (Cohen *et*

al, 2000) in this study. The findings of questionnaires and interviews have yielded the same results on most occasions, which indicate the general reliability of data collection instruments. Moreover, both instruments were piloted to test their validity and effectiveness, which provided valuable feedback about how respondents interpreted the questionnaire and interview questions and the clarity of the items. For the same purpose, a detailed description of the data collection and analysis procedures is provided in this chapter to present the reader with a clear and accurate picture of the research process.

4.3.2. Ethical considerations

The consideration of ethical issues is seen as the researcher's obligation to respect the rights, needs, values and desires of the informants (Verma and Mallick, 1999).

Regarding this, it is recommended to consider the issues of "*informed consent*", "*confidentiality*" (Kvale, 1996: 154) and "*protection of subjects from harm*" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992: 49) in any research with human subjects as the ethical guidelines. Ethics as a term on the other hand "... *refers to rules of conduct; typically to conformity to a code or set of principles*" (Reynolds, 1979 cited in Robson, 1993: 29).

Based on the recommendations above, I took every single matter related to the participants into account throughout this study. I informed all the participants about the purpose of my research and obtained consent from all of them for taking part in the study. Confidentiality was explained and guaranteed to the participants. In order to protect the participants' identity, I coded every interview transcript with initials and numbers, such as T3 which refers to one of the teachers whose identity is known only to myself.

Moreover, in order not to put the participants at any risk, official permission was obtained from the MONE, its agents and school and sub-divisional (in the universities) administrations as will be explained. Interview participants were selected on a voluntary basis. However, one teacher interviewee volunteer seemed to have some hesitations about being tape recorded and decided not to participate in the interview. Therefore, he was then excluded from the study. Furthermore, after the interviews I sent the interview scripts to seventeen participants who had provided email addresses beforehand to confirm the information from the interviews. Five interviewees replied allowing the use of interview scripts as they were. No response has been received from the remaining twelve interviewees. Hence, these interview scripts were used as they are.

4.3.3. Positioning myself in the research context

This study combines quantitative and qualitative methods linking the two main research paradigms: positivism and interpretivism. The two paradigms take up the philosophical issues of social existence and the nature of knowledge differently as discussed in section 4.2. Since the qualitative aspects are given more importance than the quantitative ones, this study takes an interpretivist standpoint, in which the researcher is personally involved in the process of the research (Creswell, 2003). Hence, it is essential to describe my position as the researcher of the study.

I seek to combine quantitative and qualitative research methods to provide a comprehensible and coherent picture of Turkish history educators' views on the ED in history teaching and its inclusion into the secondary school history curriculum, which is intended to assist the improvement of policy and practice in this field. I decided to adopt a mixed method approach because in the light of the discussions presented in section 4.2, I find myself closer to the researchers who suggest this approach. A mixed method approach "*best fits a particular study*" (Robson, 1993: 20), since I believe that employing "*several methods of inquiry are likely to be better than any single one in shedding light on an issue*" (Robson, 1993: xi). In this sense, I am an instrumentalist and a pragmatist (Murphy *et al*, 1998; Creswell, 2003), because I firmly believe in the view that "*how you study the world determines what you learn about the world*" (Patton, 1980: 67).

As detailed in previous chapters, I have made some criticism of the present state and understanding of history teaching in Turkey. They include the general view of Europe from a Turkish perspective and other Europe-related matters. In my belief, the conventional understanding of history teaching in Turkey and the views surrounding external realities, including Europe, have been determined by the philosophies of positivism and progressivism that have been influential on Turkish education (Kaplan, 1999; Dilek, 1999). I also believe that in order to change the realities mentioned above or offer suggestions for change, it is necessary to look at the issues from a different critical perspective. Therefore, my standpoint is against ontological and epistemological positivism, which form the underpinnings of the research context. I do not agree with the idea of investigating social phenomena from a scientific perspective, which endeavours to examine the social world through the use of the natural science methods and approaches (Cohen *et al*, 2000).

However, my opposition to positivism does not make me fully embrace a relativist stance or postmodernist philosophy, the immediate rivals of positivism. It has been observed that postmodernism and relativism have been the leading influential agents imposing changes in the many aspects of the social world today (Kaplan, 1999). Their main strength stems from their criticism directed to positivist, realist and progressive perspectives (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). According to postmodernist ontology, social reality is produced by the human mind, other than that there is no reality (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Although I share some of the postmodern criticisms of positivism and progressivism and their epistemological standpoints, I cannot adopt the perspective of postmodernism since some preconceived-external realities are applied in this study, such as the present Turkish history curriculum. Moreover, my research is to provide findings that would at least be representative of the context I am examining, which can be evaluated as non-situated reality from a postmodern perspective (Johnson and Duberley, 2000).

On the other hand, critical realist ontology stands between the poles of positivist-postmodernist and realist-relativist dispute. According to critical realism social phenomena exist not only in the mind of human beings but also in the social world and there are some established recognizable relationships between them (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Epistemologically, critical realism adopts the viewpoint of relativism, which conceives knowledge as a social and cultural construction (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). It gives a central importance to the active role of human agency, but *“with reference to their interaction with an independent external reality which can constrain or facilitate human action”* (Johnson and Duberley, 2000: 153).

The critical realist stance corresponds to my understanding of the essence of social reality. As a believer in God, I see the world as a creation of his, not the product of human intellect or action. In my belief, nothing in this world exists without a reason; in contrast, everything stands in harmony through the regularities and sequences. Besides, I consider the human intellect and its actions as creations, which are different from the things existing in the world, but real and searchable (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Moreover, critical realism best fits my study’s theoretical approach because it investigates the meaning that the participants attribute to external realities surrounding them. A critical realist stance also embodies my pragmatist epistemological approach, through which I combined different research methods to grasp a broader and profound picture of the context I study (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Furthermore, it is

appropriate for the grounded theory method I utilised in the stages of data analysis and interpretation (Charmaz, 2000).

Considering all these issues, I am aware that the findings presented in the coming chapters regarding the participants' view of the ED and potential implications of its inclusion into the Turkish history curriculum are all my interpretations. I accept them not as the objective truth representing the general view of the participants, but one of the possible portrayals of it. The meaning I attributed to the data is determined by my views, predispositions and interpretations as well as the research methods I have utilised throughout this study. I have made efforts to strengthen the validity – credibility, generalisability - transferability and reliability - dependability of the findings by employing some techniques and procedures as discussed in section 4.3.1.

My status as the researcher was another factor in the process of data collection. With no experience in history teaching and teacher education, I was an outsider for all groups of participants. Therefore, most of them seemed reluctant to engage with me and my study at the beginning. However, the continuation of conversations overcame the obstacles in most cases. As a result, information was obtained at a satisfactory level. Among three groups of participants, I was able to communicate with student teachers the best probably due to our common status as students.

The development of the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, which are used as data collection instruments in this study, will be discussed in the following section.

4.4. The Use of Research Methods and the Development of the Research Instruments

As previously mentioned, quantitative and qualitative research methods are combined in this study through the use of a series of quantitative written questionnaires and a qualitative semi-structured interview schedule as data collection tools. In this section, I will discuss the development of research instruments with reference to the research methodology literature on the techniques of questionnaire and interview employed in this research project.

4.4.1. The questionnaires

In educational research, questionnaires have been used extensively to gather data from large populations (Oppenheim, 1992; Robson, 1993; Bell, 1999; Cohen *et al*, 2000;

Bryman, 2001). The use of questionnaires provides several benefits. The first one is the efficient use of time and resources for the researcher as well as the respondents. Secondly, the anonymity of the questionnaire method allows participants to respond openly and comfortably (Cohen *et al*, 2000). Thirdly, it is relatively easy to process the data and make group comparisons (Oppenheim, 1992). Another important advantage of using questionnaires is that it provides broad and generalisable findings (Bell, 1999; Robson, 1993; de Vaus, 1996).

A set of written self-completion questionnaires, mainly consisting of closed likert-scale questions but involving some open-ended ones was employed in this study.¹ The term 'self-completion questionnaire' in this context refers to a questionnaire that is completed independently by the respondent (Robson, 1993). The aim of the questionnaire in this study is to gather information from a large sample of participants that can reflect the Turkish student and practising history teachers' and teacher educators' general views on the ED in history teaching and the inclusion of an ED in the secondary school history curriculum (Bryman, 2001). The consideration of other issues, such as the time constraints for the data collection period and financial matters also indicated that the use of written and self-administered questionnaires best fits this study. As a sponsored research student, I was not allowed to spend more than two months outside the UK in a calendar year. Besides, I did not get any additional financial support for the empirical study. I had to manage my own budget to pay the cost of travel between the UK and Turkey, and between three Turkish cities located many kilometres apart, where this empirical study was carried out, and to cover other expenses. Therefore, the possibility of other data collection methods, such as case study or observation was not considered preferable for this study.

The questionnaire I designed to gather data for this study is prepared in three versions. The main difference between the three versions is the wording of the questions because each version targeted a divergent group of participants, namely practising teachers, student teachers and teacher educators. At the beginning, it was intended to adapt the questionnaire items used in previous studies, such as in 'the Youth and History' (Angvik and Von Borries, 1997; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 1998). However, the development of my research focus indicated a difference between the purpose of this study and that of the others reviewed. Bearing the uniqueness of the research context in

¹ A final version of the questionnaire (combining all three versions) and its Turkish translation are located in Appendices E and F.

mind, all the items placed in the questionnaire, prepared in English, had emerged through the study of the relevant literature and the previous research. Then I translated all versions of the questionnaire into Turkish, which were checked, corrected and verified by two Turkish colleagues in the School of Education.

Each version of the questionnaire consists of six sections. The first section in each version of the questionnaire is prepared to obtain demographic information about the participants. Thus, it involves several distinct options in different versions of the questionnaire. Gender and age are the common issues covered in all three versions. The name of the participant's institution is only asked regarding the student teachers and teacher educators, whilst the question on the type of the school, where they work or carry out their teaching practices, is only directed to practising and student teachers. On the other hand, the item on work experience is limited to practising teachers and teacher educators. Practising teachers are also questioned about the department they graduated from to gain a teaching post. Moreover, teacher educators are asked to provide information about their research areas, academic titles and the positions they occupied in their departments at the time of data collection.

In the stages of analysis and presentation however, I only used two criteria to compare and contrast the data obtained from the participants. It is because the abundant amount of quantitative data I gathered became too excessive to analyse and evaluate within the scope of this doctoral thesis. Moreover, theoretical considerations on the comparison of different groups of participants and three institutions investigated in this study directed the focus of analysis. 'The groups of participants' consisting of student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators, and 'the institutions', which only apply to student teachers and teacher educators attached to three teacher education institutions are chosen as the main criteria for the analysis.

The second section of the questionnaire is designed to gather information about the participants' attitudes to the present Turkish secondary school history curriculum. The objective of the third section is complex. Section three of the practising teachers' questionnaire is designed to find out the views of and attitudes to history teaching in Turkish secondary schools, while the same section in the student teachers' and teacher educators' questionnaires proposes to reveal these two groups of participants' views of history teacher training in the relevant institutions from their own perspectives. Section four in all versions includes questions aimed at capturing the participants' perceptions

of some concepts relating to the function and meaning of history teaching in schools. The fifth section proposes to find out participants' general views about Turkey and Europe, while the sixth one directly focuses on their views about a potential ED in the history curriculum.

The majority of questions in the questionnaire are designed as closed questions so as to have a practical, straight forward questionnaire to fill in, because the overall questionnaire is already large in size. It is indicated that closed questions are more commonly used in self-completion questionnaires because they allow respondents to choose among a limited number of options and thus, do not require a great deal of respondents' time (Cohen *et al*, 2000). Moreover, they make the processes of analysis and presentation easier (Verma and Mallick, 1999; Cohen *et al*, 2000). The number of closed-ended items in each version of the questionnaire is the same. There are sixty-six close ended likert-scale questions having options from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' and including a 'neutral' one.

I preferred to keep the middle option 'neutral', because like Robson (1993) I believe that the respondents should be provided with the opportunity to be 'neutral' or 'uncertain' if they choose to do so. Otherwise, it cannot be legitimate to claim that the empirical study represents the view of the population '*the real world*' (Robson, 1993, de Vaus, 1996). However, researchers advise that this middle category can involve the risk of obtaining a '*non-committed response*' (Robson, 1993: 248) and the difficulty of interpreting the results (Oppenheim, 1992). Although the questionnaires in this study have received a significant number of responses showing preference to a 'neutral' option, it is not possible to state that those participants', selecting neutral as their response, did not have an idea about that particular question or they did not want to disclose their views. This discrepancy in my belief indicates the necessity of further in-depth investigation of the issues being studied that indicates the need for carrying out the qualitative interviews (Bell, 1999).

Another disadvantage related to the use of questionnaire in a research project is the response rate if it is administered through mailing or by the help of a third person (Cohen *et al*, 2000). Nevertheless, this was not an issue in this study, since I administered the questionnaires myself and I was present during the time when the respondents filled in the questionnaires, in order to explain or help, if a participant

needed clarification or further explanations about any of the items. As a result, I got a very high response rate (over 90%).

There is also an extra item at the end of each section inviting respondents to place their views attitudes and perceptions about the issues investigated in that section freely (Cohen *et al*, 2000). The questionnaires employed in this study provided a basis for the preparation of an interview schedule and the selection of the interviewees. I requested student teachers to provide their names and a contact telephone number or email address if they would like to participate in the interviews at the end of each questionnaire. This request was made in person to practising teachers and teacher educators, because it was preferable in the socio-cultural milieu of Turkey, where I also had the opportunity to personally contact almost all teacher and teacher educator participants during the administration of the questionnaires.

4.4.1.1. Piloting the questionnaires

In an empirical study, piloting is an important component to test and “*to increase the validity, reliability and practicability of the questionnaire*” (Cohen *et al*, 2000: 260). Oppenheim (1992) notes that in order to avoid misunderstandings and ambiguities the wording of questions in a questionnaire is very important. The design of the questionnaire, the wording and meaning of the sentences must be clear and unbiased (Oppenheim, 1992). It means that the researcher must avoid locating any positive or negative opinions and pre-test how the questionnaire items can be read by the target audience. For this reason, the initial versions of the questionnaires were piloted with a small sample.

After consultation with my supervisors a draft version of the questionnaire was prepared and then reproduced with some changes in the wording to be suitable for each groups of participants. For the purpose of piloting, I first distributed the teacher educators’ version of the questionnaire amongst my fellow Turkish research students in Nottingham University and Leicester University. I changed the wording of some items and reduced the size of the questionnaire by omitting some items, since they commented that the first version was very long and taking too much time. Following the amendments, I sent one copy of the practising teachers’ and one copy of the teacher educators’ questionnaires, including the introductory letters which explains my research project and aims of the questionnaires, to two of my friends in Turkey as email attachments. One of them was a history teacher in a secondary school and the other one was working as a research

assistant in a 'Social Sciences Education Department' of a Turkish university. I requested their help in printing and photocopying the questionnaires and distributing them to their colleagues for piloting. I also asked my friends to explain to the participants that my purpose at that stage was to test whether the items in the questionnaire were clear, understandable and meaningful. Therefore, I needed the participants' criticism and advice on those matters to finalise the questionnaires.

Two weeks later, I received fourteen copies of the questionnaires, eight of which were filled in by teacher educators and the others completed by practising teachers. In the light of their comments, several changes were made on the wording of some questions. The style and options of questions in one section were also rearranged. Moreover, an open space at the end of each section was inserted to allow participants to present further views about the main topic of that section. However, due to time and financial constraints, the student teachers' questionnaire could not be piloted. In order to redress this deficit, I reflected the changes made on the other versions of the questionnaire to this one as much as possible. Furthermore, it was not possible to carry out any statistical tests to check the validity and reliability of questionnaire items (Pallant, 2001) during the pilot study because of the limited sample size. The construction of the questionnaire was also not appropriate for an internal consistency test, because each item in the questionnaires stands alone and aims to reveal the participants' view on a single issue.

4.4.2. The interview

As a research method, an interview is generally considered to be a direct verbal interaction between individuals with the purpose of data gathering (Bogdan and Biklen 1992, Robson; 1993; Kvale, 1996; Cohen *et al*, 2000). As Rubin and Rubin (1995) point out, the idea of interviewing individuals is to develop an understanding of the phenomena under investigation from an interviewee's point of view by hearing and interpreting her/his view on society, culture, politics, economy and so on. Based on this perspective Fontana and Frey (2000: 645) state that "*interviewing is one of the most common and powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow human beings*".

Moreover, interviews are useful to go deeper into the respondents' perspective and reasoning while they talk about any particular issue that cannot be obtained in other ways (Kvale, 1996). Therefore, combining the interview method with the questionnaires would be helpful to investigate the participants' reasoning about their preferences of any matter covered in a questionnaire (Creswell, 2003). As a result, I decided to utilise the

interview method in this study in order to investigate the participants' perspectives and reasoning about the issues covered by the research questions in general and the questionnaires in particular. Other types of qualitative methods such as participant observation, case study, action research, document analysis were not considered appropriate to this study. The reason is firstly, because this study primarily aims to explore the participants' views from their own perspectives that can best be achieved by the interview techniques (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). Secondly, the research focus and financial and time constraints explained earlier in this chapter were not suitable to carry out another kind of inquiry. Moreover, interviewing the participants selected from the wider sample of questionnaire respondents was also considered valuable to validate the responses obtained through questionnaires and investigate them thoroughly.

Interviews are classified into many different types according to various criteria. The semi-structured interview is one of them, which is categorised according to its degree of structure (Keats, 1994; Denscombe, 1999). In the semi-structured interview, the interviewer sets up a general structure by deciding the questions, which will be asked through a carefully worded schedule, and the ground that will be investigated (Robson, 1993; Wragg, 1978). However, related unanticipated questions that were not originally included in the interview schedule can be asked during the course of a semi-structured interview (Robson, 1993). Besides, it is appropriate to ask both pre-determined closed questions and open-ended ones with sub-questions because the interviewer and interviewee have more freedom in the process of a semi-structured interview, which gives the respondent an opportunity to express her/his feelings freely (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Robson, 1993; Kvale, 1996; Denscombe, 1999).

I have chosen to employ the semi-structured interview technique in order to gain insight into the participants' views on the issues covered by the research questions of this study (Kvale, 1996). The semi-structured interview technique suited this study better than the other kinds. Firstly, unlike the unstructured interview it allowed me to stay focused on the research questions during the course of the interviews by means of a pre-prepared interview schedule. Secondly, in contrast to structured interviews, it helped me to reach respondents' views and reasoning about the issues in detail, which are broadly covered by the questionnaires.

Using the semi-structured interview as a research technique provides many advantages. According to Bell (1999) adaptability is an important advantage of the interview. She

states that “*a skilful interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do*” (Bell, 1999: 135). I used prompts, probes and follow up questions whenever they were necessary in order to gain insight into the participants’ viewpoints. Keats (1994) on the other hand, indicates that the use of prompts, probes and further questions provides flexibility to produce rich data particularly in the situations where direct observation is not possible or feasible. Such flexibility was important for my study, because it focused on the individuals’ views and perspectives, which were as varied as the participants themselves. The participants were encouraged to approach issues from their viewpoints and assumptions and express their views through their own words, descriptions and interpretations (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Whenever the participants were required to think about the issue being asked, they were assured that there were no definitively right or wrong answers. Some further advantages of the interview are low-cost, high response rate, and helping to provide validity (Denscombe, 1999; Kvale, 1996; Robson, 1993), which offered some benefits to this study.

Interviews also introduce some disadvantages such as the stages of presenting data and analysing it, which are very difficult and time consuming (Denscombe, 1999). Although I intended to overcome this problem by using a type of qualitative analysis software, NVivo, several difficulties occurred and caused an extension to the analysis procedures, which are discussed in section 4.7. Another disadvantage is the possibility of bias. As Cohen *et al* (2000) point out, the interviewer can tend to seek answers that support her/his preconceived notions, and produce misperceptions of what the respondent is saying. Bias can also come from the respondent who may misunderstand what is being asked and who has a tendency to say what the interviewer wants to know (Cohen *et al*, 2000). Kvale (1996) advises researchers to be aware of bias in the processes of the interview by reminding them that the interview is a means of data gathering not an exchange of opinions. During the process of interviews, several instances occurred in this sense, in which the respondent asked the interviewer “*what kind of response would you prefer me to provide?*” I assured the respondents in this kind of situation that my aim was to reach their own views rather than my own or any pre-determined one. Moreover, Cohen *et al* (2000) state that the interviewee’s age, class, gender and language may bring bias to the process of the interview.

Bearing in mind all these issues, I developed a semi-structured interview schedule and translated it into Turkish.² Then a Turkish colleague of mine checked the translation and confirmed that there was no loss of meaning and everything was clear and understandable in the Turkish version. The interview schedule consists of fifteen key items about the issues covered by the main and subsidiary research questions. In contrast to the questionnaires, I prepared only one interview schedule for all three groups of participants. However, adjustments were made during the course of interviews through the use of probes, prompts and other types of interaction. After the administration and initial analysis of the questionnaires, the interview schedule was re-evaluated. Some changes were made in the interview schedule accordingly. Particularly, the issues that could not be addressed in the questionnaires were given importance in the interview.

4.4.2.1. Piloting the interview

I piloted the interview schedule with two of my Turkish colleagues who were doing their doctoral studies in the field of history teaching during the time of data collection. One of them also worked as a history teacher in Turkey for several years before commencing his doctoral study. These two interviews were helpful in allowing me to familiarise myself with the interview situation and obtaining the respondents' feedback on some issues. For example, their recommendations on the questions I asked, explanations I offered and the terms and concepts I used in the interview schedule were all crucial in revising the interview plan. They recommended me to explain what I meant by the concept of 'the European dimension' or alter it to a familiar one since it was not clear for them. I prepared some explanatory notes about this concept to use during the interviews, if needed.

Based on their teaching and research experience, the participants in the pilot interviews also pointed out that the use of a tape recorder can be an obstruction for the interviewees, particularly for practising teachers who work as government officers in Turkey. In order to overcome this difficulty, I obtained all necessary official permission before approaching the respondents. Prior to each interview, the purpose and nature of this research and how the data would be utilised were clearly explained to each respondent. I also acquired the interviewees' consent for tape recording on each occasion. Moreover, the pilot interviews guided me to develop the interview schedule

² A copy of the interview schedule and its Turkish translation can be seen in Appendices G and H.

by reducing the number of items and follow up questions in accordance with the research questions and to improve the wording of the questions. Furthermore, during the time of qualitative data collection in May 2003, I sought to reflect on each interview and to anticipate the following ones accordingly. As a result, the interview schedule and consequently the quality of the interview data improved throughout the course of data collection, which will be considered next.

4.5. The Selection of the Sample, Access and Data Collection

As explained earlier, this study aims to explore Turkish practising and student history teachers' and history teacher educators' views on the potential implications of including an ED in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum and consequently its reflection on the pedagogy of history teaching and history teacher training. Focusing on the research sample leads to another question related to the empirical study: the sample size. Regarding this issue, Cohen *et al* indicate that; "*There is of course, no clear cut answer, for the correct sample size depends upon the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny*" (2000: 93). Additionally, the limitations of time, financial factors and other issues have impact on establishing the sample size (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994).

It was necessary to consider all the factors mentioned above during the formation of the research sample. As explained earlier in this chapter, the aim throughout the study is to provide balance between the breadth and depth of the empirical study. Thus, in order to increase the breadth of the study, I proposed to reach as many participants as I could for the administration of the questionnaires. However, the time and financial constraints forced me to limit the extent of the quantitative data collection. Moreover, obtaining permission to access the schools and institutions was another difficulty faced during the data collection.

In order to gain access, I requested a letter from my supervisor, which explained my study. I sent this letter and its translation to the MONE through the Turkish Embassy's Educational Counsellor's Office in London to get permission for the empirical study in secondary schools and teacher education institutions. Before my arrival in Turkey for the first phase of data collection, I received the Ministry's approval for accessing the secondary schools, but amongst the three universities only West University responded to my request. Hence, I needed to seek permission from Central and New universities

personally. Besides, the Ministry's approval was not enough to gain access to the schools. I was required to apply to the local governor's office in Ankara, then the provincial educational authority and finally the six sub-provincial educational authorities that were responsible for the schools from which I selected my teacher participants.³

It was a difficult task to produce a sample of practising history teachers in Turkey representing the whole population. There are several reasons for this: the complex procedures for obtaining the necessary permission to access schools; the limited number of history teachers in each school (in most instances one or two teachers per school); teachers' unwillingness to participate in a research study because of their unfamiliarity with empirical research and fear from the school administrators and other bureaucratic agencies owing to their position as civil servants; the limitations of time affecting both the teachers and myself as researcher; and insufficient financial support which did not allow me to travel to more than one province. Bearing in mind all these constraints, I decided to choose all the teacher participants from the schools located in and around Ankara, where I found accommodation and transportation far easier.

Throughout the last two weeks of March 2003, the time I allocated for the administration of the questionnaires, I managed to reach eighteen secondary schools (lycées) and sixty history teachers to administer the questionnaires. Before the selection of the schools, the locality and the specialty of each school was considered in order to provide balance, between rural, urban and suburban areas where the schools are located, and to ensure the fair representation of the schools offering education in various areas, such as in the areas of general, vocational, technical and science education. More background information about the teachers who participated in the questionnaire is presented in Table 4.2 below.

In my first visit to each school, I personally contacted every available history teacher, explained the purpose and nature of my research and requested them to take a part by responding to the questionnaire. Most of the teachers approached my request positively and agreed to fill in the questionnaire, which helped me to collect a total of sixty practising teacher questionnaires.

³ Three samples of permission letter to access schools and universities to carry out the empirical study are presented in Appendix I.

To administer questionnaires to student teachers and teacher educators, I chose three history education subdivisions out of the eight in Turkey. The three subdivisions are attached to the education faculties of three universities in three distant cities.⁴ In order to provide anonymity, the names of the three universities are replaced with three English nicknames, Central University, New University and West University. There are several reasons behind the selection of these three institutions. Firstly, it was more convenient for me to travel and gain access to them. Secondly, being established at different times, they represented three different phases of Turkish higher education and consequently three different educational perspectives.

Table 4.2. Background information about the questionnaire participants

		Teachers	Teacher Educators	Student Teachers	Total	
Gender	Male	38	23	79	140	
	Female	22	3	57	82	
Age	Teachers & T. Educators	Over 49	5	2	-	7
		40-49	21	6	-	27
		30-39	21	12	-	33
		Under 30	13	6	-	19
	Student Teacher	25-29	-	-	8	8
		20-24	-	-	126	126
		Under 20	-	-	2	2
University	New	-	6	39	45	
	West	1	11	46	57	
	Central	13	9	51	60	
	Other	46	-	-	-	
School Type	General	29	-	83	112	
	Voc./Technical	15	-	15	30	
	Anatolian/Science	8	-	22	30	
	Other	8	-	16	24	
Working Experience	Over 20 years	18	6	-	24	
	16-20 years	12	2	-	14	
	11-15 years	11	6	-	17	
	6-10 years	7	5	-	12	
	Under 6 years	12	6	-	18	
Total		60	26	136	222	

Thirdly, being subject to the influence of different socio-cultural, political and ideological viewpoints, these subdivisions were considered the representatives of the movements that have been influential in the shaping of the aims and objectives of history teaching and the content of the history curriculum in Turkey. Fourthly, for the training of history student teachers, the three history education subdivisions were

⁴ The location of the three cities on the map of Turkey can be viewed in Appendix J.

functioning in two different ways. More contextual information about the three teacher education institutions will be provided later in this section.

I decided to administer the teacher educator questionnaires to all the academics in the three history education subdivisions if possible, because the number of teacher educators in the three subdivisions was already limited. Besides, there were only three academics in New University's history education subdivision, so I looked for further questionnaire participants in the same university's history department where student teachers receive their subject knowledge education. I obtained permission from each subdivision to administer the questionnaires to the student teachers and academics. I managed to administer the questionnaires to most of the academics in the three subdivisions. At the end of the first phase of my data collection, I gathered twenty-six teacher educators' questionnaire, three of them being administered to academics from New University's history department.

Moreover, I decided to include only year five students in all three institutions, since they had already completed their subject knowledge education and were currently receiving the last part of their pedagogical training. Therefore, they were considered better informed about the issues covered by this study. I have obtained fifty-one student teachers' questionnaires from Central University, forty-six from West University and thirty-nine from New University. The total number of student teacher questionnaires in this study is 136.

As I mentioned earlier, the interview respondents were chosen from the questionnaire participants on a volunteer basis. Among fifteen practising teacher volunteers nine of them were available to take a part in the interviews during the second phase of my data collection. I conducted eight interviews with practising teachers. One of them refused to take part in my study later on. In addition, during the data collection in West University, I had the opportunity to interview another practising teacher who volunteered to participate.

I decided to interview the same number (five) of student teachers from each institution to provide a balance. Therefore, I interviewed five student teachers from Central University and another five from West University chosen from the volunteers. However, three out of five students from New University who volunteered to take part in this study did not attend the arranged interview sections. Hence, I sought to get appointments with the other volunteers. Finally, I managed to conduct interviews with

two other volunteering student teachers in this institution. I interviewed a total number of fourteen student teachers.

Volunteering was also the criterion for the selection of teacher educator interviewees. At the beginning, I decided to interview two academics from each institution, since there were only two volunteers from New University. During the process of interviewing however, I conducted three interviews with the academics of Central University. Moreover, I conducted one more teacher educator interview with an academic from the history education subdivision of East Istanbul University. In total, eight teacher educator interviews were conducted, which made the total number of interviews thirty-one. The next subsection provides brief information about higher education in Turkey. It also presents contextual information about three universities and their history education subdivisions from which student teachers and teacher educators are selected.

4.5.1. Higher education institutions employed in this study

This subsection starts with a short discussion of political and ideological movements that have been influential on Turkish higher education institutions. Then it gives brief accounts of three history education subdivisions employed in the empirical part of this study together with the information about the education faculties and universities they are affiliated to. Political and ideological perspectives are apparent in their general organisation. This has a corresponding impact on the academics working in these institutions.

4.5.1.1. Higher education in general

After the military coup in 1960, Turkey had a new constitution. The 1961 Constitution brought freedom and autonomy to Turkish higher education institutions. At the same time however, it provided the opportunity for the influence of political and ideological thoughts over universities. The rise of socialist movements throughout the world also influenced Turkish intellectuals, academics, students and therefore universities. The situation also encouraged some counter-movements in the country and also in universities. This political polarisation led to the formation of groups in universities, faculties and departments (Göze, 1987).

Later on, all universities or their divisions were dominated by one of the influential groups; generally called leftists and rightists.⁵ The influence of political ideas and ideologies can be traced in the works carried out by scholars and academics that belong to any of those groups (Özel and Çetinsaya, 2004). It can also be traced in the structure of the universities, faculties or departments. While a group dominates in an academic unit, its members try to expand their influence through various ways. For example, they recruit academics having similar political/ideological worldview (Göze, 1987).

After the military coup in 1980 Turkey had a new constitution, which led to the foundation of the HEC by the law no: 2547 (Gürüz, 2001). Some of the aims of its establishment were to co-ordinate all the higher education institutions in the country within the university structure, to direct higher education and scientific research in a positive way that would lead to the country's development, and to eliminate the influence of those politically and ideologically oriented groups from the academic units (Gürüz, 2001).

Gürüz (2001) states that the HEC achieved to co-ordinate and re-organise the higher education institutions in Turkey. It also helped to the expansion of higher education throughout the country and to an increase in the quantity of academic research (Baskan, 2001). However, the council could not decrease the influence of those politically oriented groups on the universities. On the contrary, those groups not only continued to maintain their domination on the old institutions but also constituted their subgroups in the newly established universities because the old universities supplied the academic staff for the new ones at the beginning. The ineffectiveness of those political influences is an exception only in some departments whose academic staffs are mainly research oriented and started their career abroad.

While looking at some specific subject areas or departments, the extent and direction of that politically or ideologically oriented domination can clearly be seen. For example, as a result of the influence of evaluation theory on natural sciences, the academic staffs in many biology departments are from a left-wing political orientation. Whereas, because of the traditional understanding and concept of history in Turkey, academics in history departments are mainly those people who are called rightists or conservative. It is

⁵ The terms: leftist and rightist are the literal translations of the Turkish words 'solcu' and 'sağcı'. They do not only indicate political and ideological preferences but also demonstrate their holders' position in the society or their general world-view, including politics, economics, religion, society and so on. Hence they differ from the English concepts 'right-wing' and 'left-wing'.

possible to see a leftist academic in a history department or a rightist in a biology department on rare occasions.

On the other hand, Education Faculties and their departments have been the focus of both groups because of their expansion and emergent importance. It can be stated that either group has been dominating several education faculties or some departments in those faculties. Like pure history departments, history education subdivisions are mainly dominated by right-wing academics. However, there are some exceptions, such as the one in West University, which is dominated by the leftists along with many other units of this university. The publications of the academics in this subdivision, those non-governmental organisations they are affiliated to and the finding of this study authenticate the above assertion.

4.5.1.2. Central University

Central University was first established as a teacher training institution in 1926 by M.K. Atatürk and his companions. The name of the institute was changed to ‘Central Teacher Training Institution’ in 1929. In 1976, the institution renamed again to ‘Central Educational Institute’ (Akyüz, 1999). In 1982, it became ‘Central University’ with the attachment of some other higher education institutions. The physical and educational capacities of the university have been expanding since 1982. Another interesting characteristic of Central University is the seven education faculties attached to it (GU, 2004).

Central Education Faculty was founded as ‘Secondary Level Teacher School and Training Institution’ in 1926. After several changes it formed the nucleus of the newly established Central University in 1982. (Akyüz, 1999). The faculty is regarded as one of the prominent teacher education institutions in Turkey because of its physical, technical capacities and the quality of education. It offers compulsory and optional courses based on semester periods and has undergraduate evening programmes alongside the daytime ones.

The subdivision of history education is a part of the secondary social sciences Education department. As an independent history education department it offered a four-year undergraduate course before 1998. The duration of the course in the history education subdivision changed to the new ten-semester system, comprising of subject knowledge education and pedagogical training (BA and MA degrees). The subdivision also offers a three-semester MA course (equivalent of PGCE) to the graduates of other departments

related to history teaching, such as history, art history, archaeology and politics. There were fourteen academics working for the subdivision.

Central University and most of its academics have been known to be closely associated with right-wing political thoughts. The general reflection of the particular geographical area or characteristics of educational practice in that region might explain for this situation. However, the deliberate formation of an ideological group seems to be more important. This rightist influence is quite clear in the Education Faculty and especially in its history education subdivision. The academics are known for their rightist world-view, which is characterised by conservatism and nationalism. This can be seen both from their occupational work and the organisations to which they are affiliated. It can be stated that they regard religion and religious issues positively. However, their view of secularism, which is the strongest argument used against them by the leftists, is also moderate.

They view concepts, such as internationalism, globalism and Europeaness with some degree of suspicion. They think that developed countries introduce these concepts to influence, colonise and assimilate under-developed societies and countries. Therefore, those societies and countries, including Turkey, must be aware and alert to this danger. Their view of Europe is restrained by an anxiety for national security.

They look at education from a nationalistic perspective: the aim of education is to raise Turkish citizens of the future to be equipped with the necessary intellectual, scientific and technological information/knowledge. These citizens should know how to obtain and use that information/knowledge. They are to be conscious of national identity and worship their country. They should also be aware of internal and external threats that might be directed at their country. It is not surprising to see similar impressions in the Turkish MONE's aims and objectives of education adapted at the beginning of 1980s by the military government. Academics of Central University and particularly those from Central Education Faculty are also linked to the projects and work carried out by the MONE.

4.5.1.3. West University

West University was founded on 1982. Seventeen previously founded institutions and other various higher education institutes around its locality were affiliated to the university in the same year. The university is mainly based at a city in western Turkey

but it had faculties and institutions in some other neighbouring towns. Those institutions and faculties pioneered the foundation of four other universities in the early 1990s.

Its Education Faculty was first established as West Education Institution in 1959. It developed and changed until 1978 when it turned into West Teacher College. The duration of the course it offers was also increased to four years. It was transformed into West Education faculty and affiliated to the newly established West University in 1982. Because of the quality of education and its physical and technical capacity, the faculty is regarded as one of the prominent teacher education institutions in Turkey. It offers compulsory and optional courses based on semester periods.

The subdivision of history education was first established as part of the social science education department in 1982. Later it was given an independent department status, which lasted until 1998 when teacher training institutions all over the country were restructured by the HEC. It became a part of the social science education department in that year. Prior to 1998, the history education department offered a four-year undergraduate course. Then it was changed to a combination of undergraduate and taught MA programmes the same in the other teacher training institutions, and the duration of course was extended to five years. The main aim of the history education subdivision is to educate secondary school history teachers for the country. At the time of data collection in 2003 there were seven academics working for the subdivision. Additionally, there was collaboration between academics in the history education subdivision and social sciences education subdivision of the same faculty. Hence, teacher educators from each subdivision were involved in each others academic activities. Due to this reason I administered four questionnaires to academics of the social sciences education subdivision.

In contrast to Central University, academics of West University are generally known for their connections with leftist political thoughts. However, this leftist view is very specific to Turkey, which is called Kemalizm. The main characteristic of this view is progressivism. It approaches many topics, specifically education from a developmental perspective. However, development in this context means the improvement of the country as a whole, not only the development of education in particular (Oran, 1997). The Kemalist perspective views education as an instrument to improve the country. According to this view, Turkey must be improved to reach the standards of developed western countries. To facilitate this improvement, the country needs to follow the ways

that western countries used before in order to change the individuals, the society and the country (Oran, 1997). However, pioneers of this view think that Turkey must adapt western ways of development into her own structures and activate her own dynamics (Berkes, 1964). They also argue that the role of religion in Turkey's educational and public life must be minimised and secularisation must be maintained in order to reach western development standards (Berkes, 1964).

The above paragraph shows that the common leftist view in Turkey proposes radical changes in society and country. However, the limitations it sets for those changes imply that, this view is also bounded by nationalistic characteristics to some degree (Oran, 1997). Nevertheless, the holders of this view see religion as an obstacle for the country's improvement. They try to put the cult of Atatürk, the founder of the Turkish Republic and some components of nationalism and secularism in place of religion to maintain moral aspects in general and in educational contexts (Kinzer, 2001; Bulaç, 2005).

This particular leftist view is very influential on West University's History Education Subdivision. Academics working in this unit are known for their leftist world-view characterised by socialism, progressivism, secularism and Atatürk's nationalism. As the term Atatürk's nationalism suggests, their view of concepts, such as internationalism, globalism and Europeanness is not expected to be different from that of rightist scholars (Oran, 1997). It is because, like the rightist perspective, the leftist view examines the international issues from a standpoint of national security, which requires a degree of suspicion and being well-prepared for the possibility of external danger (Oran, 1997). However, it must be added that there are some leftist academics who do not take the issue of national security seriously. They look at international issues freely and more positively.

Academics of West University view education from that progressive standpoint, foreseeing it as an instrument for the country's development, not for the development of pupils. Their perception of education differs from the rightist view in two main points. Firstly, according to their view, every stage and dimension of the educational processes must be defined and characterised by the principles and revolutions/reforms of Atatürk shaped by the ideology of Kemalizm (Kaplan, 1999). Secondly, the role and influence of religion and religious elements must be purified from those processes and secularism should be maintained in this context. History and history education, particularly the

teaching of those principles and revolutions/reforms of Atatürk, gained importance in this view as a result of their close connection with the leftist/Kemalist ideology.

4.5.1.3. New University

New University was established as a university in 1992 and offered education from the same academic year in some of its departments. Since then, it has been expanding its capacity physically and educationally. The Faculty of Education was one of the parts that existed before the time of establishment and then was taken over from another university.

New University's Education Faculty was first founded as a three-year primary teacher training school in 1955 offering teacher-training courses at upper secondary school level. In 1974, it was transformed into a two-year education institution offering undergraduate level teacher training. The institution was connected to European University, which is based in a neighbouring city and its name was changed to Education High School (college) in 1982. The duration of courses offered was increased to four years in 1989. Two years later its name was changed to 'New Education Faculty.' It was attached to New University soon after the establishment of this university in 1992 and still offers teacher-training courses in its eight departments including the secondary social sciences education department.

The subdivision of history education is a part of secondary social sciences education department. It had a four-year undergraduate course before 1998. The duration of the course in history education subdivision was increased to seven-semester subject knowledge education plus three-semester pedagogical training after the restructuring of education faculties in 1998. Because of the lack of academics in the subdivision, during their first seven semesters, students have to take their subject specific courses from the pure history department in the same university's Arts and Science Faculty. Then they are required to attend their eighth semester courses in the history education subdivision in order to complete their undergraduate programme.

The courses in the eighth, ninth and tenth semesters are officially evaluated as postgraduate education in a taught MA programme. It is combined with the undergraduate course and does not require the completion of a dissertation. The subdivision also offers this three-semester MA course for the graduates of other departments, which is related to history teaching. In the subdivision, there were three academics working at the time of data collection in 2003.

New University has been under the influence of both rightist and leftist ideologies since its foundation. From its foundation until the late 1990s rightist perspectives were influential in this university. After the change of the university's administration in 1999, the new administration changed most of the academics including the deans and head of departments. The number of academics in history education subdivision was only three at that time, which was more before 1999. As a result of this transition process, it is possible to say that both views are influential on this university, but the leftist influence is growing while the other one is decreasing.

4.6. Data Analysis

In this section, I introduce the processes of data analysis starting with the quantitative data.

4.6.1. The analysis of the quantitative data

Most of the items in the questionnaire were closed questions, which were appropriate for the use of statistical analysis. For the purpose of quantitative analysis, I used the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). First, I coded all the questionnaire data into three SPSS files according to the groups of the participants. Then all the data was gathered into a fourth file in an appropriate format to make the comparison of three groups possible. Second, with the help of the School of Education's statistician it was decided to use the frequencies and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test scores (Oppenheim, 1992; Pallant, 2001) obtained for each questionnaire item to examine the relationships and differences between the chosen variables, since these two forms of analysis were found appropriate for the purpose of this research and the nature of my data.

As mentioned earlier, due to the limitation of the study, the analysis of the quantitative data was limited to the comparison of three groups of participants and student teachers and teacher educators selected from three different institutions. Moreover, it was not considered appropriate to conduct further statistical tests to investigate the relationships between the answers obtained for different questionnaire items because the quantitative data in this study is only used in a descriptive way. Furthermore, the answers given to the open-ended questionnaire items were added to the interview data and analysed together.

4.6.2. The analysis of the qualitative data

With the consent of respondents all the interviews were recorded. All thirty-one interviews were transcribed and typed into separate MS Word files with the purpose of preparing them for analysis (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). This was a difficult task, but it provided me with an opportunity to familiarise myself with the sum of the whole data (Silverman, 2000). Each transcript was also marked in a particular way to provide the anonymity of the participant and at the same time allowing me to be able to track where the data came from. It is recommended to analyse the qualitative data simultaneously with data collection (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Bogdan and Biklen, 1992, Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Charmaz, 2000). However, due to limited time allowed for the data collection, I had to leave the analysis until after the data collection. According to Bogdan and Biklen qualitative data analysis entails:

... working with data, organising them, breaking them in to manageable units, synthesising them searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned and deciding what you will tell the others (1992: 153).

From the grounded theory perspective Strauss and Corbin state that:

... analysis is not a structured, static or rigid process. Rather, it is a free-flowing and creative one in which analysts move quickly back and forth between types of coding, using analytic techniques and procedures freely and in response to the analytic task before analysts (1998: 58).

NVivo qualitative data analysis software was used to analyse the qualitative data because it is useful for coding, sorting and integrating data. It has facilities to search the data and codes and to place memos in the text (Charmaz, 2000; Gibb, 2002). Before commencing the analysis, all interview transcripts were converted from MS Word files into 'Rich Text' format in order to make them appropriate to use in NVivo. Then they were transferred to NVivo software. In the next stage, I started coding, categorising and recoding the data in NVivo line by line (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This process of analysis comprised reading and reviewing the transcripts *"to dissect them meaningfully while keeping the relations between the parts intact..."* (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 56).

The subsequent coding of the data and establishing relationships between different nodes and categories (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) led to the creation of four main themes (in NVivo they are called models) emerging from the qualitative data. The last three main themes led to the three analysis chapters in this thesis. I named the first theme identity, which comprises participants' personal information and the motives directed

them towards the profession of history teaching. The other three themes and their sub-categories are presented in figure 4.1.⁶

I planned to analyse the interview data in detail by using NVivo's query and search facilities (Gibb, 2002) in the next phase. However, I could not utilise them for two reasons. Firstly, I was unable to translate all the data into English, since I had the bulk of 350 pages of interview transcripts.

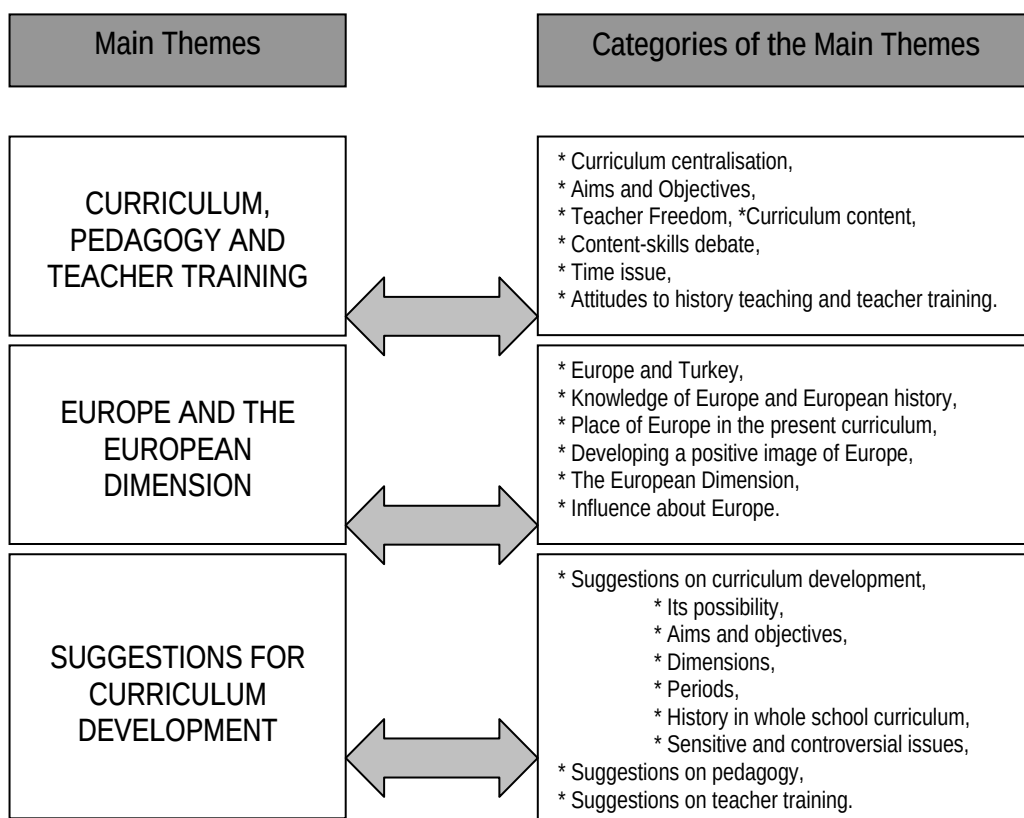


Figure 4.1. Main themes and their contents emerging from the qualitative data

Secondly, during the transcription of the tapes, I used Turkish characters for typing as I considered that the use of English characters might cause misreading or misunderstanding of some words in the later stages of the analysis. However, when I converted the MS Word files into the Rich Text formats (Rtf), the unique Turkish characters turned into strange symbols. After transferring the Rtf files into the NVivo database, the symbols representing Turkish characters changed once more and turned into different symbols. As a result, I acquired extraordinary results when I tried to use NVivo's search facilities, since the characters in the texts recorded in the software were different from the ones I could type for searching. Hence, I decided to continue the

⁶ One of the models obtained through the analysis in NVivo is presented in Appendix K.

analysis procedure manually, since I thought it would be costly to go back to the original data and transcribe all of it once again.

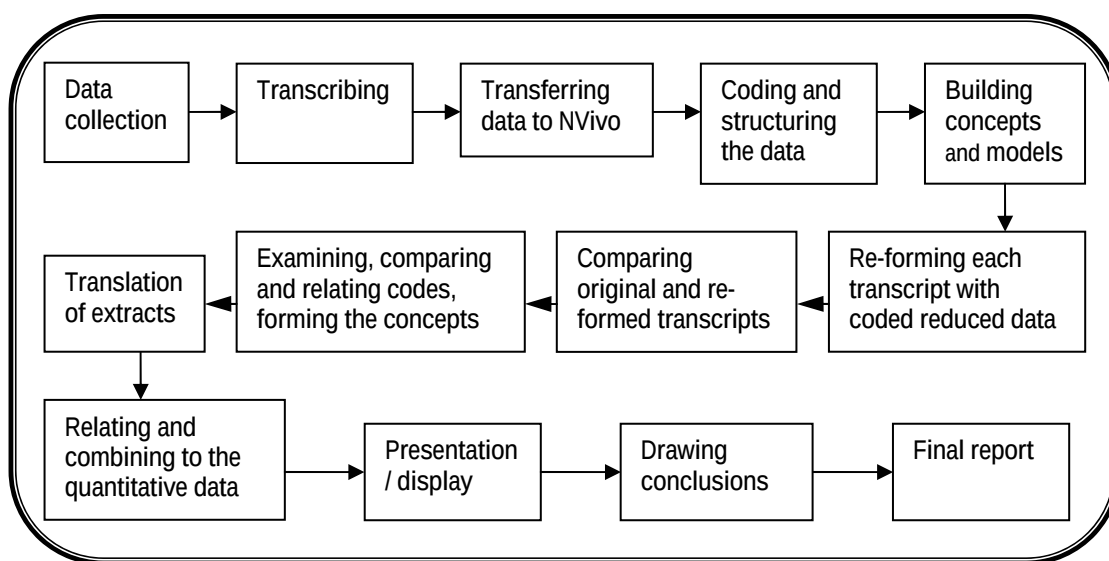


Figure 4.2. The process of the qualitative data analysis (Adapted from Altun, 2002)

I completed the rest of the qualitative analysis manually. It involved checking the codes and coding to prevent omissions or multiple codes, putting the coded pieces of each interview together and re-forming the interview transcripts again to compare with the original ones, which acted as a reliability check (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The other processes were examining and continually comparing the codes, relating codes to each other and forming concepts and broader categories (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Figure 4.2 demonstrates the process of qualitative data analysis in detail. The qualitative data are presented in a narrative format with the inclusion of paraphrasing or direct quotations in forthcoming chapters. Quotations from the interview scripts were translated into English by myself and then checked by a Turkish colleague to ensure the appropriateness of the translation.

4.7. Summary

In this chapter, the methodological framework and research design of this study have been outlined. The research focus was considered first. Then it was argued that combining quantitative and qualitative research methods has been an emerging methodological approach in social science research. Within this context, the mixed method approach employed in this study was explained and justified. The issues of validity, reliability and ethics were addressed in the third section from both quantitative

and qualitative standpoints. This section also presented the considerations about the ontological and epistemological issues through which I position myself within the research context. Then the research methods and the development of data collection instruments were discussed including the piloting of the questionnaires and the qualitative semi-structured interview schedule.

Section five outlined the sample of research population, their selection, access and the procedures of data collection. This section also provided information about the three history education subdivisions and the higher education institutions to which they are attached. Then the processes of quantitative and qualitative data analysis were outlined. In the following three chapters, I will present the findings gathered and analysed through the methodological framework discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS ON THE PRESENT CURRICULUM AND THE STATE OF HISTORY TEACHING

This first analysis chapter discusses the data on the participants' perspectives of the present Turkish secondary school history curriculum and the state of history teaching and the education of history teachers in Turkey. It is important and necessary to explore the participants' perspectives of the present curriculum and the state of history teaching and teacher education in order to provide a context for the study along with the available literature. There are two main sections in this chapter; the first one reports the participants' perspectives on the curriculum, while the second one examines their views on history teaching and the education of history teachers.

5.1. Perspectives on the Present Secondary School History Curriculum

This section explores the participants' views on the present secondary school history curriculum. It is to define and describe the main characteristics and problematic areas of the curriculum by analysing the quantitative and qualitative data. In this section, nine different features of the Turkish history curriculum were examined. These are the curriculum centralisation, aims and objectives of history teaching, teacher freedom, context of the content, view of the content, dimensions of the content, periods of history selected for the curriculum, content-skill comparison and the comparison of the time allocated to teach history and the content prescribed by the same curriculum.

The questionnaire data is presented by percentages and frequencies of the responses given by student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators. The attitudes and views of the student teachers and teacher educators from different institutions were compared to find out whether there were any different opinions. The differences between three groups of participants and between the student teachers and teacher educators from different universities were also investigated through the use of the Kruskal-Wallis test. These results are presented within the text when they show statistically significant differences amongst different groups.

5.1.1. Centralised curriculum:

The objective of this subsection is to explore participants' perspectives on the centralised structure of the Turkish curriculum. Responses given to the questionnaire item 2.1 revealed that 60% of the participants did not support the idea of a centralised curriculum. This opposition differed amongst the groups of participants. Teacher educators opposed the statement more than the other two groups did, while teachers' opposition was the lowest as the data in Table 5.1 show.

Table 5.1 Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 2.1 in the questionnaire by the groups of participants

Questionnaire Statement	Attitude	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.1. I support the view of centralised curriculum.	Disagree	59.7	80	53.3	32	76.9	20	60.0	123
	Neutral	16.4	22	11.7	7	3.8	1	13.6	30
	Agree	23.9	32	35.0	21	19.2	5	26.4	58

The comparison of the responses given by the student teachers and teacher educators from the three universities to this statement indicated no statistically significant difference between the universities. The data presented in Table 5.2 demonstrate that studying or working in a teacher training institution did not determine one's view about the idea of centrally defined and administered curriculum. However, the percentages and frequencies obtained for the teacher educators from the three universities revealed a degree of difference amongst the participants from Central University and their colleagues from the other two universities.

Table 5.2 Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 2.2 in the questionnaire by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statement	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.2. I support the view of centralised curriculum.	Dis.	62.0	31	66.7	6	63.0	29	81.8	9	52.6	20	83.3	5
	Neu.	18.0	9	---	--	8.7	4	---	--	23.7	9	16.7	1
	Ag.	20.0	10	33.3	3	28.3	13	18.2	2	23.7	9	---	--

The qualitative data gathered through the semi-structured interviews supported the findings of the questionnaire data. Most of the interview participants did not favour the idea of centralised curriculum on various grounds. For example some participants like teacher educator TE8 opposed the centralised curriculum with the motives of teacher and pupil autonomy, and the philosophical perspective of teaching history for its own sake. S/he said:

I principally favour the idea of teacher autonomy. That is to say I prefer teachers and pupils selecting the content and methods of their course, instead of detailed selection and statement of curriculum content by a central authority. As you know it is almost impossible to read, learn and understand all the topics or matters in history. Eventually, history is a scientific discipline and pupils should enjoy the methodology of it. Teachers and pupils should have an opportunity to study a historical topic in depth. If it is insisted on having a centralised curriculum it may include optional units, from which teachers and pupils can select whatever topic they want to study. However, the centralised university entrance exam is still out there. (TE8)

Furthermore, there were some respondents who disagreed with the idea of a centralised curriculum because of the system or structure in which the centralised curriculum generally occurs.

I think that because the TES and consequently the curriculum have got centralised and bureaucratic characteristics it is very difficult to change or improve anything within this system. There are lots of resistance points inside the system that prevent the success of any attempt for improvement. (ST1)

The data analysed and presented here indicated that the participants of this study did not support the view of centralised curriculum in general. Although the statistics showed a difference amongst the three groups of participants, this statement does not indicate any dissent between the groups or between the participants from three universities. The interview findings also point out that some participants opposed the idea of a centralised curriculum for several reasons, such as it limits pupil and teacher freedom or leads to the misuse of school subjects for bureaucratic or socio-political purposes.

5.1.2. Aims and objectives:

The aim in this subsection is to find out the participants' views about the aims and objectives of history teaching stated in the existing curriculum by means of analysing the relevant questionnaire items and interview data. As the data presented in Table 5.3 show, most of the participants (53.8%) did not think that 'the curriculum sets clear aims and objectives'. The majority of questionnaire respondents (61.5%) did not believe that those aims and objectives proposed by the curriculum are achievable by most of the pupils. While the answers given by the student teachers and teacher educators showed consistency in both items, the teachers stated relatively positive attitudes about the statement: 'the curriculum sets clear aims and objectives.'

Table 5.3. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.3 and 2.4 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.2. The curriculum sets clear aims and objectives for the course	Dis.	59.3	80	41.7	25	53.8	14	53.8	119
	Neu.	12.6	17	15.0	9	11.5	3	13.1	29
	Ag.	28.1	38	43.3	26	34.6	9	33.0	73
2.3. The aims and objectives set by the curriculum are achievable by most of the students	Dis.	57.8	78	66.7	40	69.2	18	61.5	136
	Neu.	23.0	31	13.3	8	11.5	3	19.0	42
	Ag.	19.3	26	20.0	12	19.2	5	19.5	43

The responses of the student teachers and teacher educators were also compared according to their universities to see whether there was any variation between the participants' points of view of the aims and objectives stated in the curriculum and the university at which they worked or studied. Although the percentages and frequencies presented in Table 5.4 displayed diversity amongst participants from different universities, particularly for teacher educators, the Kruskal-Wallis test scores obtained for both items did not show any statistically significant difference between those subgroups. This might be a result of small sample size of teacher educator subgroups.

Table 5.4. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.3 and 2.4 by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.2. The curriculum sets clear aims and objectives for the course	Dis.	60.8	31	66.7	6	58.7	27	54.5	5	57.9	22	33.3	2
	Neu.	17.6	9	---	--	8.7	4	18.2	2	10.5	14	16.7	1
	Ag.	21.6	11	33.3	3	32.6	15	27.3	3	31.6	12	50.0	3
2.3. The aims and objectives set by the curriculum are achievable by most of the students	Dis.	66.7	34	55.6	5	58.7	27	90.9	10	44.7	17	50.0	3
	Neu.	23.5	12	11.1	1	19.6	9	9.1	1	26.3	10	16.7	1
	Ag.	9.8	5	33.3	3	21.7	10	---	--	28.9	11	33.3	2

The semi-structured interviews on the other hand, provided insight into the aims and objectives of history teaching stated in the present curriculum. During the interviews, I presented the existing aims and objectives of the curriculum to the participants and asked them whether those aims and objectives were actually practiced in schools. I should indicate that almost all of the participants expressed negative opinions about those aims and objectives of history teaching and their practicability.

Many of the interviewees expressed their views that pupils cannot acquire enough historical knowledge/information and understanding during their three-year secondary schooling to complete the curriculum. Most of the interview participants stated that pupils grasp or memorise some content knowledge only in order to get good marks from exams. They put forward various reasons. The reasons which all three groups of the

respondents agreed on were the university entrance exam and the loaded and extensive subject knowledge introduced in the curriculum. According to the interviewees the content of the curriculum was also not appropriate to materialise the aims and objectives it proposes. One teacher stated that:

Pupils learn history partially. I have to say that pupils have got a different worry nowadays, which is to get an acceptable and sufficient mark from the university entrance exam in order to reserve a place in a degree programme. Because of the university entrance examination system they learn history or any other subject for the same objective: to pass the exams. To get a place in good department in a well-known university is a target not only for pupils but also for their parents. So, it can be said that secondary education has been turned into a programme that prepares pupils for the university. Therefore, those aims and objectives stated in the curriculum are taken in the second, the third or the fourth ranks after the requirements set by the University Entrance Examination Board. (T7)

Similar to many other interview respondents, student teacher ST3 asserted that the curriculum was not appropriate to practice those aims and objectives of history teaching introduced in it.

The curriculum is not appropriate for materialising those aims and objectives because it presents intensive, boring and detailed content knowledge. However, albeit they have to follow the instructions of the curriculum, I believe that teachers can reach this goal, if they really want.”(ST3)

In addition to those, some teacher educators stated that the government’s education policy, the TES and the general educational perspectives were the other important reasons preventing the application of the aims and objectives stated in the curriculum.

One teacher educator said:

I don’t think that pupils get that information/knowledge as foreseen in the curriculum and really understand it. It isn’t just because of pupils I believe. It is a result of a general perspective of the school curriculum and the governments’ education policies. All of these are connected to each other. As a result of governments’ unitary structure, we aim to bring up people who can fit this system by means of social science disciplines and fine arts like history, literature and etc. So, I think we don’t care about how pupils develop we care about bringing them up as favourable citizens for our country and the political system. (TE8)

Furthermore, some teacher educators and student teachers stated that overcrowded classrooms and insufficient and unwilling teachers were the other reasons that affect the practice of the history curriculum negatively. TE2 noted this:

I’ve seen that schools and classes are very crowded. Teachers are also not willing to renew their methodological and technical capacities. I think that after graduating from the university, they regard themselves as qualified specialists. Most of them are also not enthusiastic to learn about developments in education sector or to improve themselves. (TE2)

On the other hand, practising teachers indicated pupils’ lack of interest in history as a factor lowering their success.

Most pupils aren't interested in history at all. They don't consider history important either. And most of them live in their own worlds isolated from today's events, politics or they don't even think of their future. Some of them don't like history and some others have got presumptions or prejudices about history. I think these are related to their educational background and world view. (T1)

Developing a historical perspective and understanding through school history is another purpose of history teaching in the curriculum. The analysis of interview data demonstrated the participants' view that the majority of pupils do not develop a historical perspective and understanding. According to the participants, there are several reasons for this negative remark, such as the curriculum, textbooks, general understanding and methods of history teaching in the country, the university entrance exam and pupils' lack of interest in history. TE6 stated that:

It's not possible to assume that pupils can develop a perspective of history within the current practice, which only expects pupils to memorise some events, their dates and names. There's nothing about reasoning or questioning the historical information in the curriculum and textbooks. It's due to the concern of preparing pupils for the university exams. (TE6)

A practising teacher highlighted the place of rote learning on this negative conclusion:

I think only a limited number of students can develop a perspective of history. Because of the system disorder, starting from primary schools, which made them get used to rote learning and memorisation. Most pupils can't improve any historical point of view or any ability to interpret historical information. Consequently, they memorise things. When they come across different information or interpretation they just forget the initial knowledge and memorise the new one. (T2)

According to the participants, only a few pupils can materialise the aim of developing a perspective of history. Those pupils must have been influenced by their families or environments, having an interest in history, being taught and helped by good, enthusiastic teachers, or attending better schools that offer quality education. One student teacher inserted this viewpoint as:

I have come across some pupils who have got a historical consciousness, but I don't think they got it from the school. It should be their families raising them like this. They follow the news about their environment and the world, or read about particular issues. However, I should say that I teach in an Anatolian Lyceé, whose pupils are selected amongst the most successful ones. I don't think that pupils from regular schools are at the same level. (ST5)

A further theme related to the aims and objectives of history teaching in the curriculum emerging from the interviews is that of pupils making connections between historical events and today's situations, which is also foreseen by the present curriculum. The majority of participants again presented negative opinions. They indicated that most pupils cannot make connections between the past and today because of their lack of interest in current issues. As T1 explained:

I'm teaching hundreds of pupils and I don't think many of them can make connections between the past and the present times. It's because they don't consider any of these issues important or relevant to their lives. Anyway, most of them live in their own world away from today's life, politics or the future. (T1)

Whereas, the teacher educators and student teachers thought that the curriculum and textbooks, which do not allocate the necessary space for contemporary history, are the main causes for pupils' inability to make connections between the past and today. TE1 reported this as:

Pupils can't connect history and today's situations. I think this is related to the fact that there is no place for contemporary history in the curriculum and textbooks. The lack of near history makes it difficult for pupils to make connection between history and the problems of today's world. The curriculum includes history until the Second World War. The information about the twentieth century in the curriculum is very limited. (TE1)

According to the participants the only pupils who could make those connections were the few who followed current news and events by means of publications and mass media, and who had been taught and helped by proper, enthusiastic teachers.

The interview data also revealed that most of the participants thought that the aims and objectives stated in the curriculum have socially defined characteristics. In other words, the interviewees believed that the curriculum aims to socialise pupils by means of history teaching. According to the interviewees social aims were deliberately located in the curriculum to raise pupils as conscious citizens in respect of the needs and ideals of the Turkish society. Most of the participants were not contented with the political and ideological influences on the formation of those social aims and objectives stated in the curriculum and on the principles of the Turkish Education System. Some interviewees noted that those social aims and objectives replace the disciplinary aims and objectives of history teaching. One of the teacher educators stated that:

I think pupils do learn history, but the extent and effectiveness of their learning is a matter of question. Because social science courses from early primary years to the last year of secondary schooling are well connected, and they aim to create a sense of common past in order to develop a citizenship consciousness. Religion, language, culture, history and such matters have crucial importance for developing this consciousness anyway. So, history courses are very important for realising this. However, political thoughts and intentions coerce educational practices at this point. Political views influence the general perspectives of what kind of citizens we want and how to raise them while school curricula and other educational programmes are constituted. (TE1)

Some respondents added that those social aims and objectives reflected the particular characteristics of the TES. One of the teachers asserted that:

I don't think that pupils learn history as the curriculum proposes. I believe it is because of the TES and our common educational understanding. In my view, the TES has got a military structure from top to toe. For instance, pupils have to wear uniforms; they have to obey the rules like boys

having short hair, girls wearing knee-length skirts or welcoming teachers in the classroom by standing up. I think all these things were inherited from the last century's military educational structures. So, in this structure, people don't have any worry for thinking, questioning, reflecting, because everything happens according to the military rules and orders. (T8)

Moreover, some participants argued that the curriculum itself is not appropriate for materialising those social aims and objectives. They thought that those aims and objectives were neither reasonable and realistic nor concordant with the curriculum content. Two interviewees expounded this assertion.

The curriculum contains excessive and detailed content knowledge, which is quite monotonous. Therefore, I should say that it's not appropriate to practice those aims and objectives. (ST3)

Those aims and objectives stated in the curriculum do not seem to be appropriate for secondary school pupils or even for adults. They are principally designed to create a sense of common past in order to develop a citizenship consciousness. Of course history is as important as the other things like language, religion, culture for developing a citizenship consciousness. However, the political thoughts and powers try to interfere in these kinds of situations with an intention of shaping the concept of citizenship according to their own beliefs. Hence, I can't say that those aims and objectives of history teaching stated in the curriculum were defined appropriately. (TE1)

Developing a sense of international understanding and awareness through school history was another curriculum objective. The majority of participants thought that it is difficult to materialise this objective. According to the participants, national perspectives and Turkish national history dominated the curriculum, which functions against the idea of developing a sense of international understanding and awareness. Therefore, they were reluctant to say that pupils can develop an international understanding or a broader world perspective foreseen by the curriculum. T1 indicated that:

I don't think they can develop an international understanding from history lessons because of the incapacity of the curriculum. Even if we assume that it was included in the curriculum, it would be very difficult to expect a good practice because experienced teachers are not willing to change what they have been used to do. (T1)

According to a student teacher, developing a sense of international understanding is not harmonious with the content of the curriculum.

I don't think history teaching can help pupils to develop an international understanding because the curriculum mostly introduces national history. It hasn't got any international perspective or approach. In fact, some textbooks present a fascist perspective. The Turkish history presented in the curriculum and textbooks isn't compared or contrasted with the world history either. Therefore it's impossible to develop an international understanding. (ST10)

Moreover, some respondents put forward that instead of acquiring an international understanding, pupils develop hostility towards the others, because of the education system and history curriculum.

The findings of this section lead to the conclusion that the aims and objectives of history teaching introduced in the present curriculum are neither clear nor achievable for the average pupils. The findings also indicate that those aims and objectives stated in the curriculum are not practicable in the classroom because of various reasons. The reasons were inadequate curriculum and textbooks; incompetent and unwilling teachers; uninterested and unmotivated pupils; university entrance exam; and the dominant understandings of education and history teaching in the country. According to the interview findings, secondary school pupils neither learn the historical knowledge foreseen by the curriculum adequately nor are able to make connections between that historical knowledge and today's events. It was also revealed that secondary school pupils do not acquire those social aims stated in the curriculum or develop an international understanding. The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data about the issues covered here did not indicate any specific difference between the views of three groups of the participants or the participants from three universities. The only distinction is that practising teachers' general view on the presentation of the aims and objectives in the curriculum was neither very positive nor negative.

5.1.3. The curriculum and teacher freedom:

The aim in this section is to explore the participants' points of view on the structure of the curriculum and related regulations and the freedom of history teachers in this subsection. Three questionnaire items were designed to find out participants' points of view on the curriculum and teacher freedom. According to data presented in Table 5.5, none of the three groups agreed with the statement 'the curriculum allows teachers to select themes and topics.' However, each group's opposition were different as the data in the Table 5.5 show. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant difference amongst student teachers and teacher educators from different universities (see Table 5.6.).

Regarding to the item 2.5, a difference worth noting occurred between student teachers and the other two groups (*chi square*= 9.176, *p*= .01 in .05 level) (see Table 5.5). While the majority of practising teachers and teacher educators agreed with the statement 'teachers have to teach the content introduced by the curriculum' student teachers did not agree with them. Despite the percentages of answers given by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities presented in Table 5.6 showed diversity of

opinions amongst three groups, the Kruskal-Wallis test result obtained for this item did not indicate any significant difference.

Table 5.5. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.4. The curriculum allows teachers to select themes and topics	Dis.	61.7	82	52.5	31	76.9	20	61.0	133
	Neu.	15.0	20	15.3	9	11.5	3	14.7	32
	Ag.	23.3	31	32.2	19	11.5	3	24.3	53
2.5. It is compulsory for teachers to teach the content introduced by the curriculum	Dis.	48.9	66	33.9	20	32.0	8	42.9	94
	Neu.	11.1	15	---	--	8.0	2	7.8	17
	Ag.	40.0	54	66.1	39	60.0	15	49.3	108
2.6. In the classroom, teachers have freedom to alter the order of topics given in the curriculum	Dis.	41.0	55	45.8	27	65.4	17	45.2	99
	Neu.	14.2	19	6.8	4	3.8	1	11.0	24
	Ag.	44.8	60	47.5	28	30.8	8	43.8	96

The statistical data obtained for the statement ‘in the classroom, teachers have freedom to alter the order of topics given in the curriculum’ did not show any significant difference amongst the three groups of participants or student teachers and teacher educators from different universities. Nevertheless, the percentages and frequencies of the responses presented in Table 5.5 reveal that contrary to the other two groups, teacher educators thought that teachers did not have a freedom to alter the order of topics in the classroom.

Table 5.6. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6 by student teachers and teachers educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.4. The curriculum allows teachers to select themes and topics	Dis.	56.9	29	77.8	7	67.4	31	90.9	10	61.1	22	50.0	3
	Neu.	17.6	9	---	--	8.7	4	---	--	19.4	7	50.0	3
	Ag.	25.5	13	22	2	23.9	11	9.1	1	19.4	7	---	--
2.5. It is compulsory for teachers to teach the content introduced by the curriculum	Dis.	58.8	30	22.2	2	45.7	21	30.0	3	39.5	15	50.0	3
	Neu.	5.9	3	11.1	1	10.9	5	---	--	18.4	7	16.7	1
	Ag.	35.3	18	66.7	6	43.5	20	70.0	7	42.1	16	33.3	2
2.6. In the classroom, teachers have freedom to alter the order of topics given in the curriculum	Dis.	49.0	25	55.6	5	34.8	16	55.6	5	37.8	14	50.0	3
	Neu.	9.8	5	11.1	1	15.2	7	11.1	1	18.9	7	---	--
	Ag.	41.2	21	33.3	3	50.0	23	33.3	3	43.2	16	50.0	3

The reason for this could be the differences between what was foreseen in the curriculum in relation to the laws and regulations, and the actual practices in the classroom. As the data in Table 5.6 reveals the student teachers and teacher educators from three universities did not present different opinions about the curriculum and teacher freedom.

The qualitative data particularly obtained from the teacher interviews verified the above quantitative findings. Most teachers asserted that the curriculum limits their freedom in the classroom as T6 stated:

The curriculum is very crowded and loaded with extensive content knowledge, which consists of names or dates from history. We try to mention all those details in order to make them heard by pupils. That's it. I mean the curriculum is not appropriate for addressing pupils freely or meet the individual needs of each pupil. It doesn't let us proceed with the lessons freely. (T6)

The student teachers' views conceived with this, as the extract below shows:

I regard the curriculum as handcuffs put on to teachers' hands and feet. It forces teachers to teach the load of given topics in order to catch up with the programme, which limits the activities and conditions of teaching and learning. (ST9)

As it was indicated by the quantitative data, the teachers did not follow all the requirements of the curriculum in the classroom. According to the interview data teachers choose to alter the order of topics presented in the curriculum, or change the way of teaching in order to make their lessons more effective, understandable and relevant to pupils' lives. One teacher said that:

I believe that making history relevant for pupils is important. For example if the Armenian Question appears in the media very frequently, I start teaching about it. I play with the curriculum like this. Otherwise, it presents all those topics in a chronological order and expects us to complete the term as in the plan. Then however, everything is turning in a mess and all the topics in the curriculum couldn't be completed. Therefore, I should say that the curriculum is an obstacle for our teaching. (T5)

According to the data presented and discussed here, the curriculum did not allow teachers to select themes or topics; to introduce historical knowledge other than what was designated in the curriculum; or to alter the order of topics in the classroom. The findings also indicated diversity between the points of view of the teacher educators, who thought that the history curriculum did not allow teachers any freedom, and the student and practising teachers, who stated that they had a limited degree of freedom in the classroom. This difference seems to be a result of discord between the actual teaching practise in the classroom and what the curriculum instructs. It also implies that some teacher educators did not have the essential knowledge and expertise about the practice of secondary history.

5.1.4. Main features of the curriculum content

This subsection explores the participants' points of view on some characteristics of the curriculum content. These characteristics are the source or context, perspective,

historical dimensions and historical periods. The examination of the data about the curriculum content was thought to be necessary and important for having a picture of what the participants saw as the crucial parts of the present curriculum and what they considered as negative features of it.

1.1.4.1. Contexts of the curriculum content:

In this part, the participants' perspectives on the source of history from where the curriculum selects themes and topics are discussed. Source or context of history here means the broader area of history from which the themes and topics presented in the curriculum were selected, such as local, national or world history.

Table 5.7. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.7 and 2.8 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.7 The curriculum presents a balanced amount of local, national, European and world history	Dis.	82.8	111	67.8	40	88.0	22	79.4	173
	Neu.	9.0	12	6.8	4	12.0	3	8.7	19
	Ag.	8.2	11	25.4	15	---	--	11.9	26
2.8. The curriculum mainly presents Turkish national history	Dis.	16.4	22	28.3	17	34.6	9	21.8	48
	Neu.	2.2	3	5.0	3	3.8	1	3.2	7
	Ag.	80.1	109	66.7	40	61.5	16	75.0	165

According to the questionnaire findings, most of the participants (79.4%) did not think that the curriculum presented local, national, European and world history in an equal and fair way. The percentages of the responses also indicated that teachers' opposition to this item was not as strong as that of the other two groups. This was also found statistically significant ($\chi^2=8.653, p=.01$ in .05 level), which probably arose from the practising teachers' professional position as civil servants. The comparison of the student teachers' and teacher educators' data collected from three universities indicated that the content of the curriculum is not balanced between local, national, European and world histories. The analysis did not reveal any significant difference amongst the participants from different universities as seen in Table 5.8.

Moreover, 75% of the total number of the questionnaire participants stated that the curriculum mainly presents Turkish national history. The analysis of data segments presented in Table 5.7 shows a statistically significant difference amongst three groups of the participants ($\chi^2=7.475, p=.02$ in .05 level) and teacher educators from three universities ($\chi^2=7.579, p=.02$ in .05 level). As the percentages and frequencies of responses presented in Table 5.8 show, on the contrary to all the other

subgroups, the teacher educators from Central University did not agree with the statement ‘the curriculum mainly presents Turkish national history.’ The analysis did not show any significant difference between the three groups of the student teachers.

Table 5.8. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to items 2.7 and 2.8 by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.7. The curriculum presents a balanced amount of local, national, European and world history	Dis.	78.4	40	88.9	8	89.1	41	100	10	81.1	30	66.7	4
	Neu.	7.8	4	11.1	1	6.5	3	---	--	13.5	5	33.3	2
	Ag.	13.7	7	---	--	4.3	2	---	--	5.4	2	---	--
2.8. The curriculum mainly presents Turkish national history	Dis.	19.6	10	55.6	5	19.6	9	18.2	2	8.1	3	33.3	2
	Neu.	21.6	1	11.1	1	---	--	---	--	5.4	2	---	--
	Ag.	78.4	40	33.3	3	80.4	37	81.8	9	86.5	32	66.7	4

The qualitative data gathered also highlight the similar perspectives about the source of content introduced in the curriculum. Most of the interviewees pointed out that the curriculum mainly consists of Turkish history; presents limited information about European history and does not include any topic from a broader world history or local history contexts. This situation is defined as undertaking Turkology by one of the teacher interviewees. He/she asserted:

Our approach to history teaching isn't scientific or objective. It has also got the characteristics of Turkology. We only do Turkology, which introduces lots of detailed and unnecessary knowledge/information from Turkish history. (T8).

TE7 stressed that the curriculum needs to be investigated thoroughly because of the selection of its content.

The curriculum mainly presents Turkish history flavoured by some topics on Islamic history. The place given to European history is very little. Therefore, it needs to be scrutinised. (TE7)

Another interview respondent shared the same opinion highlighting the excessive space devoted to the Ottoman history in the curriculum and added that it does not present the Ottoman history synchronically or comparatively with European history of the same period.

It can be concluded that the participants of this study believed that the present Turkish history curriculum did not allocate appropriate spaces for topics and themes from local, European and world history contexts. The data also indicate that the curriculum mainly focuses on Turkish national history. However, some differences are seen amongst the views of three groups of participants and the teacher educators from different

universities. In other words, practising teachers and teacher educators from Central University presented sympathetic opinions about the existing curriculum while the other subgroups criticised it.

1.1.4.2. Perspective of the curriculum content:

The purpose of this part is to find out the participants views about the historical perspective of the curriculum. In the previous subsection the participants' views on the source of history from which the curriculum chooses themes and topics were discussed. The data evaluated here on the other hand, is about the perspective of history from which the curriculum presents those themes and topics.

The percentages and frequencies in Table 5.9 revealed that the participants of this study validated those statements discussed in the relevant literature by rejecting the statements 2.9: 'the curriculum presents a balanced view of local, national, European and world history' (71.7%) and 2.11: 'the curriculum is appropriate for presenting different historical perspectives in the classroom' (75.5%), whilst accepting the assertion: 'the curriculum presents a nationalistic view of history' (62.7%). Kruskal-Wallis test results also indicate some significant differences amongst the three groups' answers given to the items 2.9 (*chi square*=22.583, *p*= .00 in .05 level) and 2.11 (*chi square*=13.441, *p*= .00 in .05 level). The differences probably arise from the divergence of opinions especially between the teachers and teacher educators.

Table 5.9. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.9, 2.10 and 2.11

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.9. The curriculum presents a balanced view of local, national, European and world history	Dis.	78.2	104	50.0	30	88.5	23	71.7	157
	Neu.	12.8	12	18.3	11	7.7	2	13.7	30
	Ag.	9.0	17	31.7	19	3.8	1	14.6	32
2.10. The curriculum presents a nationalistic view of history	Dis.	21.5	29	35.6	21	38.5	10	27.3	60
	Neu.	11.1	15	6.8	4	11.5	3	10.0	22
	Ag.	67.4	91	57.6	34	50.0	13	62.7	138
2.11. The curriculum is appropriate for presenting different historical perspectives in the classroom	Dis.	77.8	105	61.0	36	96.2	25	75.5	166
	Neu.	10.4	14	11.9	7	---	--	9.5	21
	Ag.	11.9	16	27.1	16	3.8	1	15.0	33

The analysis of the student teacher and teacher educator data revealed that the participants from West University put the strongest criticism against the features of the current curriculum by means of these three questionnaire items (see Table 5.10). In contrast, the answers given by participants from Central University were found more

supportive of the present curriculum, while responses obtained from New University were moderate. For the item 2.10, statistically significant differences are observed amongst the student teachers (*chi square*=9.117, *p*= .01 in .05 level), and teacher educators from different universities (*chi square*=8.046, *p*= .02 in .05 level). Another interesting point was seen on the answers given to the same questionnaire item by participants from Central University. While the student teachers and some teachers who graduated from this university claimed that the curriculum presents a nationalistic view of history, the teacher educators from this university expressed some contrasting opinions.

Table 5.10. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.9, 2.10 and 2.11 by student teachers and teacher educators from three different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.9. The curriculum presents a balanced view of local, national, European and world history	Dis.	72.5	37	88.9	8	88.9	40	90.9	10	73.0	27	83.3	5
	Neu.	11.8	6	---	--	6.7	3	9.1	1	21.6	8	16.7	1
	Ag.	15.7	8	11.1	1	4.4	2	---	--	5.4	2	---	--
2.10. The curriculum presents a nationalistic view of history	Dis.	35.3	18	66.7	6	13.0	6	18.2	2	13.2	5	33.3	2
	Neu.	11.8	6	22.2	2	8.7	4	---	--	13.2	5	16.7	1
	Ag.	52.9	27	11.1	1	78.3	36	81.8	9	73.7	28	50.0	3
2.11. The curriculum is appropriate for presenting different historical perspectives	Dis.	80.4	41	88.9	8	76.1	35	100	11	76.3	29	100	6
	Neu.	9.8	5	---	--	13.0	6	---	--	7.9	3	---	--
	Ag.	9.8	5	11.1	1	10.9	5	---	--	15.8	6	---	--

Participants' responses to related interview questions supported the above given quantitative findings. Most of the interviewees thought that the content introduced in the curriculum does not have a fair approach equally including local, national, European and world histories, except for the teacher educators from Central University, most of the respondents also noted that the curriculum presented a nationalistic version of history. One of the teachers said:

There is a very strict perspective of national history in the curriculum. It highlights the principles of nationalism too much, which affects the quality of teaching in the classroom by preventing the discussion of different historical perspectives. I do not agree with the idea of 'Turkish History either'. There is only one history for me which inevitably includes history of mankind as a whole, the interaction between various societies or nations, which influence each other either in a positive or negative way. (T5)

One student teacher affirmed that the curriculum introduced the nationalistic view of history as the official perspective. S/he argued:

The curriculum and textbooks are suitable for giving pupils the concept of 'the other' that we generally call the official history. In the curriculum and most of the textbooks we claim the ownership or possession of the Ottomans. I mean we don't say that we're as much the successors of the Ottomans as the Serbs are. The curriculum always presents the Greeks as our enemies. That

is to say that we teach pupils the concepts of 'us' and 'the others' very well. There is no place for a shared and peaceful understanding of history at all. (ST6)

Another student teacher supported this view from a different position and asserts that

I think that there is a censorship about the history of Turkish Republic. I mean you cannot criticise anything about Turkish Republic and its history. This censorship should end. (ST5)

Some interview respondents also asserted that the common understanding of history or what they called official history was a biased and stereotyped perspective.

Our understanding of history is based on heroes and heroic events. We always talk about our victories and glorious past and attribute our defeats and faults to the others or some silly reasons. If we did something wrong in the past we can always find excuses or blame the others for the responsibility. Besides, it's a chauvinistic approach, which makes most of us to agree with those clichés like Greeks are our enemies or Europeans don't like us. (ST10)

The data analysed here indicated that the participants thought that the present curriculum was not appropriate for presenting different historical perspectives in the classroom. Except the teacher educators from Central University, the other subgroups of participants believed that the curriculum mainly presented a nationalistic version of history. Moreover, some interviewees described the historical perspective of the curriculum as an official version of history, which was chauvinistic that makes pupils develop the concept of 'the other'.

5.1.4.3. Historical dimensions of the curriculum content:

The purpose of this subsection is to explore the participants' perspectives on the selection of various historical dimensions in the present curriculum. Questionnaire items 2.12 and 2.13 were prepared to reveal the participants' ideas on how the curriculum presented different dimensions of history. The statements presented different versions of the same idea. According to the data, 73.6% of the total questionnaire respondents thought that 'the curriculum did not present a balanced amount of political, social, economic and cultural history' (see Table 5.11). The majority of them (85.6%) also stated that 'the curriculum is mainly based on history of wars and political achievements.' There were some differences amongst the groups of participants as the Kruskal-Wallis test results for the items 2.12 (*chi square*= 12.567, *p*= .00 in .05 level) and 2.13 (*chi square*= 21.083, *p*= .00 in .05 level) reveal. The percentages in Table 5.11 demonstrate that while the student teachers disclosed similar responses to item 2.12, the teacher educators did the same for the other item. On the other hand, the answers given by the teachers to the both questions were moderate.

Table 5.11. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.12 and 2.13 by three different groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.12. The curriculum presents a balanced amount of political, socio-economic and cultural history	Dis.	75.4	101	60.0	36	96.2	25	73.6	162
	Neu.	11.2	15	15.0	9	---	--	10.9	24
	Ag.	13.4	18	25.0	15	3.8	1	15.5	34
2.13. The curriculum is mainly based on history of wars and political achievements	Dis.	5.1	7	28.3	17	3.8	1	11.3	25
	Neu.	2.2	3	3.3	2	7.7	2	3.2	7
	Ag.	92.6	126	68.3	41	88.5	23	85.6	190

The examination of percentages and frequencies demonstrated in Table 5.12 and Kruskal-Wallis test result show that the teacher educators and student teachers from all three institutions presented similar responses. No diversity was found amongst their perspectives. The overall questionnaire findings about this issue indicated participants' thoughts that the curriculum mainly introduces the content of military and political history. It does not allocate enough space for the other historical dimensions, such as social or cultural history. Amongst three groups of the participants, the teachers were the most supportive of the present curriculum, while the teacher educators from West and New universities put the strongest criticism regarding the representation of various dimensions of history.

Table 5.12. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.12 and 2.13 by student teachers and teacher educators from three different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.12. The curriculum presents a balanced amount of political, socio-economic and cultural hist.	Dis.	76.0	38	88.9	8	78.3	36	100	11	71.1	27	100	6
	Neu.	12.0	6	---	--	8.7	4	---	--	13.2	5	---	--
	Ag.	12.0	6	11.1	1	13.0	6	---	--	15.8	6	---	--
2.13. The curriculum is mainly based on history of wars and political achievements	Dis.	3.9	2	11.1	1	4.3	2	---	--	7.7	3	---	--
	Neu.	2.0	1	11.1	1	---	--	9.1	1	5.1	2	---	--
	Ag.	94.1	48	77.8	7	95.7	44	90.9	10	87.2	34	100	6

On the other hand, the qualitative data on this issue revealed that some participants believe the necessity of keeping political history as the core of history curriculum, because they felt it is important to understand the transformation of the world over time. One of the teacher educators defended the dominance of political history in the curriculum. However, he claimed that political history should not be taught as history of wars as it is generally practiced in schools.

I think that the worry of abandoning political history is one of the swamps that historians and history educators sank into in the last ten years. You cannot cease from political history because, if you do it, you cannot explain why the Turks are in Anatolia today, instead of being in Central Asia. You cannot explain why the Mostar Bridge or Seyfullah Mosque in Sofia exists. That is to say that political history must always be there in the curriculum. Nevertheless, can political

history be taught, as history of wars is a matter of question? Of course, social, cultural or the other dimensions are necessary for the curriculum. (TE3)

Another teacher educator connected the excessive place of political history in the curriculum and the tradition of history teaching in Turkey. He stated that:

In Turkey, history as a school subject was firstly introduced in a military school in 19th century. When the schooling became widespread after the foundation of the Republic, all schools started to use those textbooks written by Süleyman Pasha for military schools, which mainly consisted of diplomatic and political history, highlighting the histories of wars, heroes and heroic events. Turkey hasn't gone beyond this perspective of history teaching yet. (TE2)

Most participants asserted that the curriculum mainly includes political history. The spaces allocated for economic, social and cultural dimensions of history were also found very limited.

The curriculum doesn't include enough of social history. It only introduces political facts and events. There's nothing about how those things are reflected to a society, how the society reacted to them. I think this is the biggest deficiency of the curriculum. (ST6)

Additionally, they did not agree with the way that the present curriculum introduces social, economic and cultural dimensions of history, in which those dimensions are presented separately from political history units without making any methodological or chronological connections.

I accept that political history is inevitable for understanding and interpreting historical events. It's also required for understanding social history. However, there's no place for social history in the curriculum at all. There are only some small passages at the end of each political history unit, which include political institutions, fine arts etc. Those things, which aren't related or connected to political history parts, cannot be regarded as social history at all. (ST10)

It can be stated that the participants of this study thought that the present history curriculum did not introduce various dimensions of history appropriately. According to the data they believed that it mostly introduced political and military history. The analysis also revealed that some practising teachers and some teacher educators from Central University were not bothered with the extensive place of political history in the curriculum. However, all the interviewees, including the participants from those two subgroups mentioned above, complained about the way that the current curriculum presents political and the other dimensions of history.

5.1.4.4. Historical periods of the curriculum content

This subsection investigates participants' points of view on the representation of various historical periods in the existing curriculum. The goal of this subsection is to see whether they were in favour of the way in which the curriculum introduces different

epochs of history. Three questionnaire items were designed to find out the participants' views about the issue described above (see Table 5.13). Two items in this theme were asked in different statements. The first one positively stated that 'the curriculum presents all periods of history in an equal and fair way' while the second item made a negative statement about the curriculum: 'the curriculum stresses on some periods of history and neglects others.' The third item in this subsection highlighted a missing part of the Turkish curriculum, the period of history after the Second World War as a deficiency.

Table 5.13. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.14, 2.15 and 2.16 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.14. The curriculum presents all the periods of history in an equal and fair way	Dis.	86.8	118	78.3	47	84.0	21	84.2	186
	Neu.	8.8	12	3.3	2	16.0	4	8.1	18
	Ag.	4.4	6	18.3	11	---	--	7.7	17
2.15. The curriculum stresses on some periods of history and neglects the others	Dis.	13.2	18	25.0	15	3.8	1	15.3	34
	Neu.	5.1	7	5.0	3	3.8	1	5	11
	Ag.	81.6	111	70.0	42	92.3	24	79.7	177
2.16. It is an important deficiency that the curriculum does not include any topic or theme about history after the World War II	Dis.	2.2	3	8.3	5	---	--	3.6	8
	Neu.	1.5	2	---	--	---	--	.9	2
	Ag.	96.3	131	91.7	55	100	26	95.5	212

Responses (84.2%) given to item 2.14 in Table 5.13 indicate that there is no balance amongst the periods of history introduced by the present curriculum. The majority of participants (79.7%) stated that the curriculum stresses on some periods of history and neglects the others. For example, it gave a lot of space to the history of fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, while less space was allotted to the seventeenth century. However, Kruskal-Wallis test results obtained for this item ($chi\ square = 6.281, p = .03$ in $.01$ level) indicate some meaningful differences among the three groups of participants, which occur between practising teachers and teacher educators as the percentages in Table 5.13 demonstrates. Besides, almost all the respondents (95.5%) also pointed out that 'it is an important deficiency that the curriculum does not include any topic or theme on the history after the World War Two.'

Table 5.14 revealed that the perspectives of student teachers and teacher educators from different universities were coherent about the issue raised in these three questionnaire items evaluated here. The only significant difference occurred amongst the student teachers from West University and their counterparts in the other two universities for item 2.16 ($chi\ square = 6.826, p = .03$ in $.05$ level). Nevertheless, this divergence of

opinion does not change the overall view of student teachers on the issue that the present curriculum has got a deficiency of not including contemporary history after the Second World War.

Table 5.14. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.14, 2.15 and 2.16 by student teachers and teacher educators from three different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.14. The curriculum presents all the periods of history in an equal and fair way	Dis.	88.2	45	77.8	7	91.3	42	100	10	79.5	31	66.7	4
	Neu.	5.9	3	22.2	2	6.5	3	---	--	15.4	6	33.3	2
	Ag.	5.9	3	---	--	2.2	1	---	--	5.1	2	---	--
2.15. The curriculum stresses on some periods of history and neglects the others	Dis.	19.6	10	---	--	8.7	4	9.1	1	10.3	4	---	--
	Neu.	2.0	1	11.1	1	2.2	1	---	--	12.8	5	---	--
	Ag.	78.4	40	88.9	8	78.4	41	90.9	10	76.9	30	100	6
2.16. It is an important deficiency that the curriculum does not include any topic or theme about the history after the World War II	Dis.	2.0	1	---	--	---	--	---	--	5.1	2	---	--
	Neu.	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	5.1	2	---	--
	Ag.	98.0	50	100	9	100	46	100	11	89.7	35	100	6

The interview data related to periods of history introduced in the curriculum provided insight about this particular aspect of the curriculum. The majority of the participants stated that different periods of history are not represented in the curriculum in an equal and fair way. The participants believed that it does not introduce enough from the history of antiquity and history of the twentieth century. Some interviewees also indicated the imbalance amongst the presentation of different periods of history in the curriculum. One student teacher explained this by putting her/his preferences:

There's almost nothing about antiquity in the curriculum. When it comes to the Middle Ages we only introduce the history of Turkish and Islamic states. However, I think that history of the modern times is more important than the other periods. So, the curriculum should include a comprehensive history of this age. (ST12)

Additionally, teachers pointed out the lack of contemporary history in the curriculum. According to T7 and many other colleagues, contemporary history is crucial for understanding today's world and it attracts pupils' attention.

We should introduce pupils to the history of the twentieth century. They need to know about cultural, philosophical and political aspects of those historical processes that shape our lives today. Actually, this is the period of history that they most want to learn. Many of my students ask me about concepts like socialism, communism, fascism, which are the products of the last century. (T7)

Like many other participants, teacher educator TE4 argued that contemporary history was one of the building blocks of Turkish historical understanding. Therefore, it must be included in the curriculum.

I have to say that we should cease the idea and practice of accepting November the 10th 1938 as the end of history. We need to turn towards new directions. If the concept of history is being perceived as a bridge between the past, today and the future; does it make any sense to remove the brick of today from this bridge? (TE4)

The data analysed here indicated that the participants of this study thought that the present curriculum did not introduce all periods of history in an equal and fair way. They also believed that some periods of history were deliberately neglected by the curriculum, particularly history after the World War II. Contrasting the application in the curriculum, many of the interviewees argued that contemporary history is crucial for developing pupils' abilities for understanding today's world. It is seen that the divergence of opinions amongst the views of three groups of participants and student teachers and teacher educators from three universities does not change the participants' overall view presented above.

5.1.5. Content-skill comparison

This subsection examines the participants' views on a particular aspect of the history curriculum. That is to say that the purpose is to find out whether the participants thought that the present curriculum was designed to give pupils historical content knowledge or develop their skills and abilities. The questionnaire items 2.17 and 2.18 sought answers to the question, whether the curriculum emphasises on pupils' grasping of the content knowledge or teaching of historical skills.

The percentages and frequencies of answers presented in Table 5.15 show that most participants (83.7%) approved of the statement that 'the curriculum emphasises on transmitting historical content knowledge.' They also put negative responses (67.7% disagreement) for the statement 'The curriculum gives importance to the teaching of the skills used by historians'.

Table 5.15. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.17 and 2.18 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.17. The curriculum emphasises on historical content-knowledge	Dis.	11.1	15	6.7	4	11.5	3	1.0	22
	Neu.	6.7	9	3.3	2	11.5	3	6.3	14
	Ag.	82.2	111	90.0	54	76.9	20	83.7	185
2.18. The curriculum gives importance to the teaching of the skills used by historians	Dis.	74.6	100	50.0	30	73.1	19	67.7	149
	Neu.	15.7	21	16.7	10	23.1	6	16.8	37
	Ag.	9.7	13	33.3	20	3.8	1	15.5	34

No significant difference was observed among the three groups of participants for the item 2.17, whilst an important difference ($\chi^2 = 15.594, p = .00$ in .05 level) was found between practising teachers and the other two groups for the item 2.18.

The analysis of student teachers' and teacher educators' data also highlighted some interesting points. As percentages and frequencies in Table 5.16 demonstrate, all subgroups of participants presented negative opinions for the item 2.17, but the Kruskal-Wallis test results revealed a difference amongst student teachers from three universities ($\chi^2 = 5.990, p = .05$ in .05 level). On the other hand, both student teachers ($\chi^2 = 15.901, p = .00$ in .05 level) and teacher educators ($\chi^2 = 6.920, p = .03$ in .05 level) from different universities presented diverse opinions on the item 2.18. The differences occurring amongst the student teachers and teacher educators from different universities could have arisen from each group's understanding of the methodology of history and approach to history teaching.

Table 5.16. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 2.17 and 2.18 by student teachers and teacher educators from three different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.17. The curriculum emphasises on historical content-knowledge	Dis.	3.9	2	11.1	1	13.0	6	18.2	2	18.4	7	---	--
	Neu.	3.9	2	22.2	2	8.7	4	9.1	1	7.9	3	---	--
	Ag.	92.2	47	77.8	6	78.3	36	72.7	8	73.7	28	100	6
2.18. The curriculum gives importance to the teaching of the skills used by historians	Dis.	88.2	45	77.8	7	78.3	36	90.9	10	51.4	19	33.3	2
	Neu.	9.8	5	22.2	2	10.9	5	9.1	1	29.7	11	50.0	3
	Ag.	2.0	1	---	--	10.9	5	---	--	18.9	7	16.7	1

The qualitative data related to this issue indicated that the present history curriculum only introduces historical content knowledge. This was not found appropriate for presenting methods and skills used by historians to study history.

The curriculum mostly presents wars and treaties, which makes the use of various teaching methods or techniques in the classroom very difficult. Imagine that I use drama to teach a topic and use empathy for another one but I cannot develop a teaching method for each topic. I believe that history itself brings the methodological perspectives or teaching strategies into the classroom. If you put the opposite thoughts or claims forward, they will bring the disputes and discussions or cognitive activities. Whereas, when you replace those opposite ideas with a sole one in the curriculum you just stay alone with the single truth. If you introduce the truth then you don't need to use any method or activity because there's nothing left for pupils to seek or discuss. (TE4)

In summary, the participants of this study think that the present history curriculum mostly introduces content-knowledge and does not give necessary attention to teaching historical skills or methodology. Therefore, participants found it difficult for them and

other teachers to make history lessons attractive, interesting and meaningful or to motivate pupils in the classroom.

5.1.6. Comparison of the curriculum content and the time allowed for its teaching:

As it was previously stated history is one of the compulsory subjects in the Turkish secondary school curriculum. However, there have been arguments on the extent of historical content-knowledge introduced in the curriculum. The purpose of this part therefore, is to discover participants' attitudes to the amount of content introduced in the classroom and the time allocated to history teaching in secondary schools.

Questionnaire item 2.19 was designed to find out participants' attitudes on the load of curriculum content and the time allowed for its teaching in the classroom. As data in Table 5.17 reveal, none of the participating groups thought that the time allowed for teaching the present history curriculum was enough. Additionally, some practising and student teachers stated that it was because of the excessive load of content, not the amount of time allowed.

Table 5.17. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 2.19 by three groups

Questionnaire Statement	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.19. The content introduced by the curriculum is too much for the time available	Dis.	27.8	37	26.7	16	20.0	5	26.6	58
	Neu.	6.8	9	5.0	3	12.0	3	6.9	15
	Ag.	65.4	87	68.3	41	68.0	17	66.5	145

The Kruskal-Wallis tests carried out to analyse the data obtained from three groups of participants and student teachers and teacher educators from three universities did not indicate any statistically significant difference amongst those groups and subgroups.

Table 5.18. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 2.19 by student teachers and teacher educators from three different universities

Questionnaire Statement	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
2.19. The content introduced by the curriculum is too much for the time available	Dis.	31.4	16	33.3	3	19.6	9	20.0	2	33.3	12	---	--
	Neu.	2.0	1	11.1	1	6.5	3	10.0	10	13.9	5	16.7	1
	Ag.	66.7	34	55.6	5	73.9	34	70.0	7	52.8	19	83.3	5

Teachers participated in both questionnaires and interviews indicated that the time allocated for history was not enough to teach the curriculum, particularly in year nine. One teacher pointed out that there were many types of secondary schools in the country, whilst only one constant format of history curriculum for all those schools. According

to her/him, it is very difficult for her/his colleagues, particularly those in vocational schools, to fulfil the requirements of the curriculum.

Another teacher participant pointed out the same problem, the history curriculum of vocational schools, which presented both year one and year two curriculum of general secondary schools in year one alone of this type of schools. S/he said that:

The curriculum is piled up particularly in vocational schools. It presents too much, unnecessary and detailed historical knowledge/information, which is not appropriate to teach in one year. As a result, we cannot teach all the topics in vocational schools in the given time. In order to catch up with the programme, we teach those political history topics at the same time with cultural, economic and social dimensions, which are presented separately in the curriculum. (T3)

The interviewees also stated that the curriculum is not realistic or consistent. According to them, it is impossible to teach the content of the curriculum in the given time. Most of the participants did not think that the curriculum was appropriate for attaining those goals of teaching and learning stated in its own programme, as student teacher ST14 stated.

I think the curriculum is very extensive. It introduces lots of topics and details. Therefore, it is very difficult to study most of the topics in appropriate depth. This situation also affects teachers to use different teaching methods, techniques or materials. (ST14)

The findings discussed here lead the conclusion that participants did not find the time allocated for history teaching in secondary schools sufficient. However, they emphasised that the problem was the excessive and detailed content introduced in the curriculum, not the time allocated for history lessons. The data also demonstrated some deficiencies of the curriculum, such as not considering different types of schools or not having appropriate attainment targets. The analysis did not show any significant difference amongst the views of groups and subgroups of the participants.

5.2. Attitudes to History Teaching and History Teacher Education

In this section, the findings obtained from the questionnaire and interview data on history teaching and history teacher education are presented and discussed. The initial purpose on this matter was to explore the participants' perspectives on the state of history teaching in secondary schools. In the later stages of the study however, with the consideration of each group of the participants' involvement in history teaching practice, it was thought to be more useful and realistic to look at the issue from the

perspective of each participating group. Then it was decided to ask teacher educators and student teachers about the pedagogical aspects of history teacher education in their departments, while scrutinising information about teachers' own pedagogical knowledge and expertise. The overall purpose here is to explore participants' views on history teaching and history teacher education and to relate the findings of this section to their perspectives on the curriculum.

The percentages of answers obtained for the nine items from the total number of participants are just above the average (see Table 5.19). It implies that the participants' attitudes to the pedagogy of history in Turkish secondary schools and pedagogical education in university history education departments were slightly positive. However, there are some significant differences amongst three groups of the participants. While the teachers seemed very confident about their own teaching practice, teacher educators' responses indicated that they were not happy with the pedagogical education offered in their departments. The high percentages of neutral answers observed in teacher educators' column imply that some of them did not have insight into the pedagogical aspects of teacher education. As mentioned previously, most of the academics in history education departments are pure historians. These academics only teach subject specific undergraduate courses and their research areas are not related to education or history teaching. Responses given by the student teachers on the other hand, were neither as optimistic as those of the teachers, nor as pessimistic as those of the teacher educators.

The responses to questionnaire item 3.1 revealed a statistically significant difference between the three groups of participants (*chi square* = 48.659, *p* = .00 in .05 level). It means that the student teachers and teacher educators are not happy with the training on syllabus design or lesson planning in their departments. However, the positive attitudes obtained from practising teachers imply that they had gained expertise through experience. The answers given to the statement 3.2 indicate another meaningful difference amongst three groups of participants (*chi square* = 39.269, *p* = .00 in .05 level). The Kruskal-Wallis test result above and relevant data in Table 5.19 describe the diversity of opinions between practising teachers and the other two groups. Teacher educators and student teachers stated that candidate teachers did not learn enough about the theories of learning history in initial teacher education. Whereas, teachers asserted that they knew enough about this side of history teaching.

Table 5.19. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 3.1 to 3.9 by three groups (statements taken from student teachers' questionnaire)

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
3.1. I have learnt how to prepare my scheme of work and plan my lessons.	Dis.	46.7	63	6.7	4	38.5	10	34.8	77
	Neu.	14.1	19	---	--	34.6	9	12.7	28
	Ag.	39.3	53	93.3	56	26.9	7	52.5	116
3.2. I have learnt the ways in which secondary school students learn history	Dis.	33.6	45	3.3	2	57.7	15	28.2	62
	Neu.	19.4	26	16.7	10	26.9	7	19.5	43
	Ag.	47.0	63	80.0	48	15.4	4	52.3	115
3.3. I have learnt how to use different teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom	Dis.	31.6	42	26.7	16	38.5	10	31.1	68
	Neu.	12.0	16	8.3	5	23.1	6	12.3	27
	Ag.	56.4	75	65.0	39	38.5	10	56.6	124
3.4. I have learnt how to apply new teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom	Dis.	26.1	35	5.0	3	30.8	8	20.9	46
	Neu.	24.6	33	5.0	3	50.0	13	22.3	49
	Ag.	49.3	66	90.0	54	19.2	5	56.8	125
3.5. I have learnt how to make use of different kinds of historical resources in their lessons	Dis.	24.1	31	26.7	16	30.8	8	25.6	56
	Neu.	11.3	15	13.3	8	26.9	7	13.7	30
	Ag.	64.7	86	60.0	36	42.3	11	60.7	133
3.6. I have learnt how to create different kinds of teaching materials for history lessons	Dis.	26.3	35	36.7	22	15.4	4	27.9	61
	Neu.	12.0	16	15.0	9	42.3	11	16.4	36
	Ag.	61.7	83	48.3	29	42.3	11	55.7	122
3.7. I have learnt how to use different kinds of teaching materials in their classrooms	Dis.	21.1	28	30.0	18	11.5	3	22.4	49
	Neu.	13.5	18	18.3	11	38.5	10	17.8	39
	Ag.	65.4	87	51.7	31	50.0	13	59.8	131
3.8. I have learnt how to develop productive discussion amongst their own students	Dis.	20.3	27	8.3	5	32.0	8	18.3	40
	Neu.	20.3	27	11.7	7	36.0	9	19.7	43
	Ag.	59.4	79	80.0	48	32.0	8	61.9	135
3.9. I am aware of pupils' misconceptions of some historical concepts and events	Dis.	1.5	2	1.7	1	32.0	8	5.0	11
	Neu.	4.5	6	---	--	24.0	6	5.5	12
	Ag.	93.3	125	98.3	59	44.0	11	89.0	195

On the other hand, the percentages of answers obtained for the item 3.3 indicated that both practising and student teachers thought that they knew enough about using various kinds of teaching techniques and methods whereas teacher educators did not. It might be those academics who were not involved in pedagogical education of student teachers that change the overall teacher educators' responses. The responses of participants to the next item also demonstrate that teachers had confidence in using new teaching techniques and methods, while most student teachers and teacher educators did not have. The difference amongst three groups was statistically significant (*chi square* = 39.338, *p* = .00 in .05 level). The findings of the items 3.3 and 3.4 analysed here show that student teachers and teacher educators did not find teaching practice sufficient.

Questionnaire item 3.5 was designed to investigate participants' perspectives on the use of historical resources in history teaching. The responses revealed that both practising and student teachers had positive opinions about this item, while teacher educators'

answers did not present any particular view point. Statements placed in the items 3.6 and 3.7 aimed to discover participants' perspectives on creating and using teaching materials in history classroom. Student teachers' data given in Table 5.19 demonstrate that they were more confident than practising teachers about these issues. The Kruskal-Wallis test results did not show any significant difference amongst three groups for the last three items discussed above.

Responses given to item 3.8 show a significant difference amongst three groups (*chi square*= 17.428, *p*= .00 in .05 level). The test results and percentages in the above table demonstrate that most of the practising teachers consider themselves able to develop productive discussions amongst their pupils. However, the student teachers' were not as optimistic as the teachers. Another statistically significant difference occurred amongst the teacher educators and other groups for the item 3.9 (*chi square*= 61.841, *p*= .00 in .05 level). That is to say that practising and student teachers considered themselves knowing enough about pupils' misconceptions of some historical concepts and events. On the other hand, teacher educators' answers for the item 3.8 (36%) and 3.9 (24%) indicate that the majority of them did not have any particular opinion about these issues.

The analysis of questionnaire data according to universities revealed some significant differences amongst student teachers from three universities. However, the statistical tests did not demonstrate any significant result amongst teacher educators from different universities. The Kruskal-Wallis test score (*chi square*= 6.268, *p*= .04 in .05 level) and percentages given in the relevant cells of table 5.20 for the item 3.2 show that student teachers from Central University felt themselves sufficiently equipped about theories of learning history, while their counterparts in the other two universities put rather negative responses for this statement. Similar differences occurred in favour of student teachers from Central University for the item 3.3 (*chi square*= 9.712, *p*= .01 in .05 level) and 3.4 (*chi square*= 9.005, *p*= .01 in .05 level), which can be interpreted as this subgroup of student teachers were more confident of using various kinds of teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom and to apply new methods and techniques in their teaching than the other two subgroups.

Table 5.20. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 3.1 to 3.9 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities (statements taken from student teachers' questionnaire)

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
3.1. I have learnt how to prepare my scheme of work and plan my lessons.	Dis.	52.9	27	44.4	4	44.4	20	18.2	2	41.0	16	66.7	4
	Neu.	2.0	1	11.1	1	22.2	10	54.5	6	20.5	8	33.3	2
	Ag.	45.1	23	44.4	4	33.3	15	27.3	3	38.5	15	---	--
3.2. I have learnt the ways in which secondary school students learn history	Dis.	23.5	16	33.3	3	42.2	19	72.7	8	36.8	14	66.7	4
	Neu.	15.7	8	33.3	3	13.3	6	18.2	2	31.6	12	33.3	2
	Ag.	60.8	31	33.3	3	44.4	20	9.1	1	31.6	12	---	--
3.3. I have learnt how to use different teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom	Dis.	19.6	10	44.4	4	42.2	19	27.3	3	35.1	13	50.0	3
	Neu.	5.9	3	22.2	2	11.1	5	27.3	3	21.6	8	16.7	1
	Ag.	74.5	38	33.3	3	46.7	21	45.5	5	43.2	16	33.3	2
3.4. I have learnt how to apply new teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom	Dis.	17.6	9	22.2	2	31.1	14	27.3	3	31.6	12	50.0	3
	Neu.	15.7	8	55.5	5	35.6	16	54.5	6	23.7	9	33.3	2
	Ag.	66.7	34	22.2	2	33.3	15	18.2	2	44.7	17	16.7	1
3.5. I have learnt how to make use of different kinds of historical resources in their lessons	Dis.	15.7	8	33.3	3	28.9	13	18.2	2	29.7	11	50.0	3
	Neu.	11.8	6	11.1	1	6.7	3	36.4	4	16.2	6	33.3	2
	Ag.	72.5	37	55.6	5	64.4	29	45.5	5	54.1	20	16.7	1
3.6. I have learnt how to create different kinds of teaching materials for history lessons	Dis.	15.7	8	---	--	28.9	13	9.1	1	37.8	14	50.0	3
	Neu.	5.9	3	44.4	4	15.6	7	54.5	6	16.2	6	16.7	1
	Ag.	78.4	40	55.6	5	55.6	25	36.4	4	45.9	17	33.3	2
3.7. I have learnt how to use different kinds of teaching materials in their classrooms	Dis.	9.8	5	---	--	31.1	14	---	--	24.3	9	50.0	3
	Neu.	5.9	3	33.3	3	13.3	6	54.5	6	24.3	9	16.7	1
	Ag.	84.3	43	66.7	6	55.6	25	45.5	5	51.6	19	33.3	2
3.8. I have learnt how to develop productive discussion amongst their own students	Dis.	17.6	9	22.2	2	22.2	10	36.4	4	21.6	8	40.0	2
	Neu.	19.6	10	33.3	3	22.2	10	36.4	4	18.9	7	40.0	2
	Ag.	62.7	32	44.4	4	55.6	25	27.3	3	59.5	22	10.0	1
3.9. I am aware of pupils' misconceptions of some historical concepts and events	Dis.	---	--	22.2	2	---	--	36.4	4	5.3	2	40.0	2
	Neu.	3.9	2	33.3	3	2.2	1	18.2	2	7.9	3	20.0	1
	Ag.	96.1	49	44.4	4	97.8	43	45.5	5	86.8	33	40.0	2

The Kruskal-Wallis test results obtained for the items 3.6 (*chi square*= 9.821, *p*= .01 in .05 level), and 3.7 (*chi square*= 12.314, *p*= .00 in .05 level) revealed statistically significant differences amongst the student teachers from three universities. Those test results indicate that student teachers from West and New universities did not believe that they had sufficient education on creating and preparing different types of teaching materials and using those materials in the classroom. However, their counterparts from Central University were fairly confident about those matters as the percentages in Table 5.20 illustrate. The findings indicate that those three history teacher education departments offer differing qualities of pedagogical education. It is also worth stating that particularly the participants from New University were not happy with the education that their university offers, which reflects the general situation in most of the newly established Turkish universities.

The qualitative data on pedagogical aspects of history teaching also provide abundant data. Almost all of the participants accepted that history teaching in Turkish schools is boring, monotonous and unproductive. Like some of her/his colleagues, T1 took this as:

I believe that it's somehow the destiny of history, because some pupils approach history with prejudices. Generally the teacher expounds and pupils listen. Teacher can make her/his pupils take notes sometimes. The classroom teaching is mostly carried out with a number of pupils who are curious and interested in history. (T1)

Most of the teachers also constantly complained about the lack of resources, materials and other kinds of opportunities like visiting museums or historical places. Student teachers also shared this view point, as ST5 stated:

I accept that history teaching is based on exposition despite the fact that there are lots of teaching methods, techniques and materials out there. Nevertheless, we don't have necessary financial opportunities and facilities. The government doesn't provide those things. (ST5)

Some participants considered the class size in Turkish schools another reason for the poor quality of history teaching.

In my opinion pedagogy is the most important problem of history teaching. Most of the teachers use exposition to teach history and I believe that it's because of the over-crowded classrooms. If you visit the schools especially those in bigger cities you'll see that there are sixty or even seventy pupils in most of the classrooms. As a result of this and the limited time allocated for history, teachers have to use exposition in most cases anyway. (TE4)

Student teachers considered the curriculum as a factor making pupils passive, and the application of teaching methods and techniques difficult in the classroom.

In the classroom, none of the teaching methods is appropriately used. Teachers only use exposition, which makes pupils passive. But in my view, teachers don't have any other chance because they have to teach all the topics introduced in the curriculum. (ST14)

Teachers also recognised the curriculum and main educational perspectives as obstacles, which prevent them from improving pedagogy and themselves.

History teaching we introduce is based on rote learning. The reason is the curriculum and our education system. As teachers, whatever we try, in order to overcome those problems, does not give any positive result within this system. So it makes us avoid doing research or improving ourselves. (TQ. 58)¹

One teacher educator asserted that the educational ideologies, which were influential on the preparation of the present curriculum, intended to give pupils political/ideological messages. As a result of this perspective, the curriculum introduces only a version of content that is not appropriate for the use of teaching methods and strategies.

¹ This quotation is taken from a Teachers' Questionnaire (TQ)

There's no need for pedagogy in transmission of events and facts. Anyway, it wasn't the worry of those people who prepared the curriculum. Their objective is placing some particular messages among the topics like Turks ruled in the three continents, they were very fair, very tolerant and magnificent, Atatürk was a great leader and a glorious commander etc. Of course the content itself is very intensive but those curriculum makers knew that pupils would eventually forget what they learn as content. What would remain after school history are those values, which is also called the hidden agenda, the hidden curriculum. (TE4)

S/he also pointed out the methodological distinction between the natural and social sciences, which is generally misunderstood or misinterpreted in Turkish educational contexts.

I should say that in Turkey, there has been an attempt to teach history through the same methods used to teach maths or sciences. There's nothing remaining from history, if you present it in this way without demonstrating the methodological richness of history or showing pupils that you and I can reach quite different conclusions even if we use the same document as a resource. You can see this version of history that is formulated like mathematics. Namely history is equal to causes of events plus their consequences divided into their importance within the context of Turkish and world history. This is the perspective of history in our curriculum and textbooks. (TE4)

Regardless of their group or university, some participants indicated that the efficiency of pedagogy mostly depended on the teacher. However, the participants thought that many teachers were insufficient and unwilling to improve their teaching practice. Some participants asserted that most teachers do not pay necessary attention on the learning and development of their pupils and the use of teaching methods, techniques and materials in their classroom. It is interesting to see that interview respondents from all three groups shared this point of view as the extract below shows.

I think that teachers always find an easy way to escape from their responsibilities. You can see it from their exam questions, their lecturing style or any other thing. Certainly teachers, particularly history teachers, don't present you the alternative ways. They also don't want you to think about alternatives anyway. For example during lessons they use many concepts, which are not known to pupils. They don't bother explaining the meaning of those concepts or even they don't feel that it is necessary. (ST10)

I believe that many teachers don't know how to teach history. They mostly use the exposition technique, which makes it worse. As I learnt from pupils some teachers act as organisers in the classroom not as a teacher. (T8)

I just came from a school, where I observed a lesson. There isn't any improvement in pedagogy at all. That's to say that history is taught with the same methods that I was taught in secondary school thirty years ago. Teachers don't even use the blackboard or some basic maps to reinforce pupils' learning. During the lesson, the teacher used a lot of historical terms and concepts but he didn't explain any of them. There were many historical maps in the teachers' room but he didn't bother bringing one into the classroom to use it. I think this is all about teachers' own motivation. (TE2)

Apart from pedagogy of history teaching in schools student teachers criticised the teacher-training course their departments offer. They argued that 3.5-year subject study plus 1.5-year pedagogical education makes it difficult for them to keep the balance

between subject knowledge and pedagogical education. Some of them also focused on the contrast or difference between the theoretical pedagogy education they had had in the universities and actual teaching practise in schools. One student teacher pointed out the influence of the centralised university entrance examination on history lessons. S/he stated:

Because history curriculum and its teaching hours are synchronised with university entrance exams, history is not given the necessary importance it deserves. (STQ. 33)²

Findings gathered from quantitative data revealed that teachers felt themselves very comfortable about pedagogy of history. Except the training on syllabus design and lesson planning, the majority of student teachers also thought that they have had sufficient pedagogical training. However, teacher educators' responses indicated that many history educators did not have enough information on pedagogical aspects of history teacher training. The comparison of student teachers' and teacher educators' data according to their universities revealed that particularly student teachers in History Education Subdivision of Central University considered the quality of pedagogical education their subdivision offer sufficient, while their counterparts in the other two universities, specifically those in New University, indicated several deficiencies of teacher education in their institutions.

On the other hand, the results obtained from the analysis of the related qualitative data differ from the quantitative findings. Almost all interview participants stated negative views about the present state of history teaching in Turkey. According to the participants there were many factors influencing the quality of history teaching. Some of those factors were the curriculum, lack of teaching materials, resources and other physical and technical capacities, insufficient and unenthusiastic teachers and the centralised university entrance exam.

5.3. Summary of the Findings

In summary, it can be concluded that the participants of this study showed negative attitudes about the present Turkish secondary school history curriculum. Most of them stated opposite perspectives against the idea of a centralised curriculum. However, the reasons making them oppose the idea of a centralised curriculum differed. For instance,

while some of the participants disagreed with centralised curriculum and educational system, the others advocated the idea of teacher and pupil autonomy.

According to the participants, the aims and objectives of history teaching introduced in the curriculum were neither clear, nor achievable by the average pupils. They also did not consider those aims and objectives stated in the curriculum practicable in the classroom because of various reasons.

Besides, teacher educators thought that the history curriculum does not allow any freedom for teachers, but student teachers and teachers maintained that they have a limited freedom in the classroom. Participants also pointed out that the content selected in the curriculum is mostly on Turkish national history, which is not balanced between the areas of local, national, European and world history.

Moreover, the participants did not regard the view of history presented in the curriculum appropriate to introduce different historical perspectives in the classroom. Except the teacher educators from Central University, the participants thought that the curriculum presents a nationalistic perspective of history. Additionally some interviewees stated that the historical perspective of the curriculum is a chauvinistic approach, which encourages the development of the concept of ‘the other’ in pupils’ minds and enmity about other cultures, nations and countries.

Furthermore, the respondents agreed that there is no balance amongst the political, social, economic and cultural dimensions of history in the curriculum. The data also indicated that different periods of history were not represented fairly in the curriculum. The participants also strongly emphasised the lack of contemporary history in the curriculum. Some of the student teachers asserted that the history curriculum should not only present past events but should also include the present problems and occurrences. Therefore, the curriculum must include more contemporary history, particularly history after 1938.

In addition, most participants believed that the curriculum emphasised the content-knowledge not historical skills. Some student teachers expressed that the curriculum presents surface content-knowledge only, which is dominated by political history and approved by the official ideology. Participants, particularly teachers, asserted negative

² This quotation is taken from a Student Teachers’ Questionnaire (STQ)

remarks on the balance between the load of content introduced in the curriculum and the time allocated for its teaching.

The analysis of the questionnaire data on history teaching and teacher education revealed that teachers felt themselves comfortable about pedagogical dimensions. The majority of student teachers also regarded themselves having trained sufficiently on pedagogy. However, teacher educators' responses indicated that many academics did not have sufficient information about these issues. Their overall responses also implied that the majority of teacher educators do not consider the pedagogical training offered in their departments is sufficient. The data obtained from student teachers and teacher educators of Central University indicated that a better pedagogical education was offered in this institution, while student teachers from New University disclosed that they received the lowest level of pedagogical education amongst the three universities.

However, the results obtained from the analysis of related qualitative data differed from this part of the quantitative analysis. Almost all interview participants stated negative views about the present state of history teaching in Turkey. The interviewees stressed that the deficiencies of the curriculum, lack of teaching materials, resources and other physical capacities, insufficient and unenthusiastic teachers and the centralised university entrance exam were some of the factors influencing history teaching in Turkish schools. In addition, student teachers criticised the structure of the teacher education programmes and quality of pedagogical courses they received.

The evaluation of both questionnaire and interview data indicated that Turkish history teachers, student teachers and teacher educators made negative remarks on the present history curriculum. However, their dissatisfaction has arisen from various reasons which differ according to the group of participants. While the teacher educators put the strongest opposition to the curriculum, the teachers' views about it were rather moderate compared to the other two groups. On the other hand, the comparison of the three universities showed that participants, particularly teacher educators from Central University had rather moderate attitudes to the curriculum, while their participants from West University revealed the strongest criticism about it.

CHAPTER SIX

THE PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS OF EUROPE AND THE EUROPEAN DIMENSION IN HISTORY TEACHING

In this chapter, the data on Europe and the ED in history teaching obtained from the questionnaires and interviews will be analysed and presented. This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section is about participants' general perspectives on Turkey and Europe. In order to understand the participants' perception of the ED in education, and history teaching in particular, one needs to explore their general views about Europe and the place of Turkey in a European context. The second section examines the participants' knowledge and expertise of Europe, European history and history teaching in European countries.

In the third section, the participants' views on the place of Europe in the present Turkish history curriculum are analysed, because school history has an impact on people's understanding of Europe in either positive or negative way. Besides, participants' perspectives on the place of European history in the curriculum may affect their further conceptions, such as their approach to national history or their understanding of the ED in history teaching. The participants' perspectives about the image of Europe in the existing history curriculum and improving this image through the inclusion of an ED are discussed in the fourth section.

The fifth section looks at the concept of the ED and its reflection, role and importance in history teaching. As previously stated, finding out participants' perceptions of and attitudes to the ED in history teaching is one of the main objectives of this study. It is also crucial to investigate what kind of history curriculum development they suggest. Moreover, searching to find out whether there is any pattern of perspective or approach amongst the three groups of participants and between student teachers and teacher educators from different universities has been discussed throughout this study.

6.1. Europe and Turkey

This section aims to discover the participants' attitudes and perceptions about the issues concerning the place of Turkey in Europe from various dimensions, and the relationships between Turkey and European countries and its organisations. It also reveals their views on Turkey's potential membership of the EU. I believe that finding out the participants' thoughts on the place of Turkey in a European context, their views of the relationships between Turkey and European countries and European organisations, particularly with the EU, is one of the fundamentals to understand their conceptions of Europe and their attitudes towards the related issues, such as the ED.

In order to understand the participants' views of Europe and the ED in history teaching, relevant data from questionnaires and interviews were analysed. The views of the participants from different occupational groups and student teachers and teacher educators from three universities were compared and contrasted to find out whether there is any particular pattern or group of ideas associated within a specific occupational group or institution.

6.1.1. Turkey in Europe:

Items 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 of the questionnaire had been designed with the intention of finding out whether the participants perceived Turkey to be a European country (see Table 6.1). Firstly, in response to the statement: 'geographically, Turkey is a European country' all three groups of participants replied positively. Secondly, the teachers and teacher educators agreed that Turkey is both politically and culturally part of Europe. A significant difference is apparent with the student teachers who expressed a negative response to both questions. All three groups recorded a negative response to the perception that Turkey is culturally a European country. However, according to the results of Kruskal-Wallis test, there is a statistically significant difference amongst three groups of participants for this issue (*for item 5.3, chi square= 10.683, $p = .01$ in .05 level*). As the percentages and frequencies of responses presented in Table 6.1 reveal in detail, the participants of this study accepted Turkey as a geographical part of Europe. However, they recognised the cultural differences amongst these two. On the other hand, the participants were not certain about whether politically, Turkey is a European country.

Table 6.1. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to questionnaire items 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Attitude	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
5.1 Geographically Turkey is a European country	Disagree	23.9	32	23.7	14	4.0	1	21.6	47
	Neutral	10.4	14	5.1	3	8.0	2	8.7	19
	Agree	65.7	88	71.2	42	88.0	22	69.7	152
5.2 Politically Turkey is a European country	Disagree	50.4	67	30.5	18	28.0	7	42.4	92
	Neutral	10.5	14	22.0	13	20.0	5	14.7	32
	Agree	39.1	52	47.5	28	52.0	13	42.9	93
5.3 Culturally Turkey is a European country	Disagree	77.8	105	67.8	40	48.0	12	70.7	157
	Neutral	11.9	16	11.9	7	20.0	5	12.8	28
	Agree	10.4	14	20.3	12	32.0	8	15.5	34

When these views were then analysed in relation to the three different institutions, a more detailed picture of similarities and differences emerged. In every aspect of European integration (geographical, political and cultural) the teacher educators were more positive in their views than the student teachers as percentages and frequencies in Table 6.2 show. This is the case across all three institutions. Besides, regarding the statement ‘Culturally, Turkey is a European country’ a statistically significant difference (*Chi square*= 6.047, *p*= .05 in .05 level) occurred amongst the student teachers from different universities. Although, the student teachers from all three universities rejected this statement, the opposition of those from Central University was stronger than their counterparts from other two universities as percentages and frequencies in Table 6.2 reveal.

Table 6.2. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to questionnaire items 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Attitude	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
5.1 Geographically Turkey is a European country	Disagree	21.6	11	-----	--	25.0	11	-----	--	25.6	10	16.7	1
	Neutral	5.9	3	22.2	2	13.6	6	-----	--	12.8	5	-----	--
	Agree	72.5	37	77.8	7	61.4	27	100	10	61.5	24	83.3	5
5.2 Politically Turkey is a European country	Disagree	52.0	26	22.2	2	47.7	21	30.0	3	51.3	20	33.3	2
	Neutral	10.0	5	11.1	1	11.4	5	30.0	3	10.3	4	16.7	1
	Agree	38.0	19	66.7	6	40.9	18	40.0	4	38.5	15	50.0	3
5.3 Culturally Turkey is a European country	Disagree	90.2	46	55.6	5	68.9	31	30.0	3	71.8	28	66.7	4
	Neutral	-----	---	-----	--	17.8	8	50.0	5	20.5	8	-----	--
	Agree	9.8	5	44.4	4	13.3	6	20.0	2	7.7	3	33.3	2

The interview data highlights similar points of views. The interviewees recognised many differences between Turkey and European countries, while at the same time accepting Turkey as a European country. For example, some participants, such as TE1, thought that

Turkey and Turkish people are of Europe or attached to it, but there are some distinctions between these two contexts.

I personally regard myself and my nation as European. I don't think myself outside Europe. I also believe that we've got their skills and abilities, but our governmental system and social structure have got some deficiencies. Whereas, the governmental and social systems in European countries are very good, this is the main cause and consequence for their level of development. (TE1)

The above interview extract is illustrative of how the majority of participants conceived the term Europe as a level of development, rather than a geographical, political or cultural entity. However, their conception of Europe includes all these elements as factors facilitating European economic and political development. It can also be said that they see the level of development as a criterion for being European.

The findings obtained for this issue indicate that the participants regarded Turkey as a part of Europe. On the other hand, they were not sure about whether Turkey's political or governmental structure fits Europe or not. Besides, the majority of participants clearly stated that Turkey is culturally different from the rest of Europe. The qualitative data also revealed that the participants of this study conceptualise Europe at a level of development, which is somehow close to the concepts of westernisation or modernity. For the participants of this study therefore, the difference in the level of development is the main factor keeping Turkey apart from Europe.

6.1.2. Relationships between Turkey and Europe:

This sub-section aims to find out the participants' attitudes and perceptions of the relationships between Turkey and Europe in order to catch their broader perspective of Turkey's place in Europe. Eight questionnaire items were designed to find out the participants' perspectives on the relationships between Turkey and European countries. As the percentages and frequencies for the item 5.4 displayed in Table 2.3 reveal, none of the three groups of respondents were happy with the current state of relationships between Turkey and Europe. Although Kruskal-Wallis test result for this item revealed a difference ($\chi^2 = 7.456, p = .02$ in .05 level) amongst student teachers from Central and New universities, the percentages in Table 6.4 do not demonstrate any important diversity amongst the student teachers and teacher educators from three universities.

According to the participants, economical situations of both sides are the most important reason behind this insufficient state of the relationships, as the data in Table 6.3 reveals 93.2% of them agreed with this statement. There was no significant diversity amongst three groups of participants or student teachers and teacher educators from different universities.

Table 6.3. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to questionnaire items 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11 by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Attitude	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
5.4. The relationships between Turkey and other European countries are sufficient	Disagree	80.0	108	79.7	47	76.0	19	79.5	174
	Neutral	8.1	11	10.2	6	12.0	3	9.1	20
	Agree	11.9	16	10.2	6	12.0	3	11.4	25
5.5. The relationships are not sufficient because of the political states of both sides	Disagree	13.3	18	5.1	3	---	--	9.6	21
	Neutral	5.2	7	3.4	2	---	--	4.1	9
	Agree	81.5	110	91.5	54	100	25	86.3	189
5.6. The relationships are not sufficient because of economical situations of both sides	Disagree	4.4	6	3.4	2	4.0	1	4.1	9
	Neutral	3.7	5	1.7	1	---	--	2.7	6
	Agree	91.9	125	94.9	56	96.0	24	93.2	205
5.7. The relationships are not sufficient because of the cultural and religious differences	Disagree	7.4	10	5.1	3	12.0	3	7.3	16
	Neutral	3.7	5	6.8	4	4.0	1	4.6	10
	Agree	88.9	120	88.1	52	84.0	21	88.1	193
5.8. The relationships are not sufficient because of the lack of knowledge and understanding of opposite sides	Disagree	17.6	24	15.8	9	4.2	1	15.7	34
	Neutral	10.3	14	5.3	3	4.2	1	8.3	18
	Agree	71.3	97	78.9	45	91.7	22	75.6	164
5.9. The relationships should be improved in the future	Disagree	10.3	14	---	--	8.0	2	7.3	16
	Neutral	8.1	11	1.7	1	4.0	1	5.9	13
	Agree	81.6	111	98.3	58	88.0	22	86.8	190
5.10. Education can play a significant role to improve those relationships	Disagree	7.4	10	1.7	1	---	--	5.0	11
	Neutral	3.7	5	---	--	8.0	2	3.2	7
	Agree	89.0	121	98.3	57	92.0	23	91.8	201
5.11. School history can facilitate young people's understanding of Europe	Disagree	8.8	12	10.3	6	8.0	2	9.1	20
	Neutral	8.1	11	5.2	3	---	--	6.4	14
	Agree	83.1	113	84.5	49	92.0	23	84.5	185

The interview data also supports this point. According to some interviewees the increasing levels of economic trade between Turkey and European countries was promising. However, the participants found that these relationships were generally more in favour of European countries than Turkey. That is to say that according to the participants, differences in economic situations of Turkey and European countries is one of the factors influencing the relationships between these two. For example, one of the teachers said that:

Our economical relationships with Europe are sufficient, even too much. Particularly after the treaty of the Customs Unity, economically we're like one within the other. In fact, these relationships are working unilaterally for the benefits of Europeans like the Capitulations in the time of Ottomans. It seems on paper that those relationships create opportunities for the both sides. In practise however,

those who have got more capital and possibilities benefit from the current state of relationships. This situation creates inequality and discontent. (T8)

According to 88.1% of total questionnaire participants, the second important reason for insufficient relationships is cultural and religious differences between Turkey and the other European countries. Again the majority of participants from the different groups and from different universities agreed on this point of view. Moreover, some interviewees stated that having cultural and religious diversity is not an extraordinary situation, but using those differences for arguments against Turkey is unacceptable. They proposed that each side should approach the other one with a positive attitude in order to improve the relationships. TE7 points out that:

We've got cultural differences but we try to show understanding towards the Europeans, but they don't approach us like that. I think this might be arising from historical factors, cultural differences or economical issues. Therefore, we can't meet on a common ground. Turkey always approaches positively but the other side doesn't seem to be very enthusiastic. Though, both sides have got mistakes and defectives, our mistakes are less than theirs, I think. As a result, it is very difficult to be hopeful about the future of those relationships. Neither the Europeans nor we carry out all of our duties completely. (TE7)

On the other hand, another group of interviewees identified ethnic and religious differences amongst Turkey and Europe. According to this group of participants these differences have roots in history and continue to influence Europeans negatively. While criticising the European perspective of Turkey, this group of participants did not mention how those factors influence Turkish people's view of Europe. A student teacher revealed this perspective as:

I still think that Europe abstains themselves from Turks. They still consider Turks as a potential danger. I also believe that our Islamic religious identity has got an influence on them. I suppose the spirit of Crusaders is still engaging the minds of Europeans too. (ST3)

According to the questionnaire respondents, the political states of both sides seem to be the third important reason with the 86.3% total agreement. At this point it is worth mentioning that the whole population of teacher educators considered political situations of both sides as a factor negatively influencing the relationships between Turkey and Europe, while teachers and student teachers did not emphasise political situations. On the other hand, the interview data obtained focus on the political relationships between Turkey and Europe. As the quotation below demonstrates, the interviewees did not approve the inadequate and

inconsistent foreign policies of Turkey. They believe that these are the factors negatively influenced Turkey's position in international politics and its relationships with Europe.

Turkey doesn't have a consistent state foreign policy. We've got foreign policies of cabinets, a prime minister or ministers. Sometimes our policies suggest surrendering completely, or they sometimes suggest running away. Also the high rank military officers sometimes interfere with those foreign policy issues as it recently happened in Brussels. Unfortunately, Turkey doesn't have any consistent foreign policy towards Europe or any other part of the world. (ST4)

Table 6.4. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to questionnaire items 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, 5.10 and 5.3 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
5.4. The relationships between Turkey and other European countries are sufficient	Dis.	70.6	36	100	9	80.0	36	60.0	6	92.3	36	100	6
	Neu.	7.8	4	---	--	8.9	4	30.0	3	7.7	3	---	--
	Ag.	21.6	11	---	--	11.1	5	10.0	1	---	--	---	--
5.5. The relationships are not sufficient because of the political states of both sides	Dis.	19.6	10	---	--	11.1	5	---	--	7.7	3	---	--
	Neu.	7.8	4	---	--	4.4	2	---	--	2.6	1	---	--
	Ag.	72.5	37	100	9	84.4	38	100	10	89.7	35	100	6
5.6. The relationships are not sufficient because of the economical situations of both sides	Dis.	5.9	3	---	--	4.3	2	10.0	1	2.6	1	---	--
	Neu.	3.9	2	---	--	2.2	1	---	--	5.1	2	---	--
	Ag.	90.2	46	100	9	93.5	43	90.0	9	92.3	36	100	6
5.7. The relationships are not sufficient because of the cultural and religious differences	Dis.	7.8	4	11.1	1	6.5	3	10.0	1	7.9	3	16.7	1
	Neu.	---	--	11.1	1	6.5	3	---	--	5.3	2	---	--
	Ag.	92.2	47	77.8	7	87.0	40	90.0	9	86.8	33	83.3	5
5.8. The relationships are not sufficient because of the lack of knowledge and understanding of opposite sides	Dis.	11.8	6	12.5	1	19.6	9	---	--	23.1	9	---	--
	Neu.	9.8	5	12.5	1	4.3	2	---	--	17.9	7	---	--
	Ag.	78.4	40	75.0	6	73.9	34	100	10	59.0	23	100	6
5.9. The relationships should be improved in the future	Dis.	15.7	8	11.1	1	6.5	3	---	--	7.7	3	16.7	1
	Neu.	5.9	3	11.1	1	6.5	3	---	--	12.8	5	---	--
	Ag.	78.4	40	77.8	7	87.0	40	100	10	79.5	31	83.3	5
5.10. Education can play a significant role to improve those relationships	Dis.	9.8	5	---	--	4.3	2	---	--	7.7	3	---	--
	Neu.	3.9	2	22.2	2	6.5	3	---	--	---	--	---	--
	Ag.	86.3	44	77.8	7	89.1	41	100	10	92.3	36	100	6
5.11. School history can facilitate young people's understanding of Europe	Dis.	5.9	3	22.2	2	8.7	4	---	--	12.8	5	---	--
	Neu.	9.8	5	---	--	6.5	3	---	--	7.7	3	---	--
	Ag.	84.3	43	77.8	7	84.8	39	100	10	79.5	31	100	6

There were also some interview participants focusing on the European idea of Turkey concerning the relationships between these two. According to this group of participants, Turkey is always 'the other' for European countries and people. The Europeans have been interested in Turkey in order to benefit from it. One teacher educator highlighted Europe's

foreign policy of Turkey while he pointed out his thoughts on the prejudices and hidden intentions about Turkey.

When talking about Turkey, the Europeans bring our problems into agenda like those problems with Greece. They always try to dig up our international or domestic problems in order to benefit from us. This situation shows that they don't have any intention of sharing a future with us. (TE8)

Another interviewee gives her/his account of the European approach of Turkey.

The Europeans define Turkey as the closest country to Europe from the outside, whilst considering it as the last territory to be accepted European. (TE2)

As the interview extracts above indicate that some of the participants, particularly those student teachers and teacher educators from Central University had negative perspectives about Europe or the political relationships between Europe and Turkey. However, like ST10, their counterparts from West University revealed rather positive attitudes about the same issues.

I don't agree with the idea that the Europeans are against us because they don't like Turks or because we're Muslims. I've never felt like this. (ST10)

For the questionnaire participants, lack of knowledge and understanding of the opposite side with 75.6% of agreement is another reason behind the insufficient relationships between Turkey and European countries. Although the percentages and frequencies show diversity amongst the attitudes of three groups of the participants and between the student teachers and the teacher educators from different universities, the Kruskal-Wallis test results indicate that none of those differences is significant. For the interviewees this is related to the lack of trust between two sides. As ST5 disclosed that:

Turkey's relationships with European countries and institutions have been developing but in my opinion they aren't sufficient at all. One of the most important reasons for this is the lack of trust between the two sides, which is essential. For example Turkey wants to become a member of the EU but it has got some fears like they don't accept us to the EU because they are Europeans who are Christians and they don't like us at all. Also as we hear or read sometimes there are some people in the other side who says the EU is a Christian Union but Turks are Muslim and Asian. As a result it's very difficult to improve relationships because there's no understanding or trust between the two sides. (ST5)

Another interviewee deeply underlined the lack of information and understanding about the other side and emphasised that this situation had been deliberately engineered and controlled by certain political thoughts and governmental policies.

The ordinary people of Europe don't know anything about Turkey. What they know about Turkey is just myths, which is based on the version of history commonly taught in Europe. That version of history demonstrates Turks as Barbarians, conquerors who are not civilised at all. The Turkish public has got a very similar approach too. For instance there's a very few people in Turkey who like Greece, which is again because of the version of history taught in the country. Therefore, we can't say that the Europeans and Turks know enough of each other. In fact, what they know about each other is modified versions of historical information that are influenced by political thoughts and governmental politics. (ST1)

The questionnaire items 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11 were designed to find out what the participants' thought about the future of those relationships and the role of education, particularly, history teaching, in this context. All the three groups of participants supported the idea of improving the relationships between Turkey and European countries (86.8%). Nevertheless, there was a significant difference amongst them (*chi square*= 9.926, *p*= .01 in .05 level). The data in Table 6.3 on the item 5.9 show that teachers (98.3%) wanted this more than the other two groups. Amongst the student teachers and teacher educators, student teachers from West University were in favour of improving those relationships with 87% more than the student teachers from the other two universities.

In addition, the majority of the participants (91.8%) believed that 'education can play a significant role to improve those relationships.' The percentages and frequencies obtained from different occupational groups and student teachers and teacher educators from different universities are all found in favour of this idea and very close to each other. The interview data also support this general perspective. The extract below explains the reasons why the participants gave importance for education in developing relationships between Turkey and Europe.

I think there is a direct connection between the education system of a country and its development level, cultural, economical and political states. We will overcome some of these problems, if we bring up the new generations with some particular abilities and characteristics. They are adopting a genuine critical approach, developing an understanding of today's world, thinking independently and at the same time nourishing the purpose of preserving national honour, which should be a patriotic sentiment not a chauvinistic or a racist approach. In addition, the state of its economy affects Turkey's foreign policies negatively. Nevertheless, the behaviours and personalities of its citizens have got some influence of Turkey's economical situation. Bribery, unfair protection and some kinds of privileges are effective in obtaining economical or political benefits, because the general state of education present in the country is not suitable for raising responsible and conscious citizens. I believe these problems will be overcome, if we can reorganise our education system. (TE5)

The questionnaire respondents also supported the statement 'school history can facilitate young people's understanding of Europe' with 84.5% agreement, but their support was slightly limited compared to the previous item. Teacher educators, particularly those from

West (100%) and New (100%) universities were very supportive of this idea, while their colleagues from Central University (77.8%) were not quite optimistic. The qualitative data revealed the reasons behind the views of the participants from Central University. As TE2 stated in the extract below, the participants from this institution proposed alternative ideas for developing the relationships between Turkey and Europe.

It would be forcing to educate people for developing sympathy of Europe. In my view, some nice gestures or incentives can help to develop a positive perspective of Europe or the others. This may work better than education, I guess. It's not going to be as effective as in practise, whatever you try to do in the context of education. (TE2)

The questionnaire findings obtained for the issue of relationships between Turkey and Europe revealed that the participant did not find those relationships sufficient. According to the data there are several reasons for this. The economic development of the each side appeared to be the most important reason for the participants. This was also related to their conception of Europe as a level of development mentioned in the previous sub-section. Political situations and foreign policies of both sides were seen as the second important reason for the insufficient relationships. Cultural and religious differences amongst Turkey and Europe were regarded as the third reason, while lack of knowledge and understanding about the other sides came fourth.

Additionally, the interview data revealed that the participants regarded economical, political, cultural and religious differences amongst Turkey and European countries as factors preventing the improvement of relationships. According to some interviewees, Europeans benefit from Turkey's weak economical and political situations, while trying to keep the distance from Turks with the excuse of the cultural and religious differences. Besides, many interview participants believed that there was a lack of knowledge and understanding about the other side in Turkish and European communities.

On the other hand, the quantitative and qualitative findings indicated that the majority of participants wanted to see those relationships improved in the future. They also indicated the importance of education, and history teaching in particular, as catalysts in developing the relationship between Turkey and Europe. However, there were some interviewees who had suspicions about the place of education and history teaching in developing those relationships. The comparison of the views of three groups of participants about the issues

discussed in this subsection did not indicate any diversity, whilst student teachers and teacher educators from different universities disclosed differing viewpoints. Particularly, the participants from Central University expressed negative and pessimistic opinions about the relationships between Turkey and European countries and organisations. They also did not show any encouraging attitude towards the improvement of these relationships in the future.

6.1.3. Turkey's membership of the EU

The aim in this part is to find out participants' views on Turkey's application to become a member of the EU, which is also related to their general perspective of Europe. This issue was not included in the questionnaire, however. The interview data revealed that the participants' perspectives on the process of Turkey's membership into the EU varied. While some of them put cautious and anxious views about the issue, there were others who supported the idea of Turkey becoming a member of the EU at any expense. There was a third group of interviewees who had uncertain and shifting ideas about the issue. As T8 pointed out below, some participants thought that Turkey should not join the EU because the country has got different cultural and religious identity from the rest of Europe, and this membership may put Turkey's independence under restraints.

In my view, joining the EU isn't essential. I don't look at this issue as unification. I'd like to review this issue very carefully and meticulously. For me, it is not right or sensible to be in the service of Europeans, to think like them, to live like them or to unify with them. I'd like to think and live as who I am. How objectively I try to look at events or issues, I always consider that I live in an Islamic society and I'm a member of the Turkish nation. (T8)

Some student teachers argued that Europe is not going to accept us into the EU however hard Turkey tries to fulfil their requirements. Therefore, it would not be worth working for it anymore. Some other student teachers put forward that joining the EU will not make any difference or solve the country's problems. Therefore, it is not necessary to work for it. Another group of participants also did not find joining the EU necessary or essential. According to them the issue of the EU membership is a matter of economical and political partnership and because of its position, Turkey has got other alternatives.

I don't want to get stuck with the idea of joining the EU. What I mean is I don't have a worry of being European or joining the EU, because I don't believe this is inevitable at all. If Turkey can use its resources and potential accurately it can stand alone by itself, because geo-politically it is very important and Europe is aware of this importance. I think it is also not an issue for Europe to accept

or reject Turkey's application to the EU. What the Europeans try to do is having Turkey do whatever they want by using the incentive of the EU membership. (TE1)

However, there were some interviewees in this group who were aware of other alternatives of economical or political partnership but still thought that joining the EU is the best option for Turkey to secure its place in the international political arena. ST4 explained this point of view as:

The issue of the EU always seem to be very complicated for me. I think we should join it for some reasons, and shouldn't for other reasons, because it seems that the EU is becoming a Christian Club. On the other hand a country or a nation needs to be allied with the others in order to survive in international political arena. Especially one, like Turkey that has got importance in geopolitics must find international allies. What I mean is that if we can't join the EU, we should get closer to the USA, or we should join the EU in order not to be in need of the USA. Unfortunately, Turkey can't apply these kind of policies. It is still applying the one sided policies of the cold war time. However, I believe that we should join the EU no matter what. This may create some problems in cultural areas but essential for our international political relations. (ST4)

As the data presented above shows that negative viewpoints about the EU membership were mostly related or attributed to the ideas or actions of European people and organisations or various kinds of differences between Turkey and Europe. In addition, some of the interviewees believed that on the contrary to the government, Turkish people in general do not want to join the EU for various reasons. Therefore, instead of trying to join the EU, they suggested to look for other alternatives.

Along with those participants who had negative perspectives about the EU membership, there were some neutral or moderate ones who were positive but uncertain about the process of membership. One group of interviewees supported Turkey's potential membership of the EU, but they seemed to have worries about it. They claimed that it should be based on the demand of two sides and provide benefit for both of them. One teacher educator disclosed this perspective together with her/his personal viewpoint.

It's possible for us to join the EU, but very difficult, because Turkey is a developing country with a different cultural tradition and religious identity. Apart from those, we have got long past in monarchy and have been trying to establish a constitutional democracy and its essential features. However, it hasn't fully evolved and still needs changes to fulfil the requirements of the EU membership imposed by those European countries. Therefore, those countries that form the core of the EU, which have also got long traditions in democracy should help Turkey to improve its situations. They should also modify the criteria and requirements of the EU membership for Turkey because our religious and cultural identity is quite different from the rest of Europe. Turkey has been trying to express itself about these issues. However, the other side doesn't positively perceive this. You can see it clearly in how they show sympathy and interest to Greece, and their perception of Turkey. (TE2)

TE6 opposed this view and asserted that Turkey should fulfil those standards and requirements in order to become a member of the EU.

I think Turkey has got an interesting attitude concerning to the EU. Turkey wants to join the EU but it looks for a way out of the standards and requirements of the membership at the same time. Turkey says to Europe that you should accept me into the EU but I'll do these things differently from what you require because I got a different situation. However, we must take this issue seriously I think. The EU has got some criteria and we should accept that we couldn't join without fulfilling those requirements. Additionally, we shouldn't forget that it's Turkey who has demanded this membership. Therefore, we should do our best to fulfil the requirements. In my view, joining the EU shouldn't be discussed further because it's been long decided to turn our direction to Europe. (TE6)

Like TE6, many of the interviewees believed that Turkey should work for fulfilling those requirements and reaching the standards set by the EU, even though they know that Turkey is definitely not going to be accepted into the EU.

If we look at this issue we'll see that European people look at us with prejudices. The progression of the latest events shows this. Among themselves the Europeans negotiate how to keep Turkey busy without accepting her into the EU. Even if we know this reality we should work on to achieve those standards and criteria of the EU. We should do this in order to reach those standards and development level not because just the Europeans want. (T1)

The rest of the participants wanted Turkey to become a member of the EU for various reasons. Although s/he had negative impressions about Europe, T5 supported the idea of membership for the future of Turkish youth.

I want Turkey to become a member of the EU for the freedom of travel and relocation because our youth don't have a brilliant future under the present circumstances in Turkey. The possibility of finding a job is very low even for a university graduate because we don't create more recruitment opportunities and we've never been a producing country. I'd like to see our schools offering better foreign language training and the Turkish youth have a freedom of travelling and residence in Europe. For those reasons I want Turkey to join the EU. However, my actual point of view is that they're not going to accept us into the EU. They keep Turkey busy with some small incentives and continuous demands in order to use it as a buffer state against the Middle East and Central Asian Turkish states because neither the potential of Turkish government nor the our public is ready for this membership. (T5)

Similar to the previous participant, TE4 wanted to see Turkey a member of the EU. S/he thought that it is very difficult, but essential for Turkey's development.

I entirely support the idea of Turkey joining the EU because this may help us to move ahead from the democratic understanding that is based on a handful important people to the perspectives founded on rules, standards and norms. I believe that joining the EU is the best preference for Turkey in order to reach a better quality of participatory democratic understanding. However, it seems that this process will be very difficult and painful because Turkey is a country that tries to blend the western and eastern cultures together. It is also a difficult decision for Europe too, because apart from those cultural and political anxieties, Turkey has got a growing enormous population and a very weak economy. (TE4)

The examination of the interview data on Turkey's becoming a member of the EU revealed that some of the teachers and those participants from Central University had negative or uncertain opinions on the matter of entering the EU. According to those participants there is no need to try to join the EU, because the Europeans are not going to accept Turkey in any case. They also indicated the cultural and religious differences amongst Turkey and Europe as impediments of this membership process. Instead of trying to join the EU, some of the participants from this group suggested that Turkey should look for other alternatives to orientate its political, economical and social policies for the future.

On the other hand, participants from West and New universities with a few number of practising teachers looked more positively at Turkey becoming a member of the EU. Some of them considered this membership crucial to the future of Turkish youth, while the others stated that the conditions and requirements put by the EU states as criteria for becoming a member may help Turkey at least on the way of its development. Nevertheless, there were only a few participants who firmly believed that Turkey would be a member of the EU in the near future.

6.2. Knowledge of Europe and European History

The objective of this section is to explore the extent of the participants' knowledge of Europe, European history, history teaching in European countries, European and other international collaborative works and projects on history teaching. The other aim is to test whether there was any particular perspective or diversity amongst the points of view of different occupational groups or universities.

6.2.1. Knowing Europe

Three statements in the questionnaire were related to the general image of Europe in the minds of participants, their information/knowledge about Europe and European history. As the data in Table 6.5 reveal none of the participating groups admitted that they had an obscure image of Europe because of the lack of knowledge (69.7% of total population disagreed). They also stated that they have 'adequate information/knowledge about Europe'

(63.1%) and particularly about ‘the history of Europe’ (68%).’ The percentages and frequencies of the answers presented in Table 6.5 indicate that particularly the teachers and teacher educators felt themselves very confident about these matters.

Table 6.5. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 5.12, 6.1 and 6.2 by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
5.12. The image of Europe is obscure in my mind because of the lack of knowledge	Dis.	65.9	89	75.9	44	76.0	19	69.7	152
	Neu.	7.4	10	5.2	3	4.0	1	6.4	14
	Ag.	26.7	36	19.0	11	20.0	5	23.9	52
6.1. I have adequate information/knowledge about Europe	Dis.	24.3	33	13.8	8	16.0	4	20.5	45
	Neu.	18.4	25	15.5	9	8.0	2	16.4	36
	Ag.	57.4	78	69.0	40	76.0	19	63.1	138
6.2. I have adequate information/knowledge about the history of Europe	Dis.	19.9	27	5.2	3	12.0	3	15.1	33
	Neu.	19.9	27	17.2	10	---	--	16.9	37
	Ag.	60.3	82	77.6	45	88.0	22	68.0	149

However, there were statistically significant differences between these two occupational groups and the student teachers for the item 6.2 (*Chi-Square*= 10.743, $p=.01$ in .05 level). While 69% of the teachers and 76% of the teacher educators stated that they had sufficient information about Europe, only 57.4% of the student teachers agreed with them. Besides, 60.3% of the student teachers expressed that they know enough about history of Europe, when 77.6% of the teachers and 88% of the teacher educators thought in this way.

The comparison of three universities revealed that the student teachers from Central University felt themselves more competent about Europe and European history than the other two subgroups of the student teachers. Kruskal-Wallis test scores obtained for the items 5.12 (*Chi-Squ*= 6.168, $p=.05$ in .05 level) and 6.1 (*Chi-Squ*= 6.478, $p=.04$ in .05 level) explain that these differences are statistically significant. However, the teacher educators from the same university did not seem comfortable about knowing Europe and European history that much, as the data shown in Table 6.6 below reveals.

The interview data show that some of the student teachers, particularly those from New University did not find the education they received on European history sufficient.

During my degree study I didn't learn anything about the medieval Europe. I mostly learnt about the history of Europe in the modern ages because most of the courses in my department were based on political history, which inevitably include a modern European history. I don't know anything more on Europe at all.” (ST12)

Table 6.6. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 5.12, 6.1 and 6.2 by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
5.12. The image of Europe is obscure in my mind because of the lack of knowledge	Dis.	74.5	38	66.7	6	52.2	24	100	10	71.1	27	50.0	3
	Neu.	3.9	2	11.1	1	8.7	4	---	--	10.5	4	---	--
	Ag.	21.6	11	22.2	2	39.1	18	---	--	18.4	7	50.0	3
6.1. I have adequate information/knowledge about Europe	Dis.	13.7	7	22.2	2	28.3	13	10.0	1	33.3	13	16.7	1
	Neu.	15.7	8	---	--	23.9	11	10.0	1	15.4	6	16.7	1
	Ag.	70.6	36	77.8	7	47.8	22	80.0	8	51.3	20	66.7	4
6.2. I have adequate information/knowledge about the history of Europe	Dis.	17.6	9	11.1	1	17.4	8	10.0	1	25.6	10	16.7	1
	Neu.	11.8	6	---	--	23.9	11	---	--	25.6	10	---	--
	Ag.	70.6	36	88.9	8	58.7	27	90.0	9	48.7	19	83.3	5

Besides, some specific issues, such as Turkey's application to become a member of the EU, aroused student teachers' interest of Europe.

I don't know anything specific about Europe. I try to learn about Europe from newspapers. The process of Turkey's application to the EU has particularly increased my interest of Europe. (ST7)

The interview data also indicated that some teacher educators are specialised on European history. Moreover, some of them wanted to learn about European matters because they thought that it would be necessary for their professional position in case of Turkey's potential integration into the EU. On the other hand, some of the teachers stated that they feel it necessary to teach European history, which makes them learn more about Europe and its history, as T4 pointed out:

I'm interested in Europe in a general level, because I believe that it is necessary to teach Turkish youth how Europeans reached their current state of social and economical developments. (T4)

The data on this issue reveals that the participants, particularly practising teachers and teacher educators believe that they knew enough about Europe, European history and other related matters. The most important thing that motivated all groups of participants to learn more about Europe is the process of Turkey's application to become a member of the EU. Differences were observed between three participating groups and amongst the student teachers and teacher educators from three universities.

6.2.2. History teaching in European countries

In this part, it was aimed to explore how much the participants of this study knew about history teaching in European countries. Only the teacher educators answered the questionnaire item 6.5 ‘I have satisfactory information/knowledge about history teaching in one or more European countries’ positively (56%). Kruskal-Wallis test score amongst three groups of the participants, (*chi-square*= 17.190 *p*= .00 in .05 level) revealed that the student and practising teachers did not feel themselves confident enough in their knowledge of teaching history in European countries.

Table 6.7. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 6.5 by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.5. I have satisfactory information/knowledge about history teaching in one or more European countries	Dis.	65.4	87	51.7	30	20.0	5	56.5	122
	Neu.	10.5	14	19.0	11	24.0	6	14.4	31
	Ag.	24.1	32	29.3	17	56.0	14	29.2	63

The Kruskal-Wallis tests carried out for the student teachers and teacher educators indicated no significant difference amongst the participants from different universities.

Table 6.8. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 6.5 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.5. I have satisfactory information/knowledge about history teaching in one or more European countries	Dis.	64.7	33	22.2	2	70.5	31	---	--	60.5	23	16.7	1
	Neu.	5.9	3	22.2	2	9.1	4	---	--	18.4	7	---	--
	Ag.	29.4	15	55.6	5	20.5	9	100	10	21.1	8	83.3	5

The qualitative data however, indicated that many interviewees from all three groups had some information about history teaching in Europe. For instance, the majority of teachers expressed that they have heard about history teaching in some European countries, particularly those neighbouring ones, but their source of information was limited to mass media and some seminars organised by the MONE or the History Foundation. One teacher interviewee said that s/he learnt about history teaching in France and England. According to this participant, history teaching in those countries is better than Turkey and continuing to develop.

I know that the state of history teaching is very good in France. I learnt it from some seminars I've attended. I learnt that they have very nice textbooks that include modern and contemporary history. I also know there are some studies on creative history teaching in England. (T7)

Student teachers conveyed that they learnt about history teaching in Europe during the university education. Their main resources were lecturers in their departments and textbooks brought from European countries, but there were a few exceptions like ST8, who had experienced the European way of education and history teaching. S/he visited Germany to see the German educational environments, particularly how history is being taught. Based on her/his experience and observations s/he compared history teaching in Germany and Turkey and asserted that there was a big difference amongst them.

In Germany, they have very nice textbooks in which they can simply criticise Hitler or anyone else. No one can do this kind of criticism in our country. Plus the process of history lessons in Germany is quite enjoyable and useful. They have many types of materials to use in the classroom, which makes pupils being involved in the class. Therefore, the role of teacher in there is very different from the one in Turkey. As I said before they can discuss anything in the classroom. While some pupils criticise Hitler, the others can defend him and his thoughts. However, it's very difficult to imagine this thing to happen in a Turkish classroom, even in a university. For example none can imagine discussing about Atatürk in any classroom. It's something that still seems to be impossible. (ST8)

On the other hand, the interview data revealed that teacher educators' knowledge of history teaching in European countries is better than the previous two groups. Most of them were reading European publications on history teaching. Some of them also indicated that they spent time in one or more European countries. As a result they considered themselves to be able to comment on history teaching in those contexts or compare and contrast them with the situation in Turkey. For example, TE4 compares the problems and potentials of history teaching in England and Turkey. S/he claimed that albeit these two countries are socially, economically and politically different from each other, the problems of history teaching experienced in England before 1970s and those still exist in Turkey are very similar. For example, the curricula in both contexts introduce vast amount of content knowledge for socially or politically determined aims, and objectives and the pedagogy is based on rote learning. S/he stated that bringing the methodology of history into the classroom, which was defined as a way to solve the problems in England, would be a model for improving history teaching in Turkish schools.

In England, they have developed an approach of history teaching that gives pupils an identity or role of little historians who have got background information and resources about the issue under investigation. The pupils are expected to compare, contrast and analyse those resources, and reach their own conclusions about it. This approach brings the methodology of history in the classroom and

changes the roles of textbooks, teachers and pupils. I think it'll be very difficult to reach those standards in Turkey because there are many resistance points. (TE4)

Apart from that, some teachers and student teachers stated that the 'History Foundation' and its publications have a significant influence on their interest and knowledge about history teaching in Europe. However, they did not find those efforts satisfactory. Additionally, many of the interviewees said that they are enthusiastic to learn about the state and developments of history teaching outside Turkey. Nevertheless, it was very difficult for them, because most of them did not know any foreign language and the quantity and quality of relevant material available in Turkish was very limited.

The quantitative and qualitative data analysed here show that the majority of participants did not consider themselves as knowing enough about history teaching in European countries. On the other hand, many of them stated that they had some superficial knowledge about it. Only the group of teacher educators thought they know enough about history teaching outside the country. The analysis also revealed that there is no important difference amongst student teachers and teacher educators from three universities dealt with in this study.

6.2.3. European and international collaborative projects on history teaching

Related to history teaching in Europe and other international contexts, there have been many European or world-wide projects and studies carried out to improve the state of history teaching as discussed in chapter two. By means of interviews, the participants' knowledge of these projects and perceptions about them were explored. The data indicate that most of the participants did not know about these projects or studies at all, while some interviewees had very limited knowledge. On the other hand, there was a number of participants who had information about these projects, or had participated in some of them.

The data revealed that the student teachers formed the group least informed about these projects. Most of the student teachers who knew about these projects and studies stated that they obtained their knowledge from the publications of the History Foundation or from the academics in their departments. As the interview extract below reflects, generally they supported these European-wide projects.

I've very little information about them, which is mostly based on the periodical, 'Toplumsal Tarih' I support these projects because they aim to get various societies close to each other and try to help them learn about one another. (ST13)

Moreover, a group of student teachers criticised Turkey's participation in these projects. They expected more active and positive involvement in order to change the state of history teaching and prepare the country for potential integration in the EU. As ST9 said that:

If Turkey wants to be integrated into Europe, it should be involved in these projects. Although, we've already joined some in theory, there is no change in practise so far. (ST9)

Similar to student teachers, practising teachers put forward very positive perceptions about these projects that have been carried out by UNESCO and several other European organisations, including the COE, because these works aim to promote a peaceful and tolerant approach of history teaching.

I've attended to a seminar on history teaching organised by a branch of the COE. I've seen that by means of those projects they are trying to improve mutual understandings between countries like Turkey and Greece by developing a shared approach of history and history teaching. (T6)

On the other hand, history educators presented various perspectives about this topic. Some of them, particularly those from West and New universities supported these projects and criticised related policies and practise in Turkey. According to this group of teacher educators, Turkey must be involved in this kind of projects more often, and the government should make it easier for individuals and organisations to participate in them.

We just started to know and to get involved in these projects. My faculty is involved in a project on democracy education. I believe that these kinds of projects make different nations get closer to each other. They also make the dissemination of information easier. However, we have got many difficulties or obstacles making it difficult to participate in these projects. (TE6)

Teacher educators from Central University had some suspicions about these studies and projects. According to them, these projects aimed to produce a common approach and understanding of history by restricting different interpretations. They believed that the new approach has been developed in Europe would be a western or a Euro-centric one and had a potential to exclude national and religious characteristics of those cultures that still remained in the peripheries of the continent. TE3 expressed this view as:

There are some projects aiming to disarm history and history textbooks. I partially find these projects positive but there are still a lot of unsolved problems out there. For instance, what will you call the Rome-German Empire? Will you call it an empire? Will you call the Ottomans an empire or not? That is to say whether is it possible to give the common or shared meaning to some specific concepts such as colonisation? For example, how will you explain the American invasion of Iraq? Will you call it an

invasion or liberation? What I mean is that some of the meanings attributed to history are still not clear. They have been looking for a way out, but I think their final solution will be a Euro-centric one. I think they'll exclude Turkey or some other countries from Europe, because for them we're still 'the others' like an imaginary place or society in 'the Arabian Nights'. In my belief, it is because of the excessive self-confidence and the feeling of superiority the western world has got. These things led them to approach Turkey or countries or societies like us as an exotic theme in the National Geographic, nothing more than that. As a result of this approach, societies like us develop an irrational reaction, which makes us to develop negative feelings about 'the others'. (TE3)

The interview findings on European and international collaborative studies and projects revealed that most of the participants were not informed about those works. On the other hand, there were some participants who knew about these projects or studies or even some interviewees participated in some of those works. While the majority of student teachers and teachers stated positive points of view about these projects and studies, the perspective of teacher educators were varying according to their institution. As it stated previously, in contrast to all other sub-groups, teacher educators from Central University presented negative opinions and suspicions for these projects, particularly about their perspective.

6.3. The Place of Europe in the Present Curriculum and History Teaching:

The objective of this section is to find out participants' attitudes to and perceptions of the place of Europe in the present secondary school history curriculum, because their views on this issue might have an influence on their perspective of the potential inclusion of the ED in the same curriculum. There were two items in the questionnaire asked with the intention of exploring participants' perspectives about whether the space in the present curriculum allocated to European history was sufficient, and had an impact on teachers in the classroom.

The responses obtained for the questionnaire item 6.4 'the space allocated to Europe and European history in the secondary school history curriculum is adequate' from three groups of participants revealed that 61.9% of all participants disagreed with this statement (see Table 6.9). However, the comparison of three universities revealed statistically significant differences amongst the student teachers (*chi square*= 8.893 *p*= .01 in .05 level) and teacher educators (*chi square*= 6.951 *p*= .032 in .05 level). The data shown in Table 6.10 reveal that teacher educators from Central University agreed (55.6%) with the statement

given above, when the other sub-groups were opposing. It was also seen that comparing to the other sub-groups of the student teachers; student teachers from Central University were relatively restrained about this statement with only 52.9% disagreement. On the other hand, the participants, particularly those from West University did not think that the place allocated to Europe in the present curriculum is adequate at all.

Table 6.9. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.4 and 6.10 in by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.4. I think the space given to Europe and European history in the secondary school history curriculum is adequate	Dis.	67.2	90	52.5	31	56.0	14	61.9	135
	Neu.	12.7	17	13.6	8	16.0	4	13.1	29
	Ag.	20.1	27	33.9	20	28.0	7	24.3	54
6.10. The present history curriculum prevents teachers from teaching more on Europe and ED	Dis.	18.7	25	33.3	19	12.0	3	21.8	47
	Neu.	20.1	27	17.5	10	12.0	3	18.5	40
	Ag.	61.2	82	49.1	28	76.0	19	59.7	129

All three groups of the participants (59.7%) agreed with the statement presented in item 6.10 ‘the present history curriculum prevents teachers from teaching more on Europe and ED’ However, there was a diversity amongst the views of three groups, which was found statistically significant (*chi square*= 6.700 *p*= .04 in .05 level). Teacher educators (76%) favoured this idea mostly, when teachers’ support (49.1%) was the lowest amongst all three groups.

Table 6.10. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.4 and 6.10 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.4. I think the space given to Europe and European history in the secondary school history curriculum is adequate	Dis.	52.9	27	22.2	2	79.5	35	80.0	8	71.8	28	66.7	4
	Neu.	13.7	7	22.2	2	4.5	2	10.0	1	20.5	8	16.7	1
	Ag.	33.3	17	55.6	5	15.9	7	10.0	1	7.7	3	16.7	1
6.10. The present history curriculum prevents teachers from teaching more on Europe and ED	Dis.	27.5	14	33.3	3	11.1	5	---	--	15.8	6	---	--
	Neu.	11.8	6	22.2	2	11.1	5	10.0	1	42.1	16	---	--
	Ag.	60.8	31	44.4	4	77.8	35	90.0	9	42.1	16	100	6

Although generally they supported the statement ‘the present history curriculum prevents teachers from teaching more on Europe and European history’ the student teachers (*chi square*= 8.167 *p*= .02 in .05 level) and teacher educators (*chi square*= 8.007 *p*= .02 in .05 level) from different universities revealed diverse points of view. The majority of the

teacher educators from West (90%) and New (100%) universities agreed with the statement, whilst their colleagues from Central University oppose this idea with only 44% in agreement. The student teachers, particularly those from West University presented a view revealing that they wanted freedom for teachers to teach more about Europe and European history.

The qualitative data gathered through interviews highlighted the similar point of views and brought more explanations in about the issue under investigation. In reverse of the questionnaire findings presented above, teacher interviewees did not find the space allocated to Europe in the present history curriculum sufficient. They suggested that the proportion of European history in the curriculum should be increased, but it cannot be equal to national history, as T3 asserts.

European history has got very limited space in the curriculum. It could be increased, but I can't say that it should be twice as much as the current amount. Because we already complain that the curriculum is loaded with extensive content knowledge and we can't teach this content within the given time. I mean it can't be like 50% national history and 50% European history. (T3)

The interview findings also revealed that most teachers agreed with the selection of topics from the European history in the curriculum. However, they complained about pedagogical, technical and material deficiencies about teaching European history in the classroom.

In my view, the place of Europe in the present history curriculum is not sufficient at all. It's because the curriculum mostly includes Turkish national history. However, the selection of topics from European history in the curriculum is quite okay for me, because instead of political history those topics are mostly on social, cultural and economic dimensions, which makes history enjoyable and meaningful for pupils. Neither the curriculum nor the Ministry suggests any pedagogical methods and techniques or present any teaching material. As teachers we try to make those topics understandable and not boring for pupils. (T1)

Contrasting the view of teachers, some student teachers and teacher educators did not agree with the selection of European topics included in the present curriculum. They thought that the selection was based on political and ideological preferences rather than educational reasons. According to them the dominant educational ideologies in the country have got nationalistic characteristics. The holders of those ideologies aim to bring up new generations as devoted citizens for the country. Therefore, when it comes to history, national history is particularly emphasised in the present curriculum. History of the other countries, nations or societies mentioned, if they had any connection to Turkish history or had an impact on it.

The curriculum only includes those topics of European history which are thought to be related to or had an impact on Turkish history. For example, the Renaissance and the Reformation are given importance. I believe that it's because those topics are appropriate for the dominant educational ideologies in Turkey. Moreover, they aren't sufficient for introducing European history. (ST14)

Besides, teacher educators and student teachers complained that the topics selected from European history were limited to some specific areas and dimensions of history. For example, they said there was no place for the philosophical basis of European history or its economical and social dimensions. Some interviewees also claimed that there was no connection or synchronisation between the European history selected in the curriculum and those topics on Turkish history presented in the curriculum. Teacher educator TE3 explained this issue.

I'd like to talk about the functionality of European history instead of its quantity in the curriculum. Europeans as 'the others' are mostly considered as the rivals of the Ottomans. Sometimes they, 'the others' are evaluated as those strange creatures that discovered America or made the Renaissance. However, there's nothing about 'the others' as being human or the relationships between their social life and that of our own ancestors. In the textbooks, Europeans are perceived and reflected as the human beings who lived in different locations or geographies and who did totally different things. (TE3)

The interview data indicated that most of the participants thought that there must be more European history or history of the other countries and continents. This is not only necessary to learn about the other countries and nations better, but also essential for understanding our own history, as student teacher ST4 asserts:

I think the place given to Europe in the history curriculum isn't sufficient. It's because as the historian İ. Ortaylı says cultures don't exist individually or isolated from one another. The Ottoman culture isn't only based on Turkish and Islamic cultures but also relies on the characteristics of other cultures like Byzantine. Therefore, in order to understand our own culture we need to study the others like Europeans. Of course we need to know European history. One can't comprehend Turkish history, if s/he doesn't know about history of Rome or Byzantine. (ST4)

The examination of relevant data showed that all three groups of the interviewees thought that the place of Europe in the present Turkish secondary school history curriculum is not sufficient. While teachers were mostly concerned with practical aspects of the issue, student teachers and teacher educators generally reflected on the reasons and motives behind the selection of particular themes or topics. Additionally, the analysis of qualitative data revealed that student teachers and teacher educators from West and New universities pointed out that the influence of nationalistic perspectives on the curriculum limits the space for European history. On the other

hand, the participants from Central University focused on the necessity of having a broader historical perspective in order to comprehend local, national and universal (global) historical issues better.

6.4. The Image of Europe in the History Curriculum and History Teaching

This section explores the participants' views on the presentation of Europe and European history in the existing curriculum. Another objective in this section is to find out the interviewees' perspectives about developing a positive image of Europe in the minds of Turkish youth by means of history teaching. It was thought that this would be helpful for obtaining participants' broader perspectives on teaching about Europe, and European history.

There was one questionnaire item related to the presentation of Europe and European history in the curriculum. The responses indicated that none of the three groups of participants agreed with the statement 'the image of Europe given in the history curriculum and formal history education is true and accurate' as the data in Table 6.11 show.

Table 6.11. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 6.3 by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.3. The image of Europe given in the history curriculum and formal history education is true and accurate	Dis.	49.6	66	44.8	26	52.0	13	48.6	105
	Neu.	31.6	42	25.9	15	24.0	6	29.2	63
	Ag.	18.8	25	29.3	17	24.0	6	22.2	48

However, the comparison of three universities revealed that there were statistically significant differences amongst the student teachers (*Chi square*= 10.232, *p*= .01 in .05 level) from different universities. Contrary to other sub-groups, the questionnaire participants from Central University disclosed rather moderate opinions about this statement, whilst their counterparts from West University gave the strongest negative answers as Table 6.12 present.

Table 6.12. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 6.3 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.3. The image of Europe given in the history curriculum and formal history education is true and accurate	Dis.	36.0	18	22.2	2	65.9	29	70.0	7	48.7	19	66.7	4
	Neu.	32.0	16	33.3	3	22.7	10	30.0	3	41.0	16	---	--
	Ag.	32.0	16	44.4	4	11.4	5	---	--	10.3	4	33.3	2

The qualitative data revealed very similar characteristics about the image of Europe in history teaching. Additionally, they shed light on various aspects of the issue under investigation. Most of the interviewees stated that a positive image of Europe should be developed in the minds of Turkish youth. They also added that this positive image must be as realistic and objective as possible, and to include the other parts of the world. Besides, some participants stated that the Turkish youth already had positive attitudes towards Europe.

I believe that the Turkish youth have already got very positive attitudes towards Europe because they're already Europeans. There's already a positive image of Europe in Turkey I believe, which was formed after the revolutions of Atatürk because, turn your face to the west, he says to the Turkish youth. There are very few people in Turkey who've got negative attitudes about Europe because of some marginal political perspectives. (T7)

Additionally, some participants believed that developing positive attitudes towards Europe is necessary as it can play a role in Turkey's potential integration in the European Union.

TE6 disclosed this point of view by emphasising the place of history teaching:

We should develop positive attitudes about Europe, if we still want to join the EU. We need to think that if Turkey joins the EU we'll share many things with the Europeans. Therefore, we should develop positive attitudes about Europe so that we can understand them better and communicate with them well. As historians, we can start with eliminating those topics or approaches from the curriculum and textbooks that arouse hostility or negative attitudes towards Europe, in order to develop a positive image. (TE6)

Moreover, there were some interviewees who asserted that trying to develop a positive or negative image of Europe could not be fruitful. Instead, they proposed creating an approach to Europe that is objective, neutral and balanced. According to this group of participants, developing a neutral and objective approach to Europe would help Turkey adapt and make use of the accumulation or experience Europeans have developed through history. Some interviewees also pointed out the importance of historical skills for developing a better understanding of Europe.

Instead of developing a positive or negative image of Europe we should aim to raise pupils to understand ‘the others’ and to put themselves in other people’s shoes, but at the same time to make objective interpretations and evaluations. They shouldn’t be either sympathisers or enemies of Europe. History teaching can play a role in educating the Turkish youth to become open-minded yet critical individuals. It may help youngsters to develop a sense of empathy, which is crucial for understanding the others. (TE5)

Furthermore, some interviewees, mostly teachers, stated that instead of developing a positive image of Europe, it should be aimed to develop a better understanding of the universe. According to them, this better understanding of the universe must be constituted on the basis of knowing one’s own country, people and culture. Otherwise, it could be dangerous for national identities, values and cultures, as one of the teachers said:

Of course the Turkish youth should develop a positive image of Europe and of the whole universe. They should also be able to contact and communicate with their counterparts in any part of the world. However, they need to learn and establish their own identities, values and culture first. Otherwise, they would be degenerated or alienated to their own cultures or identities. History teaching may facilitate this, if we combine and synchronise Turkish history with European and world history, and teach it in an objective way. (T8)

On the other hand, a few of the interviewees, specifically teacher educators from Central University, found the issue of developing a positive image of Europe in the minds of Turkish youth inappropriate and irrelevant. This group of participants argued that because of the political, social, cultural and religious prejudices or presumptions, it is not possible to constitute positive attitudes towards Europe. Some of them indicated that it is not necessary to force people to develop a positive image of Europe or any other continent, country or nation.

Besides, some interviewees believed that aiming to develop a positive image of Europe is a kind of social engineering, which is neither realistic nor appropriate for history and history teaching. According to those participants one should form her/his own perspective of Europe through examining mutual perceptions of Europe and Turkey and reflecting on them.

In addition to their perception of developing a positive image of Europe, the qualitative data also demonstrates participants’ views on the ways or the means that can be used to form this positive image. Some interviewees suggested that a positive image of Europe can only be developed by means of mass media, by improving the mutual relationships with various countries and by creating opportunities for students to visit European countries or

to have contacts with their counterparts in those countries. Although they suggested that, some of them indicated the negative aspects, such as the difficulty of learning a foreign language within the current TES and financial and official difficulties for a Turkish citizen to visit other countries.

I think visiting European countries or interacting with European people will be more helpful to develop a positive image of Europe. This might be more efficient than teaching about European culture or history in schools. (TE7)

Another group of interviewees proposed that education is the best way for developing a positive image of Europe. While some suggested a functional citizenship education, the others mentioned about adopting a pluralistic, tolerant educational approach and using more audio-visual materials in teaching and learning environments. Participants' opinions vary, when it comes to the role of history teaching in this context. Some claimed that history teaching would be very effective in developing a positive image of Europe, if Turkey can adopt an objective approach to history teaching that avoids bias and prejudice about 'the other.' According to this group of interviewees the new approach should include more social, cultural and economic aspects of European history, cover recent periods of Turkish and European history, and introduce Turkish, European and world history in connection with one another.

As above findings reveal that the majority of the questionnaire participants did not consider the way the present curriculum introduces European history reasonable. Particularly, the participants from West University and the teacher educators from New University revealed this perspective. On the other hand, the views of interviewees were varied. While some interviewees supported the idea of developing a positive image of Europe, the others, mostly practising teachers, suggested developing a positive and better understanding of the whole world. Additionally, there were some participants, mostly some practising teachers and teacher educators from Central University, who found this idea unnecessary and irrelevant particularly in the context of history teaching. Moreover, some interviewees proposed schooling and specifically history teaching and citizenship education as the medium for developing a positive image of Europe in the new generations, whilst another group of interviewees suggested alternative means for this purpose, such as using mass media or visiting European countries.

6.5. The European Dimension

6.5.1. Perceptions of the European dimension in education

As stated earlier, one of the main objectives of this study is to find out participants' conception of the ED, its application in educational contexts and particularly in history teaching. During the interviews, participants were asked about what they understood by the concept of 'ED' and what the ED in education meant for them. The data revealed that some participants of this study conceptualise the ED as a European way of life in general.

I can say that it's a way of life, if we're talking about the ED in general. I think it's a model of life that a little bit more peaceful and more liberal democrat. (T9)

The analysis of relevant data led to four different ways of understanding of the ED in education amongst the interviewees. Firstly, as the above interview extract about the ED in general implies, they thought that the ED in education was the European approach of education or the level of educational development in western European countries. Teacher educator TE6 defined this concept as a tool for facilitating Turkey's integration into the EU and as a model for developing TES.

In this age, none of the countries or nations survives alone. That's to say the world is continuously globalising. People talk about a 'global state' instead of nation states. We're living in European geography within this context. Turkey also wants to join the EU and regards itself as member of the European family. In order to complete the integration process and provide harmony, Turkey needs to adopt an approach or attitude that might be called a European perspective or dimension. Then the ED in education may be defined as adopting and applying the quality and standards of education in European countries. (TE6)

For most of the teacher interviewees, the ED meant the contemporary or modern education, which focuses on child-centred and skill-based education. One teacher asserted that it gives importance to pupils' inquiry and investigation according to their own interests and abilities. Some teachers also stated that the ED in education is the quality or an international standard of education, including the physical structures of schools, the curriculum, the use of ICT, and so on.

I've heard about the ED in education, but it doesn't seem possible for Turkey because there's a big difference between teaching a class of ten pupils and a group of one hundred pupils. If you consider the number of Turkish youth attending schools and the number of teachers and resources available in educational environments, you'll see that it's very difficult for us to adopt the ED in education. For me, the ED in education is an approach that considers research as the basis. It gives importance to teacher freedom, a child-centred and quality education that presented in more realistic environments with small groups. (T2)

Besides, student teachers expressed that the ED in education is an approach adopting and promoting the common European perspectives of education. Some student teachers also regarded it as an educational environment in which everybody has got a right to disclose her/his thought in return of showing respect to the others' views. The data also demonstrate that many of the interviewees associated the ED in education with concepts like European citizenship, multicultural education, peace, tolerance, democracy and human rights education. However, this perception of the concept sometimes caused suspicions in their thoughts as the extract below displays.

The ED in education makes me think of raising European citizens who are peaceful, tolerant, respectful to the others and other cultures etc. But the aims and objectives of Turkish National Education are still out there. (ST3)

On the other hand, teacher educators, particularly those from Central University, disclosed strong critiques of the ED in education. They argued that the ED in education is an accumulation, developed throughout European history and appeared as a product of integration between western European countries, particularly those of the EU members. TE1 highlighted this perspective as the Euro-centric approach to education emphasising male dominance. S/he said that:

The concept or idea of the ED reminds me the Euro-centric world view. I think Europeans look at everything from a very European point of view that can be described as 'the white, intelligent man has done everything.' Of course I must underline the word man as male, mostly or only white and intelligent male. Though they seem that they give importance to the others and other cultures, it's just a show off. By means of introducing different cultures in their curricula, the Europeans want to just say that they, 'the others' exist, but it's still the Europeans who have done everything, who have materialised all those developments. I understand the ED as Euro-centric view of the world, education or history. Therefore, it doesn't seem to be logical or understandable for me. Instead of an ED, we should try to develop a universal dimension or approach. (TE1)

The data analysed here indicated that for the participants of this study the ED meant the European way of life or the level of development in the western European countries. Based on this conception many of them defined, particularly teachers and some teacher educators, the ED in education as the standards and quality of education and educational environments in European countries. Similar to this understanding, student teachers related the ED in education with education for European citizenship, multiculturalism, peace, tolerance, democracy and human rights. However, some teacher educators, particularly those from Central University, stated that the ED in education is a Eurocentric approach

originating from the western philosophical, political and social thoughts, which is neither appropriate nor applicable in Turkish context.

6.5.2 Perceptions of the European dimension in history teaching and its potential inclusion into the curriculum

In this part, the findings from the participants' perceptions of the ED in history teaching are presented and discussed. The analysis of qualitative data revealed that participants' perceptions of the ED in education and the ED in history teaching have got some similar and different characteristics. For most of the interviewees, particularly the majority of teachers and student teachers, the ED in history teaching meant teaching more European history that contains the processes of developments which shaped today's Europe.

We've heard of the ED in history education in some of our courses. Our curriculum mainly consists of Turkish history, but we need to consider changing it according to changes in the world. So, including more European history in the curriculum seems to be inevitable in order to understand the current state of political, social, cultural and economical developments in Europe. (ST8)

According to some participants, the ED in history teaching meant something like those methods, strategies, processes and materials which have been used to teach history in western Europe, which could also be defined as the quality and standards of history teaching in European countries.

I think the ED in history teaching is something related to how history is being taught in Europe or how European teachers develop teaching methods and materials in order to make history meaningful. We always talk about the quality of education in Europe. I think we should investigate and adopt their approaches. (ST2)

On the other hand, some interviewees conceptualised the ED in history teaching as something based on considering the view of 'the other', and avoiding bias, prejudice and stereotyping while teaching history.

I think it (the ED in history teaching) is a peaceful and tolerant understanding of history teaching that requires reinterpretation of history from this perspective. What I mean is that history should not be interpreted or used in order to make people and nations enemies of one another anymore. Instead, it should be a way of developing international understanding and tolerance. (TE6)

It seems that for some interview participants, the ED in history teaching reminded them that those projects and studies have been carried out in order to improve history teaching and history textbooks in European countries. They described the ED in history teaching as the interaction between countries in re-writing or preparing textbooks or educational

programmes in order to develop a better understanding of each other. One of the teachers disclosed this perception.

In my view, the ED in history teaching is an approach to history teaching that considers accepting and respecting the others. It rejects the attempt of developing an identity on 'the others' backyard. It also aims to spread out an understanding of history in which all the societies have their own pasts that should be respected. That's to say it's a perspective of history that takes mutual understanding in the basis. (T9)

Some interviewees defined the ED in history teaching as a neutral and objective way of introducing European history, and understanding Europe better, as TE4 said:

I think the ED in history teaching is important for developing a better understanding of Europe because it is mostly regarded as a temple of worship or the home of devil in Turkey. We need to develop a more objective approach of Europe and European history. We can't do this by introducing political history that mainly consists of wars and painful events. We can develop this understanding by giving more space for social and cultural history, history of daily life and history of ordinary man, or by paying attention to some humanistic values. (TE4)

Alongside those participants who had positive attitudes about the ED in history teaching, there were some participants suspecting its conception and functionality and criticising the approach of history teaching that the ED introduces. One teacher educator asserted that the ED in history teaching has got an invisible side aiming to reshape the conception and understanding of world history around the concept of European citizenship.

In my view, the ED intervenes our conception or understanding of history, particularly Turkish and Islamic history. I want to just call Hz. Ömer while talking about Islamic history or I'd like to say the Conquer of Istanbul, not the second Istanbul war. I think that the ED in history teaching is an interventionist and limiting approach. This approach aims to re-conceptualise history from a European point of view. (TE3)

Some other interviewees supported this interpretation of the concept and claimed that the ideas behind the ED in history teaching might contradict with the Turkish contexts. According to this group of participants the principles of the MONE and the existing aims and objectives of history teaching, such as giving pupils a sense of national identity, were not parallel with those of the ED. Therefore, it did not seem to be reasonable or acceptable for them to have an ED in history teaching in Turkey. Furthermore, another teacher educator criticised the ED from a different theoretical point of view. S/he argued that the elements of this concept were very similar to those ones included in the traditional approach of history teaching, which has still been in force in Turkey. S/he asserted that:

I do not think that we need an ED in history teaching. Instead we need a historical approach. I think the ED includes promoting those concepts like European citizenship, multi-cultural education, peace,

democracy, human rights and tolerance by means of history teaching. I believe that neither history as a discipline, nor history teaching should deal with those things. Introducing socio-political aims and objectives has already made our history education this unpleasant. And I think those concepts do not aim at anything different from our traditional history teaching. Both approaches propose to shape pupils with some pre-given ideas. (TE8)

Apart from the interview data, the questionnaire items 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8 were designed to find out the participants' attitudes to the potential inclusion of the ED in Turkish secondary school history curriculum (see Table 6.13). The responses obtained for the item 6.6 revealed that all groups of the participants thought that 'history education can promote the ED' (65.6%). The data in Table 6.13 show that three groups of the participants shared this view. However, the agreement of the teacher educators from Central University to this item was relatively lower (55.6%) than their colleagues from other two institutions as it can be seen in Table 6.14.

Table 6.13. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9 by three groups of participants

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.6. I think history education can promote ED	Dis.	11.9	16	13.8	8	12.5	3	17.7	38
	Neu.	12.7	17	17.2	10	8.3	2	16.7	36
	Ag.	75.4	101	69.0	40	79.2	19	65.6	141
6.7. I think the quality of history education in Turkish secondary schools can be improved by the inclusion of a ED	Dis.	21.1	28	17.5	10	---	--	12.5	27
	Neu.	15.8	21	15.8	9	24.0	6	13.4	29
	Ag.	63.2	84	66.7	38	76.0	19	74.1	160
6.8. I think the inclusion of a ED in history education is unnecessary and inappropriate	Dis.	81.8	108	73.7	42	84.0	21	79.9	171
	Neu.	10.6	14	5.3	3	4.0	1	8.4	18
	Ag.	7.6	10	21.1	12	12.0	3	11.7	25

Moreover, as the data in Table 6.13 presents, the majority of respondents (74.1%) thought that 'the quality of history education in Turkish school could be improved by the inclusion of an ED.' Teacher educators supported this statement more than the other groups (76%). The comparison of three universities revealed that both student teachers (77.3%) and teacher educators (80%) from West University favoured this idea mostly. Kruskal-Wallis test results demonstrated a statistically significant difference (*chi square*= 6.449, *p*= .04 in .05 level) amongst student teachers from different institutions.

The negative responses obtained for the item 6.8 verified their answer to previous two questions. Only a very small number of participants (11.7%) agreed with the statement 'the inclusion of an ED in history education is unnecessary and inappropriate.' All the teacher

educators from the West University (100%) strongly opposed this statement while the opposition of their colleagues from Central University was moderate (66.7%). On the other hand negative views of student teachers from all three institutions were close to one another.

Table 6.14. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				Dokuz Eylul				West			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.6. I think history education can promote ED	Dis.	19.6	10	33.3	3	8.9	4	---	--	5.3	2	---	--
	Neu.	13.7	7	11.1	1	11.1	5	---	--	13.2	5	16.7	1
	Ag.	66.7	34	55.6	5	80.0	36	100	10	81.6	31	83.3	5
6.7. I think the quality of history education in Turkish secondary schools can be improved by the inclusion of the ED	Dis.	29.4	15	---	--	9.1	4	---	--	23.7	9	---	--
	Neu.	13.7	7	22.2	2	13.6	6	20.0	2	21.1	8	33.3	2
	Ag.	56.9	29	77.8	7	77.3	34	80.0	8	55.3	21	66.7	4
6.8. I think the inclusion of a ED in history education is unnecessary and inappropriate	Dis.	78.0	39	66.7	6	86.7	39	100	10	81.1	30	83.3	5
	Neu.	10.0	5	11.1	1	8.9	4	---	--	13.5	5	---	--
	Ag.	12.0	6	22.2	2	4.4	2	---	--	5.4	2	16.7	1

The interview findings presented above revealed that the participants of this study put diverse opinions about the ED in history teaching. While some stated that the ED is teaching more European history, some others conceptualise it as the quality and standards of history teaching in Europe. Another group of interviewees defined the ED in history teaching as a neutral and objective approach of teaching history that considers respecting the others and avoiding bias, prejudice and stereotyping. However, there was a group of participants, who criticised the ED in history teaching with the assertion that it introduces a Eurocentric approach. They also asserted that the principles of the TES and those of the ED contradict.

Moreover, the questionnaire findings showed that the majority of participants thought that history teaching and the ED could compliment one another. According to the data the participants of this study had positive attitudes about a potential inclusion of an ED in Turkish secondary school history curriculum. They also believe that this could be useful and helpful for improving the history curriculum. Apart from that, the analysis did not indicate any significant divergence of opinions between three occupational groups in relation with the ED in history teaching and its potential inclusion into the existing

curriculum. However, the comparison of three universities revealed some differences, particularly amongst the views of teacher educators from Central University and their colleagues from the other two universities. The participants from West and New universities disclosed positive views about the ED in history teaching and its potential inclusion whilst their counterparts in Central University had reservations about it.

6.6. Summary of the Findings

It can be concluded that the participants of this study did not see Turkey as a genuine part of Europe, particularly from political and cultural dimensions. Nevertheless, the majority of teachers and teacher educators believed that politically Turkey is a European country. The participants also found the relationships between these two sides not sufficient as a result of political, economical and cultural differences or problems. Besides, many interview participants thought that there is a lack of knowledge and understanding about the others in Turkish and European communities. However, they were enthusiastic to see those relationships to be improved in the future, which can be achieved by means of education, particularly history teaching in schools.

Additionally, the interviewees held various points of view about Turkey becoming a member of the EU. Most of the participants from West and New universities and some teachers wanted Turkey to join the EU, but some of them did not have any hope about it. On the other hand, another group of participants, particularly those interviewees from Central University had negative or uncertain opinions about Turkey's potential EU membership.

Moreover, both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that participants of this study regarded themselves as knowledgeable about Europe and European history. However, the number of participants who had information/ knowledge about history teaching in European countries and those European-wide projects and studies on history teaching was limited. Only the group of teacher educators considered themselves to know enough about history teaching outside the Turkey. Some interviewees also put negative opinions about those projects and studies.

Most of the participants stated that the place of Europe and European history in Turkish curriculum is very limited and defective. The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that participants from West and New universities pointed out that the influence of nationalistic perspectives on the curriculum as a factor restricting the space of European history, in particular. On the other hand, their counterparts from Central University put forward the necessity of having a broader historical perspective in order to comprehend local, national and universal historical issues better.

Likewise, the participants showed encouraging attitudes about developing a positive image of Europe in the minds of Turkish youth, whilst criticising the presentation of Europe in the existing Turkish history curriculum. They suggested various means to develop this image, one of which was a more objective and neutral approach of history teaching. However, there were some participants, mostly the practising teachers suggesting the idea of developing a better understanding of whole universe instead of developing a positive image of Europe.

In addition, the findings indicated that participants of this study perceive the ED as a European way or standard of life. Connected to this perception, teachers and some teacher educators defined the ED in education as the quality and standards of education in western European countries, while most student teachers stated that it was something related to education for European citizenship, multiculturalism, democracy, peace, tolerance and human rights. Nevertheless, some teacher educators, specifically those from Central University described the ED in education as a Eurocentric approach to education.

On the other hand, the findings analysed in this chapter indicated that some participants perceived the ED in history teaching as teaching more European history, while the others thought of it as a tool for improving the quality of history teaching in schools. Another group of interviewees defined the ED in history teaching as a neutral and objective approach of teaching history that considers respecting the others and avoiding bias, prejudice and stereotyping. Furthermore, the questionnaire findings showed that the majority of participants believed that history teaching and the ED could complement one another. According to the data the participants of this study had positive attitudes about a potential inclusion of an ED in history curriculum. They also believed that this would be

useful and helpful for improving the history curriculum, history teaching and improving students' knowledge and attitudes about Europe and the ED.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE HISTORY CURRICULUM, PEDAGOGY AND TEACHER EDUCATION

This chapter analyses and presents the findings on the participants' suggestions for possible curriculum development. It consists of three sections. The first section discusses the findings on curriculum development highlighting various characteristics of history curriculum. The second one deals with the participants' suggestions on the pedagogical aspects of history. Finally, the last section presents the participants' suggestions regarding history teacher education. At the end there will be a brief summary of the chapter.

The next section analyses and presents the participants suggestions for the improvement of the history curriculum.

7.1. Suggestions on History Curriculum

The quantitative and qualitative findings concerning the participants' suggestions on the potential development of the secondary school history curriculum are analysed and discussed in this section. The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that the participants' suggestions on the history curriculum can be categorised under six headings. The first one is the participants' perspectives on the potential for possible history curriculum development. Their suggestions on aims and objectives, dimensions and periods of history teaching constitute the next three subheadings. Relocating history in the whole school curriculum and the place of sensitive and controversial issues are the other areas of recommendations emerging from the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data.

7.1.1. Perspectives on the potential for the history curriculum development

The data shows the participants belief that improving the existing curriculum is a must and there are many reasons for doing this. According to the interviewees, the present

secondary school history curriculum needs to be improved with or without considering a potential inclusion of the ED, because it has many deficiencies and inadequacies. First of all, some participants indicated that the present curriculum includes excessively intensive content knowledge. Many interviewees opposed the current approach of history teaching as well. Secondly, most of them declared that the lack of contemporary history and the limited space allocated to European and the world histories in the curriculum were major deficiencies that should be considered in order to effect the improvement. Thirdly, the participants asserted that the present curriculum did not include the history of the last thirty-four years at all. Finally, social, economical and cultural dimensions of all periods of history were underestimated in the current curriculum, which needs to be considered in order to effect the improvement.

Although they believed that the curriculum had to be improved, if Turkey aims to join the EU, most of the participants thought that it was very difficult to improve the curriculum with the consideration of the ED because of various reasons. According to some participants, it might be difficult to change or restructure the present history curriculum and its implementation, because of the strongly centralised governmental and educational systems of the country. Moreover, they pointed out that the political views of the governments are highly influential on the design and planning of the curriculum. As the interview extract below shows, this group of participants asserted that different political and ideological perspectives aimed to be influential on education, particularly history teaching.

I don't think we can really develop the curriculum in this context. In Turkey, almost everything, including policies and regulations relating to the curriculum has been put into force by the governments. Without any change or development in governmental or political level, we can't expect any improvement in the curriculum, I believe. (ST12)

Moreover, they indicated that even if the governments make improvements and changes in the curriculum, these efforts may not be helpful in changing the practice, as they do not consider the present dynamics of the educational practice and the values of the teachers. Therefore, they indicated the lack of preparation and consideration for curriculum development in the Turkish context. For example, one teacher asserted that Turkish politicians and educators were conservative about changes and development. According to her/him, the conservative people or political parties are keen to stay faithful to the current status quo. Another interviewee pointed out negative sides of collective and radical approaches to change the educational policies and practises as:

In order to develop the curriculum for the standards of Europe, we first need to have qualified people to do that. Secondly, we should have necessary intention, commitment, preparation and substructure in both governmental and public level. However, it's still early in Turkey to have a change of this kind. (TE7)

Furthermore, some participants stated that the development of the history curriculum is necessary, crucial and inevitable, but considering the ED as a basis for this change does not seem relevant or acceptable. Some of them asserted that putting the ED as a criterion or goal could be seen as a negative movement by many people in Turkey. One of the teacher educators stated that:

Adapting the ED as an approach of history teaching will probably imply that we're unable to express ourselves independently. It'll cause the results of calling ourselves and the things belonging to us with the names given by the Europeans, which is a kind of assimilation. (TE3)

As a result, they suggested that the curriculum should be developed in order to give pupils a grasp of historical methodology and contemporary historical consciousness, instead of the ED. It seems that the concept of the ED, particularly the term Europe, bothered this group of participants more than its content and meaning because the ED in history teaching shares those objectives, which were indicated as alternatives.

The other issues related to the development of history curriculum are how it should be developed and who should be involved in the process. The majority of the participants pointed out that the present curriculum should be developed with the involvement of all people or groups who have relations, interests or concerns about history teaching. Most of them also suggested that a comprehensive committee must carry out the process of development. According to them, pedagogues, educational scientists, history educators, history teachers, academic historians, curriculum planning and development specialists, sociologists and psychologists should be directly involved in the processes of history curriculum development. Some of them added that the perspectives of various stakeholders such as history student teachers, school pupils, parents, political parties and various nongovernmental organisations must be taken into consideration. This idea can be defined as the traditional method of curriculum planning and development in Turkey, which reflects the characteristics of a centralised and bureaucratic governmental and educational system. However, there were also some participants opposing the process of curriculum development carried out by certain people or groups.

I totally disagree with the idea and practice of curriculum development processes that normally carried out by those educational scientists and curriculum planning specialists. I believe that

school history should be a version of academic history, which is reduced, refined and regulated for the child psychology. Therefore, the development processes require the involvement and work of more people and specialists who can contribute from various perspectives and dimensions. (TE4)

Additionally, they suggested that it might be helpful to examine and analyse the similar processes of curriculum development carried out in other countries, particularly in Europe. A few interview participants also indicated that the curriculum development processes had to be based on intensive field research conducted in schools and classrooms.

The data analysed here indicate that although the participants foresaw many difficulties they thought that the present Turkish history curriculum urgently needs change and development. However, they were concerned about the quality and the extent of possible change because of the centralised structure of the TES and general perspective of formal education. Some participants also indicated that putting the ED as a criterion or condition for such a process of curriculum change might be problematic, because the term Europe did not sound appealing to many people involved in the education sector, including themselves.

In conclusion, the findings show that the participants were supporters of developing the history curriculum with or without considering an ED. They also suggest that the process of development had to consider the findings of relevant research and curriculum improvement processes in other countries and had to include many stakeholders, such as pupils, parents, teachers, academics and nongovernmental organisations as well as the educational authorities.

7.1.2. Suggested Aims and Objectives of History Teaching

A significant amount of the data about the participants' suggestions on the development of history curriculum gathered through questionnaires and interviews was related to the aims and objectives of history teaching. The analysis of available data highlighted five main categories of aims and objectives of history teaching proposed by the participants of this study. They are: 1) national identity, heritage and connections with politics, 2) taking lessons from history, 3) citizenship and democracy education, 4) developing a humanistic approach and tolerance, and 5) historical and critical thinking skills.

7.1.2.1. National identity, heritage and connections with politics

The objective of this section is to explore participants' point of views on the aims and objectives of history teaching and their connections with developing a national identity, a sense of heritage and some issues related to politics by means of analysing six questionnaire items presented below. The responses given to the item 4.1 by three groups of participants revealed that according to the majority of them (68.2%) the aim of history teaching in schools was to develop a national identity (see Table 7.1). Teachers (73.3%) mostly favoured this statement, while teacher educators' support (54.2%) was the lowest.

The comparison of the student teachers and teacher educators' data amongst the universities indicated more significant differences. As the first row of Table 7.2 presents, the participants from Central University were more positive about the idea of teaching history to develop a national identity than those from the other two universities. Interestingly, the teacher educators from West University were totally against the idea of history teaching in order to develop a national identity. Kruskal-Wallis test scores obtained for student teachers (*chi square*= 7.000, *p*= .03) and teacher educators (*chi square*= 19.046, *p*= .00 both in .05 level) confirm these assertions.

As the percentages of answers given to the item 4.6 in Table 7.1 show, the participants (86.4%) of this study maintained that 'school history and governmental politics are closely linked to each other.' Nevertheless, they did not support (60.7% disagreement) the statement 'history should be taught from an angle that represents government's/state's political, ideological points of view'. The differences amongst the three groups of participants on this item were not found statistically significant. On the other hand, the comparison of the views of student teachers from three universities revealed a significant difference (*chi square*= 11.016, *p*= .00 in .05 level), which explains that student teachers from New University did not think that there is a link between school history and governmental politics as most of the others thought.

Besides, by means of the item 4.9, the participants (86.7%) strongly supported that 'history should be taught to arouse the awareness of different political and ideological points of view.' The responses given to the questionnaire statement 'history should be taught from a nationalistic point of view' revealed an interesting point. None of the three groups of participants agreed with this statement, as it can be seen in Table 3.1.

Table 7.1. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 4.1, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.1. The aim of school history is to develop a national identity	Dis.	26.5	36	15.0	9	41.7	10	25.0	55
	Neu.	5.1	7	11.7	7	4.2	1	6.8	15
	Ag.	68.4	93	73.3	44	54.2	13	68.2	150
4.6. There is a strong link between school history and governmental politics	Dis.	8.1	11	11.7	7	8.0	2	9.0	20
	Neu.	3.7	5	5.0	3	8.0	2	4.5	10
	Ag.	88.2	120	83.3	50	84.0	21	86.4	191
4.7. History should be taught from a nationalistic point of view	Dis.	58.1	79	46.7	28	62.5	15	55.5	122
	Neu.	14.0	19	16.7	10	8.3	2	14.1	31
	Ag.	27.9	38	36.7	22	29.2	7	30.5	67
4.8. History should be taught from an angle which represents government's/state's political ideological perspective	Dis.	56.6	77	69.5	41	62.5	15	60.7	133
	Neu.	19.1	26	10.2	6	12.5	3	16.0	35
	Ag.	24.3	33	20.3	12	25.0	6	23.3	51
4.9. History should be taught to arouse the awareness of different political, ideological points of view	Dis.	6.7	9	3.4	2	8.0	2	6.0	13
	Neu.	9.0	12	3.4	2	8.0	2	7.3	16
	Ag.	84.3	113	93.2	55	84.0	21	86.7	189

However, the comparison of responses given by the student teachers and teacher educators indicated a significant difference amongst teacher educators from three universities (*chi square*= 15.048, *p*= .00 in .05 level). Contrasting to all other subgroups, 66.7% of teacher educators from Central University supported this idea, whilst their colleagues from West University were entirely against it.

Table 7.2. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 4.1, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 by student teachers and teacher educators of three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.1. The aim of school history is to develop a national identity	Dis.	15.7	8	---	--	34.8	16	90.0	9	30.8	12	20.0	1
	Neu.	2.0	1	---	--	2.2	1	10.0	1	12.8	5	---	--
	Ag.	82.4	42	100	9	63.0	29	---	--	56.4	22	80.0	4
4.6. There is a strong link between school history and governmental politics	Dis.	7.8	4	11.1	1	2.2	1	10.0	1	15.4	6	---	--
	Neu.	2.0	1	11.1	1	---	--	---	--	10.3	4	16.7	1
	Ag.	90.2	46	77.8	7	97.8	45	90.0	9	74.4	29	83.3	5
4.7. History should be taught from a nationalistic point of view	Dis.	54.9	28	11.1	1	58.7	27	100	10	61.5	24	80.0	4
	Neu.	11.8	6	22.2	2	10.9	5	---	--	20.5	8	---	--
	Ag.	33.3	17	66.7	6	30.4	14	---	--	17.9	7	20.0	1
4.8. History should be taught from an angle which represents government's/state's political ideological perspective	Dis.	56.9	29	33.3	3	60.9	28	80.0	8	51.3	20	80.0	4
	Neu.	19.6	10	33.3	3	13.0	6	---	--	25.6	10	---	--
	Ag.	23.5	12	33.3	3	23.5	12	20.0	2	23.1	9	20.0	2
4.9. History should be taught to arouse the awareness of different political, ideological points of view	Dis.	5.9	3	11.1	1	9.1	4	---	--	5.1	2	16.7	1
	Neu.	7.8	4	--	--	6.8	3	10.0	1	12.8	5	16.7	1
	Ag.	86.3	44	88.9	8	84.1	37	90.0	9	82.1	32	66.7	4

In contrast to the questionnaire findings, the qualitative data revealed that most of the interview participants did not support the idea of teaching history for developing a

national identity and heritage. However, there were some interviewees who strongly defended the place and importance of history in transmitting national values and heritage. A significant number of interviewees highlighted the concepts connected or related to national identity and values, such as a shared or common identity, national unity or national consciousness. Some participants asserted that giving pupils a sense of national identity is the principal function of school history.

It is mentioned in the current curriculum that one of the aims of history teaching is to constitute a national consciousness and to pay the necessary respect to the past. I believe these aims shouldn't be altered. Firstly, pupils should develop a sense of national consciousness and respect to their own past. Instead of judging it, they should try to understand the past and adapt it to today's world. (ST5)

Additionally, some participants emphasised a characteristic of history, history as cultural heritage.

An important point about the aims and objectives of history teaching is the fact that history is a kind of cultural heritage. It includes many different aspects and characteristics of that culture. I believe history accommodates various dimensions, values and characteristics of the cultural heritage that is essential for learning about your own cultural and national identity. (TE2)

The analysis of relevant questionnaire data demonstrated that the majority of participants supported the idea of teaching history to develop a national identity. However, the interview participants put forward a contrasting point of view. Apart from that, many participants linked history teaching with governmental politics. They suggested that history teaching should also arouse the awareness of different political and ideological view points. Nevertheless, they rejected the idea of teaching history from a nationalistic world-view or from the perspective of political powers. On the other hand, there was a group of participants, mostly those from Central University and some practising teachers, claiming that history should be taught from a nationalistic perspective to develop a sense of national identity and cultural heritage.

7.1.2.2. Taking lessons from history

Taking lessons from history emerged as another reason for teaching history in schools from the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. Three questionnaire items were designed to find out the participants' points of view on the issues related to the idea of teaching history in order to take lessons from the past. All three groups of the participants seemed to be very supportive about the items 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 (see Table 7.3). However, their support (65.8%) to the statement 'the aim of school history is to

learn what happened in the past’ was not as high as the other two items. Whereas, participants’ support to statements 4.3 ‘the aim of school history is to provide orientation for the present day’ (96.5%) and 4.4 ‘the aim of school history is to enable students to predict what will happen in the future’ (90.5%) were the highest.

Table 7.3. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 4.1, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.2. The aim of school history is to learn what happened in the past	Dis.	34.8	47	21.7	13	33.3	8	31.1	68
	Neu.	4.4	6	1.7	1	---	--	3.2	7
	Ag.	60.7	82	76.7	46	66.7	16	65.8	144
4.3. The aim of school history is to provide orientation for the present day	Dis.	3.7	5	1.7	1	---	--	2.7	6
	Neu.	1.5	2	---	--	---	--	.9	2
	Ag.	94.6	129	98.3	59	100	26	96.4	212
4.4. The aim of school history is to enable students to predict what will happen in the future	Dis.	7.4	10	1.7	1	---	--	5.0	11
	Neu.	5.1	7	3.3	2	4.0	1	4.5	10
	Ag.	94.9	119	95.0	57	96.0	24	90.5	200

The comparison of the data obtained from student teachers and teacher educators from three universities produced a significant difference amongst the teacher educators for the item 4.2 (*chi square*= 6.900, *p*= .03 in .05 level). The teacher educators from West University did not agree with this statement, while teacher educators from Central University were the most supportive ones as percentages in Table 7.4 reveal. The overall student teachers and teacher educators data supported the statements 4.3 and 4.4.

Table 7.4. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 4.1, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 by student teachers and teacher educators of three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.2. The aim of school history is to learn what happened in the past	Dis.	37.3	19	---	--	24.4	11	60.0	6	43.6	17	33.3	2
	Neu.	---	--	---	--	4.4	2	---	--	10.3	4	---	--
	Ag.	62.7	32	100	9	71.1	32	40.0	4	46.2	18	66.7	4
4.3. The aim of school history is to provide orientation for the present day	Dis.	3.9	2	---	--	2.2	1	---	--	5.1	2	---	--
	Neu.	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	5.1	2	---	--
	Ag.	96.1	49	100	9	97.8	45	100	9	89.7	35	100	6
4.4. The aim of school history is to enable students to predict what will happen in the future	Dis.	3.9	2	---	--	10.9	5	---	--	7.7	3	---	--
	Neu.	2.0	1	---	--	6.5	3	10.0	1	7.7	3	---	--
	Ag.	94.1	48	100	9	82.6	38	90.0	9	84.6	33	100	6

Very similar to the quantitative data, the interview data related to this issue demonstrated that the participants, particularly practising teachers, support the idea of teaching history in order to take lessons from the past, and to reflect them to the present

day and to the future. According to the majority of the interviewees, school history is to learn about the development of human beings and their knowledge throughout time. They indicated that learning history is essential to understand the past, to take lessons from past events, and use them as references in the present day and in the future. According to the participants, history could also help learners to understand what people did wrong in the past as explained before.

History should be taught to demonstrate the faults that people or the governments have done in the past in order to help them not to repeat those faults again. While teaching history, we should put forward everything all together: positive, negative, beautiful or ugly. However, we have got a different approach, which I don't agree with. If something bad or negative happens to us, we always accuse the other side or other people for the responsibility. For example if we were beaten in a war we claim that the other side was superior in quantity or they had financial and technical advantage. We never accept our faults or mistakes. (T5)

Additionally, some of the interviewees put that school history should enable pupils to compare and contrast the events happened in the past with what Turkey experiences in today's world. They continued with the proposition that history teaching should help pupils to make connections between the past's and today's events. According to this group of participants, this type of applications might help pupils to develop the skills of empathy, which would enable them to understand the situations and problems of the people in the past better.

In summary, the data evaluated here demonstrate that some of the interview participants proposed that the principal aim of history teaching was to show pupils what the ancestors have done in the past in order to take lessons from their experiences. According to participants, this approach may also help pupils to orientate themselves in today's world and predict what will happen in the future.

7.1.2.3. Citizenship and democracy education

Teaching history to reinforce citizenship and democracy education is another scheme coming into view from the analysis of the data. As the discussion of the data presented below demonstrates, some of the participants hold that one of the principal functions of history teaching is to raise pupils to become conscious citizens in a participatory democracy. Three questionnaire items were designed to discover participants' points of view on history teaching in secondary schools and citizenship education. The responses given to the statement 4.10 revealed that the participants (81.7%) agree with the idea of linking history and citizenship education. Percentages of answers presented in the

second row of Table 7.5 show that the questionnaire participants (84.5%) keep up the idea of teaching history in order to raise the citizens of the Turkish Republic. On the other hand, only a minority of the respondents supported the statement 4.13 ‘history should be taught to raise 21st century’s European citizens’ as Table 7.5 displays.

Table 7.5. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.10. There is a strong link between history and citizenship education	Dis.	11.2	15	5.1	3	12.0	3	9.6	21
	Neu.	8.2	11	11.9	7	4.0	1	8.7	19
	Ag.	80.6	108	83.3	49	84.0	21	81.7	178
4.11. History should be taught to raise citizens of the Republic of Turkey	Dis.	11.1	15	10.2	6	8.0	2	10.5	23
	Neu.	6.7	9	1.7	1	4.0	1	5.0	11
	Ag.	82.2	111	88.1	52	88.0	22	84.5	185
4.12. History should be taught to raise 21st century's European citizens	Dis.	44.4	60	43.1	25	36.0	4	43.1	94
	Neu.	14.1	19	22.4	13	16.0	9	16.5	36
	Ag.	41.5	56	34.5	20	48.0	12	40.4	88

The comparison of student teacher and teacher educator data disclosed significant differences between three groups of student teachers for the items 4.10 (*chi square* = 11.088, *p* = .00 in .05 level) and 4.11 (*chi square* = 6.258, *p* = .04 in .05 level). Those test scores and percentages of answers in Table 7.6 tell that student teachers from Central University support those two statements more than the other two groups of student teachers.

Table 7.6. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12 by student teachers and teacher educators of three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.10. There is a strong link between history and citizenship education	Dis.	2.0	1	---	--	15.9	7	20.0	2	17.9	7	16.7	1
	Neu.	3.9	2	---	--	6.8	3	---	--	15.4	6	16.7	1
	Ag.	94.1	48	100	9	77.3	34	80.0	8	66.7	26	66.7	4
4.11. History should be taught to raise citizens of the Republic of Turkey	Dis.	5.9	3	---	--	13.3	6	10.0	1	15.4	6	16.7	1
	Neu.	3.9	2	---	--	2.2	1	---	--	15.4	6	16.7	1
	Ag.	90.2	46	100	9	84.4	38	90.0	9	69.2	27	66.7	4
4.12. History should be taught to raise 21st century's European citizens	Dis.	49.0	25	66.7	6	40.0	18	10.0	1	43.6	17	33.3	2
	Neu.	9.8	5	22.2	2	13.3	6	10.0	1	20.5	8	16.7	1
	Ag.	41.2	21	11.1	1	46.7	21	80.0	8	35.9	14	50.0	3

On the other hand, amongst teacher educators, respondents from Central University mostly favoured the relationships between history and citizenship education and the idea of teaching history to raise Turkish citizens, while respondents from New University gave the weakest support for those two statements. In relation to the statement 4.12, teacher educators from three universities presented totally different

attitudes. While most of the teacher educators from West University strongly agreed with this view, a great majority of teacher educators from Central University disagreed with the idea of raising the twenty-first century's European citizens, which is displayed by the Kruskal-Wallis test score ($\chi^2 = 8.820, p = .01$ in .05 level).

As the interview extract below presents, the interviewees also supported the same assertion that there is a connection between school history and citizenship education. They stressed that history teaching has got a place in bringing up twenty-first Century's responsible and conscious citizens.

I think our education system has an important defect. In my belief, we should introduce a citizenship education, because as I observe it seems that the new generations are quite dissolute and reckless about their country and their own future. I think history teaching has got a role in raising responsible and conscious citizens. (ST8)

Many of the interview participants defined the main characteristic of this citizenship education as democratic citizenship. Some of them also argued that the citizenship education would possibly be introduced by means of history teaching and should include national and universal dimensions. Nonetheless, the participants did not show any positive or even moderate approach to an ED in this context.

It is possible and also supposed to raise pupils as conscious and responsible citizens by means of social studies and history teaching in schools. However, this is very difficult and complicated because history inevitably requires the selection of content and appropriate approaches to teaching. As you know it's very difficult to have a consensus about this kind of selections, because something okay for one can be quite inappropriate for another person. Therefore, in order to introduce an effective citizenship education, we need to develop a democratic understanding of education and provide democracy education first. (ST3)

The findings analysed in this part conclude that participants of this study associate history teaching and citizenship education. They maintain the idea of tendering citizenship education by means of history teaching. Their conception of citizenship education was based on democratic approaches aiming to offer education for democratic citizenship. Although this understanding includes various dimensions from national to universal, the participants, particularly those from Central University, did not consider raising pupils as the citizens of Europe relevant or necessary.

7.1.2.4. Developing a humanistic approach and tolerance

The fourth main theme as a proposed objective of history teaching in schools is developing a humanistic approach and tolerance. According to a group of participants, history had to be taught to develop a peaceful and tolerant approach, and an

understanding of others. They asserted that it should be useful for individuals to develop a personal conception of the globe. A small group of student teachers, specifically those from West University, argued that in order to eradicate nationalistic and chauvinistic perspectives of history and history teaching, the development of a humanistic and universal perspective of history teaching is essential. They stated that this proposed approach might help teachers and pupils become conscious and critical individuals who are able to understand others. For example, ST9 said that:

In my opinion, the main aim of history teaching should be raising the individuals that can understand today's world. Those individuals must not only be the conscious members of their own society, but also be aware of the problems of all the people around the world in order to reach the consciousness of becoming a world citizen. (ST9)

The interviewees in this group asserted that history teaching should aim to become the mechanism or the agent of international communication, interaction and good relationships. It should help societies to learn more about one another and get closer to each other. This group of participants emphasised humanistic and tolerant approaches to history and its teaching. One of the teachers disclosed this perspective.

History teaching should be used as a way to make pupils learn about the importance of the peace, first. However, our approach of history always presents the concepts and ideas of the war. I believe that history is not only the story of wars or the details of the peace treaties. On the contrary to the current practice, we should teach that it is possible to live together with other societies in peace in history lessons. For example in Turkish history, we introduce the wars carried out against the Byzantine or Greeks on many occasions but never mention about how those Turkish tribes lived in peace with many other societies in Anatolia for centuries. We should try to change our approach of history teaching toward this direction. (T8)

Developing a humanistic approach and tolerance through history teaching was proposed by a group of interviewees, particularly some practising teachers and the participants from West University, as an alternative to the aims and objectives of present Turkish history curriculum. Their suggestion was to emphasise the human side of history instead of military, political and diplomatic historical issues. According to them, this perspective would be helpful to eliminate nationalistic and chauvinistic elements from history teaching, and enable pupils to become critical and conscious individuals.

7.1.2.5. Historical and critical thinking skills

Providing opportunities for pupils to develop historical and critical thinking skills came out as the last proposition from the data. The majority of the participants suggested that the main goal of school history must be improving pupils' thinking skills by teaching them the methodology and procedures of the discipline of history.

Table 7.7. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 4.5 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.5. The aim of school history is to equip students with the skills used by historians to reach historical information, analyse and present it	Dis.	13.2	18	20.0	12	8.0	2	14.5	32
	Neu.	7.4	10	13.3	8	8.0	2	9.0	20
	Ag.	79.4	108	66.7	40	84.0	21	76.5	169

The questionnaire item 4.5 stated that ‘the aim of school history is to equip students with the skills of the historians to obtain historical information/knowledge and to analyse and present it’ (see Table 7.7). The responses obtained for this item revealed that all three groups of participants (76.5%) were very positive about the idea of teaching history in order to equip pupils with historical skills. Nevertheless, the support from the teachers’ for this statement was the least as shown in Table 7.7.

Table 7.8. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 4.5 by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
4.5. The aim of school history is to equip students with the skills used by historians to reach historical information, analyse and present it	Dis.	13.7	7	---	--	8.7	4	10.0	1	17.9	7	16.7	1
	Neu.	9.8	5	---	--	4.3	2	10.0	1	7.7	3	16.7	1
	Ag.	76.5	39	100	9	87.0	40	80.0	8	74.4	29	66.7	4

Participants from Central and West universities presented more positive attitudes about equipping pupils with historical skills than those from New University. The data in Table 7.8 demonstrates that teacher educators from this university give the lowest number of positive responses to this item. Nevertheless, the statistics did not indicate any significant difference amongst three groups of participants or student teachers and teacher educators from three universities.

The interview data on the other hand, underlined very similar characteristics about this issue. Most of the interviewees supported the idea of developing pupils’ historical and critical thinking skills by means of history teaching. The interview participants highlighted several points related to this perspective. Firstly, some of them stated that the history curriculum and history teaching should guide pupils to learn how to use historical methodology, how to reach historical information/knowledge, and how to analyse and evaluate it. They claimed that the function of history is to open pupils’ minds and horizons, to develop their critical thinking skills to become independent individuals in the society, but not to feed them with predetermined views of the past.

Participants, particularly student teachers and teacher educators, criticised the present history curriculum from this perspective by arguing that it was only appropriate for imposing pupils with a set of cliché ideas. They also pointed out the other deficiencies of the present curriculum in this context, as TE1 stated.

We must aim to raise our children as conscious, independent and open-minded individuals who are aware of the problems of the modern world, and who can cope with those problems. We need to help them to learn how to reach and process information/knowledge, and develop some social and cognitive abilities. For example, we should help pupils to improve their critical and creative thinking skills, which are not mentioned in the current curriculum at all. (TE1)

Moreover, the qualitative data revealed that some of the interviewees, namely teacher educators, were aware of the recommendations made by the COE to develop history teaching in member states. According to the participants, the recommendations intended to improve pupils' critical and creative thinking skills in a neutral and objective way, and develop their ability of developing empathy with others. One teacher educator suggested that those recommendations could be taken as model for developing Turkish curriculum. S/he also pointed out the contradictions that would potentially be faced with in the Turkish context.

It would be very helpful, if these recommendations will be taken as a model for developing our curriculum. However, the issue of aims and objectives is problematic and also not taken seriously in Turkey. For example, one of the objectives of the present curriculum is to develop pupils' critical thinking skills, but the same program also aims to make pupils comprehend how noble the Turkish nation is. What happens, if a student reaches a conclusion that Turks are not noble by thinking critically? (TE3)

Furthermore, most of the interviewees agreed with the idea of developing those skills and abilities by means of history teaching. However, some participants argued that those recommendations of the COE were based on the perspectives of globalisation, and aimed to bring up the new generations as the citizens of pluralist, participatory democracy. Because of the philosophical approach to globalisation and consequently those recommendations, they opposed these recommendations by asserting that like the traditional perspective of history teaching the ideology of globalisation might lead the misuse of history and its teaching in the schools, because both of them aim to lead history education according to some extrinsic purposes.

The findings analysed in this part conclude that participants of this study keep up with the proposition: the aim of history teaching is to improve pupils' historical and critical thinking skills. It was put forward by student teachers and teacher educators that teaching the methodology and processes of history would help pupils to develop critical

thinking skills and a sense of empathy, which would enable them to understand historical characters and events better in their original contexts. On the other hand, though they associated the ideas of teaching history to develop historical and critical skills, and the philosophical perspective of the recommendations made by the COE on history teaching, the participants objected to this European perspective. They argued that the perspective suggested by the COE combines disciplinary aims and objectives of history teaching with social aims and objectives which leads to the misuse of history teaching.

7.1.3. Suggestions on the dimensions of history

The objective in this part is to explore and discuss participants' suggestions on the place of various dimensions of history in the curriculum. The questionnaire and interview data evaluated were mainly about the participants' thoughts on different dimensions of history that should be introduced in the curriculum with the potential inclusion of an ED. As the data related to item 6.9 in Table 7.9 show the participating groups did not believe that presenting 'information about facts and figures of European political history' in the curriculum is sufficient for the inclusion of an ED. However, the comparison of three universities revealed a significant difference (*chi square* = 7.416, *p* = .03 in .05 level) amongst teacher educators from three institutions. In contrast to the strong opposition expressed by teacher educators of West University, their colleagues from the other universities presented moderate opinions about this statement, as the percentages in Table 7.10 indicate. It is also seen in Table 7.10 that student teachers from West University presented the strongest negative view about this item, whilst their counterparts from the other universities showed rather moderate attitudes.

Table 7.9. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.9 and 6.11 by three groups.

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.9. ED in history education should only be aimed to give information about European political history	Dis.	56.8	75	43.1	25	68.0	17	54.4	117
	Neu.	12.9	17	12.1	7	8.0	2	12.1	26
	Ag.	30.3	40	44.8	26	24.0	6	33.5	72
6.11. The ED in history education should include socio-economical and cultural elements instead of political history	Dis.	20.7	28	28.1	16	24.0	6	23.0	50
	Neu.	14.1	17	14.1	3	8.0	2	11.1	24
	Ag.	65.2	88	65.2	38	68.0	17	65.9	143

The majority of the participants (65.9%) from all three groups also stated that 'the ED in history education should include socio-economical and cultural elements instead of

political history.’ As data in Table 7.9 reveals, the response rate of all three groups are very close to each other. Among the student teachers, the ones from West University supported this perspective more than their counterparts in the other two universities. This situation led to a statistically significant difference (*chi square*= 17.092, *p*= .00 in .05 level). Another significant difference occurred amongst three groups of teacher educators on the same item (*chi square*= 7.277, *p*= .03 in .05 level). The teacher educators from Central University presented negative opinions about the inclusion of more social, economic and cultural history into the curriculum, while their colleagues in the other two institutions were very positive about it.

Table 7.10. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.9 and 6.11 by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.9. ED in history education should only be aimed to give information about European political history	Dis.	51.0	26	44.4	4	68.9	31	---	--	50.0	18	50.0	3
	Neu.	11.8	6	11.1	1	8.9	4	---	--	19.4	7	16.7	1
	Ag.	37.3	19	44.4	4	22.2	10	100	10	30.6	11	33.3	2
6.11. The ED in history education should include socio-economical and cultural elements instead of political history	Dis.	31.4	16	44.4	4	4.4	2	20.0	2	25.6	10	---	--
	Neu.	11.8	6	22.2	2	6.7	3	---	--	25.6	10	---	--
	Ag.	56.9	29	33.3	3	88.9	40	80.0	8	48.7	19	100	6

The qualitative data gathered through interviews provided plentiful information related to various dimensions of history teaching. The majority of the interviewees stated that the content of the curriculum should be balanced between various dimensions of history such as political, social, economic, cultural, local, national, European and global aspects. As it was previously stated, they criticised that the present curriculum mostly introduces political history from a national context. According to them the curriculum must include more social, economic and cultural dimensions of history from local, European and global contexts, in order to provide the balance.

Some interviewees also pointed out that various dimensions of historical topics should be introduced together in a meaningful way to make sense of them. They specially emphasised the importance of presenting the social elements of history, such as the history of daily life or the history of ordinary people, in order to make history lessons interesting, relevant and meaningful for pupils. ST4 criticised the current practice in Turkey from this point of view with the consideration of an ED:

In Turkey, we constantly load pupils with extensive and detailed political history. They don't really learn that content anyway. It's needed to introduce those different dimensions of history parallel to each other. This is also valid for both Turkish history and European history. For example, while teaching Yavuz's military expedition to Iran, we should mention about the situation of people in Anatolia, their economic and cultural conditions and etc. However, we never touch these points at all. We just say that he went there, beat the Iranians, took their land and came back. This is not different for European history either. In fact, we learn those topics from quite limited resources. (ST4)

Besides, some interviewees asserted that the present curriculum mainly introduces political history in a format of military history or history of wars. They added that in the current understanding of history teaching, history is conceptualised as the story of big men, commanders, kings or sultans. They considered this approach irrelevant and thus it should be reconsidered. Instead, they suggested that the curriculum should include what human beings had done in the past as a whole, and introduce every dimension of human life, such as social, cultural, economic, religious histories, history of crime, history of illnesses and diseases, history of entertainment and so on. According to the participants, even the history of wars could be made interesting and meaningful for pupils, if the alternative approaches, perspectives and dimensions were taken into account. One teacher educator stated that:

We must consider the human side of history to catch pupils' interest and attention. Imagine you're transporting an army of eighty to one hundred thousand people to Vienna. You don't do this by planes, battle ships or aircraft carriers. How do they go? How do you feed them? If they eat twice a day it means at least one hundred sixty thousand meals per day. How can you afford it? How can you provide their basic hygienic needs? How can you organise all these? This is the history that I want to learn and teach. (TE4)

Some of the interviewees, mostly student teachers, indicated that the place allocated for social, economic and cultural dimensions of history in the present curriculum is insufficient as was mentioned earlier. According to this group of participants social history had to be the main theme or dimension of the history curriculum. The concept of social history used by this group of participants refers to a broader picture of history including “*economical structure and conditions, social system, family, relationships, culture, governance and so on*” (ST6). Besides, many of the student teachers also claimed that local history had to be included in the curriculum. One of them suggested a way of including local history in the curriculum and described its potential benefits:

I believe that alongside general history topics, the curriculum should definitely include local history topics. While the curriculum is formed, provincial educational authorities and all other educational specialist in that region should meet in order to prepare the local history curriculum for that province. I believe it will be very useful for history teaching because historical consciousness starts with the immediate environment. If pupils begin to learn history from their

own environment, which they can see and touch, they will understand and make sense of history better. (ST6)

However, there were some participants who believed that the current curriculum presents those different dimensions of history in a balanced or at least in a fair way. As one of the teachers put it, this group of participants also held that political history is the vital element of the history curriculum, but it should be restructured.

Actually, the curriculum has got a balance amongst various dimensions of history. However, some minor changes can be done on the curriculum. For example, cultural history or the history of science might be given a bigger space but political history cannot be put aside. On the other hand, political history has got some problems, which needs to be investigated in order to make it appropriate for pupils' comprehension. (T1)

The teacher interviewees on the other hand, proposed different and interesting ideas about the representation of various dimensions of history in the curriculum. One teacher asserted that different dimensions of history should be given importance while teaching any particular historical topic, theme or period. For example, giving importance to social and economic dimensions while introducing the French Revolution, or highlighting political processes when teaching about Nazi Germany. Some of them claimed that different dimensions of history should be taught or given importance in different types of schools. For example, teaching economic and industrial history in vocational schools, introducing art history in fine arts schools and so on.

Teacher educators stated that the curriculum should present a broader perspective of history in a comprehensive and comparative way. According to them the history curriculum should include more non-Turkish history from various dimensions and perspectives. It had to take up more European history, particularly its philosophical and intellectual dimensions. Some teacher educators also indicated the importance of historical terms and concepts, which had attracted attention in western countries for many years.

Approximately there are one hundred basic concepts in history, such as time-chronology, cause-consequence, change-continuity etc. We haven't taken these concepts into account yet, which must be taught pupils first. However, there are some particular concepts in our history teaching that are still controversial and contested like secularism, revolution, democracy and so on. (TE2)

Additionally, another teacher educator stated that the needs and interests of pupils should be considered during the curriculum planning. According to her/him, there must be a connection between pupils' needs and interests, and the topic they study. Otherwise, they wouldn't want to learn about that topic. S/he asserted that teaching

about the lives of ordinary people in the past or daily life of important people can be helpful in order to make history lessons relevant and meaningful for pupils.

This sub-section has indicated that participants of this study did not approve the presentation of various historical dimensions in the current curriculum. The majority of them prefer to see more social, economical and cultural themes and topics of history selected from local, national, European and universal historical contexts. Another recommendation made by the participants was the introduction of various aspects of human life within history in order to attract pupils' attention by relating history to their lives and to motivate them for study of history. Apart from those, regardless of their occupation or university most participants suggested that the history curriculum should be made flexible to meet needs and interests of pupils studying in various types of secondary schools. Besides, the findings indicated that there is a necessity to teach historical concepts.

7.1.4. Suggestions on the periods of history

This sub-section investigates participants' suggestions on the periods of history that the curriculum should introduce. It was planned to consider participants' perspectives and critiques on the presentation of various historical periods in the current curriculum while discussing their suggestions. As the data in Table 7.11 reveal, questionnaire respondents (72.4%) were unenthusiastic about the item 6.13: 'the ED in history education should only be formed from the topics on medieval and modern ages.' Particularly, teacher educators (84%) did not agree with this idea. Besides, the divergence amongst the views of three participating groups was found statistically significant (*chi square*= 6.130, *p*= .05 in .05 level). However, the comparison of student teachers' and teacher educators' data did not indicate any significant difference amongst the participants from those three universities (see Table 7.11).

Table 7.11. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.13 and 6.14 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.13. The ED in history education should only be formed from the topics on medieval ages and modern ages	Dis.	74.1	100	63.2	36	84.0	21	72.4	157
	Neu.	10.4	14	7.0	4	16.0	4	10.1	22
	Ag.	15.6	21	29.8	17	---	--	17.5	38
6.14. The ED in history education should include more contemporary history	Dis.	37.3	50	17.5	10	48.0	12	33.3	72.
	Neu.	9.7	13	7.0	4	12.0	3	9.3	20
	Ag.	53.0	71	75.4	43	40.0	10	57.4	124

The responses given to the next item verified the same verdict. Most of the participants (57.4%) agreed with the statement ‘The ED in history teaching should include more contemporary history’ (see Table 7.11). While the teachers supported this statement most, the view of teacher educators was opposing it, which caused a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 11.932, p = .00$ in .05 level). The comparison of the universities also indicated a statistically significant difference amongst teacher educators ($\chi^2 = 6.143, p = .05$ in .05 level) (see Table 7.12). This means that teacher educators from Central and New universities reject the idea of introducing more contemporary history in contrast to the high support given by their colleagues from West University. On the other hand, all groups of student teachers were rather optimistic to see contemporary history in the curriculum.

Table 7.12. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the items 6.13 and 6.14 by student teachers and teacher educators from three universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.13. The ED in history education should only be formed from the topics on medieval ages and modern ages	Dis.	72.5	37	66.7	6	84.4	38	90.0	9	64.1	25	100	6
	Neu.	11.8	6	33.3	3	2.2	1	10.0	1	17.9	7	---	--
	Ag.	15.7	8	---	--	13.3	6	---	--	17.9	7	---	--
6.14. The ED in history education should include contemporary history	Dis.	39.2	20	44.4	4	33.3	15	30.0	3	39.5	15	83.3	5
	Neu.	11.8	6	22.2	2	4.4	2	---	--	13.2	5	16.7	1
	Ag.	49.0	25	33.3	3	62.2	28	70.0	7	47.4	18	---	--

The interview data additionally revealed that the majority of the respondents supported the view of maintaining balance between various periods of history in the curriculum. They stated that the curriculum must reflect all periods of history equally. Therefore, as the view of TE1 presented below indicates most participants argued that the place allocated to contemporary history in the curriculum was very limited.

All periods of history must be introduced equally. Otherwise, it'd violate the balance, if it's given importance to a particular term or period. Therefore, all periods of history must be introduced in a balance starting from the ancient times. Nevertheless, I should add that our curriculum is always lack of contemporary history, which causes the imbalance. (TE1)

Starting from the point that the present curriculum did not allocate enough space to contemporary history, some interviewees claimed that near history had to be the main theme or motive of the curriculum. They indicated that contemporary history should have more space in the curriculum, because it was closely related to and had impact on

our understanding of today's world. Most of the interviewees stressed that contemporary history attracted the attention of pupils largely, and motivated them better than any other period of history. They also pointed out that history of the twentieth century, particularly the periods after 1940s, needed attention. As T1 said that:

For instance, kids always ask us, why those topics of history after 1938 are not in the textbooks. I believe that at least those topics until 1980 must be included in the curriculum, even like a summary of history like ten or twenty pages. I want this because these periods of history interests pupils more. For example, A. Menderes's government and his execution or Cyprus Peace Operation should be in the curriculum. Probably the government thinks that if pupils hear about those issues, school history may turn into politics. Anyway, I try to teach about these topics as much as I can. (T1)

Additionally, some student teachers claimed that the curriculum repeatedly introduces the same historical topics in different years of the secondary schooling. Instead of this repetition, they suggested introduction of more contemporary history. The student teachers also suggested that the curriculum should adopt an approach that starts from today's events and happenings, and going backwards. However, the teacher educators did not share this same view. What they proposed was to adapt an approach, in which the load of content and details were gradually increasing towards the present time. TE4 explained this perspective as:

There's a classical approach of history teaching. It's something like a funnel, in which the extent and details of topics are increasing while the historical time progress from the past to today. I think that the teaching of ancient and medieval times in secondary schools must be reorganised according to this approach. For instance, instead of telling the stories of the Peloponnesus Wars, we should teach about what people of that time contribute to the scientific and cultural areas. (TE4)

Besides, one practising teacher asserted that instead of the chronological one, developing a thematic approach of history teaching would be more fruitful as s/he suggests.

For example, I'd choose terror as a topic or theme from the beginning. I'd start from the Batini Sect and come to its situation in today's world. I'd like to introduce all the terrorist organisations, their aims and objectives, and what they have cost through history. I believe that pupils can start to understand or comprehend what terror means. (T5)

On the other hand, some participants expressed disagreement with the approach of historical periodisation in Turkey. According to this group of participants the common approach of historical periodisation in Turkey reflected the features of a particular historical perspective that looks at the past from the angle of today. They believed that the values and perspectives of today's world were attributed to history in this approach. Additionally, despite sharing the same view about historical periodisation, some

participants, especially teacher educators from Central University, looked at the issue of historical time from a national point of view. They argued that Turkish history had to be taken as a total and should be taught as a whole from its beginning to date.

The analysis of data presented in this sub-section revealed participants' recommendations on the chronological approach of history teaching. They suggested that the curriculum had to regard all the periods of history equally and fairly. In order to provide balance amongst various periods of history, they indicated the need for the inclusion of more contemporary history in the present curriculum. According to the participants, contemporary history is crucial for pupils to relate history to their own lives and to make sense of it. Besides, some student teachers suggested a chronological approach to history starting from today and going backwards, while teacher educators proposed a spiral approach, in which the extents of historical topics were increasing while the time gets closer to today. On the other hand, practising teacher recommended developing a thematic approach to history in the curriculum.

7.1.4.1. Excluding a certain period of near history from the curriculum

Among the other things, the idea of not including a certain period of near history in the school curriculum emerged from the interview data. The existing curriculum excludes certain period of contemporary history in a proper way. Regardless of their occupation or university, some of the participants approved this approach. They stated that it is because people who were involved in events near or contemporary history might still be alive and could influence the interpretation or understanding of near history today. It is believed that this issue reflects the strong influence of positivist historiography and history education in Turkey. One respondent explained this understanding as:

It's generally known that in order to accept an event to be historical, the generation that had experienced or was involved in that happening must have passed away. I share this perspective because when they talk or write about those events they were involved in previously, people always take sides. Because of this, most of the stories or scripts on near history include this kind of personal bias. If we regard history as an objective and scientific discipline we should exclude at least the period of last fifty years from the curriculum. For example, we've experienced the Military Coup in 12 September 1980. I personally witnessed and experienced that. If we include it in the curriculum now I don't think that I can put my memories aside when I'm dealing with it in the classroom. (T4)

Whereas, the others opposed this view and asserted that the contemporary history was crucial for understanding today's world, this group of interviewees argued that near history, particularly social, cultural, economical dimensions of contemporary history, in

national and world contexts had to be included in the curriculum. According to them the reason behind the idea of not including a certain period of recent history is maintaining the present political order and power structure within the country. TE3 said that:

Other than that, one of the ways for understanding today's world is looking at the last fifty years. The communication revolution has happened in this era. Most of the problems we're experiencing today have occurred in the last fifty years. Many concepts that we mostly use today like cold war, globalisation, terrorism etc. have appeared in this period of time. We introduce a version of history teaching today that is completely secluded from the world. I believe there's only one reason for this, hiding those military coups that have happened in Turkey with their meanings and motives. (TE3)

This group of respondents also indicated a deficiency of Turkish historiography that academic historical studies on near history in Turkey were limited to the political dimension, particularly Turkish political history only. They also claimed that the curriculum should include all periods of history, even the previous year. ST2 pointed out as:

I don't think that it's necessary to wait a certain period of time in order to look at the events objectively. I don't think that we can provide objectivity about an issue after fifty or sixty years later, if we can't provide it now. In my view, we should be able to include the events of last year even. I think pupils will learn and understand better, if they experience those happenings themselves outside the school and discuss them in the classroom with their peers and teachers. (ST2)

This subsection looked at the issue of excluding a certain period of near history from the school curriculum, which is one of the underpinnings of the current history curriculum. While some participants defended this perspective, the others criticised it. The holders of this perspective argued that a certain period of near history had to be excluded from the curriculum because people involved in those events might still be alive and could influence the general perspectives on that issue. They added that it is possible to access more evidence on issues taken from near history, which could be contradictory to existing ones. However, another group of participants asserted that this particular perspective only aims to uphold existing political and social order, and claimed that near history is crucial for understanding today's world.

7.1.5. Relocating history in whole school curriculum

During the process of the interviews, many participants touched upon a particular feature of the Turkish history curriculum throughout schooling, while talking about its content. The participants, namely student teachers and teacher educators, stated that the social sciences and history curricula introduce the same historical topics in different

schooling levels more than once. For example, there are some study units on Ottoman History in lower primary school Social Studies Curriculum, which are repeated in upper primary years and in the second year of secondary education. In recent years, some of the study units located in the compulsory secondary school history curriculum introduced as optional courses in this level of education under different course names, such as General Turkish History or Ottoman History. That is to say Turkish pupils are supposed to take the same course or learn about the same historical topics three times throughout their primary and secondary education.

If pupils continue studying history in higher education this number increases to four. Even though they study any other subject in the university, Turkish university students have to take a particular history course in the first year of their undergraduate education. ‘The Revolution History of Turkish Republic and Principles of Atatürk’ course is compulsory for all higher education students in the country regardless of their institution and subject. The above curricula oversaw different extents of topics or study units for different levels of schooling. The participants argued that this difference was very small in practice, as one of the student teachers asserted:

Pupils take Revolution History course in year eight and year eleven. What changes between these two years are the textbooks and their authors. I think that the contents of those textbooks used in year eight and year eleven are almost the same. I heard from my friends that in some universities, they teach the same Revolution History course. Probably, we’re lucky in this university. (ST8)

It is worth noting at this point that most of the interviewees disagreed with the approach of repeating the same historical topics or courses in different schooling levels. They believed that this approach did not help pupils to learn more or better. Conversely, they argued that it makes history lessons boring. Instead of this perspective, they suggested a gradual approach of history teaching in which basic historical concepts, family and local history are taught in early primary years, national history in later primary years, and a comprehensive-comparative world history, including an ED, introduced in secondary years. A student teacher suggested that:

I started my teaching practice in a primary school. For example, while you’re talking about Ottoman history or the Turkish Independence War, you use the word, padişah (the sultan). Then the kids ask ‘what is padişah?’ In my opinion, we should teach historical concepts in early primary years. In the second phase of primary school, we can introduce national history, and European and world histories would be appropriate for secondary years, I think. (ST6)

Different from the general perspective, some student teachers proposed the introduction of a comprehensive world history course at secondary school level instead of repeating

the same topics taught in previous years. They stressed that this course had to include more social and cultural history. One of the student teachers placed her/his experience of learning history in secondary school.

I studied Ottoman History from beginning to end under the name of 'General History' in year two. I took the same course as 'Ottoman History' in year three again. Instead of this, they can introduce World History. I'm sure it can be done during the term of lycée education, which is three years. (ST11)

On the other hand, a small number of the interviewees pointed out that they support the idea of repeating the same historical topics or courses in different educational levels. They claimed that it was planned to consolidate learning in various levels. Nevertheless, they accepted that the curriculum itself is not appropriate to materialise this objective, and the current practice in Turkish schools is not satisfactory.

One history educator also stated that the earlier versions of the history curriculum introduced history in a way that the same topics were supposed to be taught in different years again and again, because schooling was only compulsory for the first five years of primary education. Therefore, the educational authorities foresaw that pupils who probably left schooling after the compulsory years should learn about history to some extent. S/he claimed that this justification was not valid anymore, since the compulsory education was extended to eight years and would probably be increased to eleven years in the very near future.

This subsection presented participants' criticisms on introducing the same historical topics at various schooling levels. They proposed introducing a gradual approach of history teaching and allocating more space for contemporary European and world histories. However, there were few participants defending the notion of repeating the same historical topics in different educational levels.

7.1.6. The place of sensitive and controversial issues

In this part, participants' perspectives on the place of sensitive and controversial issues in history curriculum are analysed and discussed. Sensitive and controversial issues in the context of this study refer to some historical topics whose occurrences, notions, and conclusion are still the matter of debate amongst some countries, nations, societies, politicians, social scientist and of course the historians. The problem of Northern Ireland or the issue of Cyprus can be presented as examples of sensitive and

controversial issues, because several countries, nations and societies are involved in them and both of these issues are still waiting for solution.

Table 7.13. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 6.12 by three groups

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Student Teachers		Teachers		Teacher Educators		Total	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.12. The ED in history education must not include sensitive political issues	Dis.	77.6	104	79.3	46	83.3	20	78.7	170
	Neu.	10.4	14	6.9	4	4.2	1	8.8	19
	Ag.	11.9	16	13.8	8	12.5	3	12.5	27

According to the quantitative data, the participants of this study were optimistic about the inclusion of sensitive and controversial political in the history curriculum. As the percentages of responses in Table 7.13 show the majority of total participants (78.7%) rejected the statement ‘the ED in history education must not include sensitive political issues.’ There are some small differences between the three groups of respondents, which are not significant. Additionally, the comparison of the student teachers’ and the teacher educators’ data showed coherence amongst the views of the participants from different universities, as it can be seen in Table 7.14.

Table 7.14. Percentages and frequencies of the responses given to the item 6.12 by student teachers and teacher educators from different universities

Questionnaire Statements	Att.	Central				West				New			
		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.		S. T.		T. E.	
		%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
6.12. The ED in history education must not include sensitive political issues	Dis.	78.4	40	77.8	7	77.8	35	77.8	7	76.3	29	100	6
	Neu.	5.9	3	---	--	11.1	5	11.1	1	15.8	6	---	--
	Ag.	15.7	8	22.2	2	11.1	5	11.1	1	7.9	3	---	--

The interview data also revealed that participants of the study were mostly in favour of including sensitive and controversial issues in the secondary school history curriculum. According to the participants these issues are essential for understanding today’s world and would help pupils to make connections between historical events and similar issues in today’s world. ST14 summarised many other respondents’ opinion with his statement.

I think those topics should enter into the curriculum because one should learn about those issues in order to understand what is happening around us today. For example, the Cyprus issue is one of them that occupying everybody’s agenda these days. However, if you go to a lyceé and ask pupils about this issue, you won’t get anything more than those cliché depositions you hear from the mass media every day. I support their inclusion into the curriculum but the common approach, which claims that we’re right in any condition, must be reconsidered. (ST14)

Although there were some interviewees who had worries about maintaining the existing political-governmental structure, most of the others, regardless of their occupation or institution, wanted to see that those sensitive and controversial issues are opened to public discussion and included into the curriculum. Besides, some participants stated that Turkey should ‘courageously’ put those things that their ancestors did wrong in the past in the curriculum. This second group of the respondents claimed that opening these issues to discussion, in and out of schools, would be beneficial in the long term. Nevertheless, many of them admitted that discussing these issues in the classroom would be useless and dangerous under the current circumstances, because it is not appropriate for the Turkish cultural, educational and pedagogical traditions. These participants claimed that educational laws and regulations must be altered or reorganised beforehand. They also proposed that:

First, the type of teacher should be changed. I mean teachers should be the ones who are able make their pupils talk. For example on the issue of Cyprus, a teacher should present all political facts and events including the perspectives and stories of both sides. Then she/he should help pupils to reflect on the information given, and form their own interpretations or views on the issue. Then we can start raising people who are different from the ordinary ones, or who have different points of view. (ST10)

On the other hand, a small number of participants supported the inclusion of sensitive and controversial issues into the curriculum from a different view point. They asserted that pupils learned about those issues from mass media or their social environment. Therefore, it was meaningless to exclude them from the school curriculum. This group of participants argued that learning about the sensitive and controversial issues in the school would help pupils to develop a better understanding of these issues in their own historical contexts. A teacher educator said that:

These topics specifically arouse people’s interest. They want to make sense of those issues. Even sometimes, people want to have a tendency or belief about them. I mean I haven’t seen anybody who doesn’t have an idea about Armenian Question, for example. Everybody wants to prove that she/he is a supporter or advocate of a particular thesis about this issue. I think these issues should be included in history teaching because people add those issues into their historical formation from different mediums by different methods anyway. (TE3)

As mentioned before, many participants complained about the negative circumstances that had been preventing the inclusion of sensitive and controversial issues into the curriculum. They also thought that the circumstances might badly influence the teaching in schools on those issues. Therefore, it was regarded vital to develop a neutral and objective approach of sensitive and political issues in order to assure that their inclusion into the curriculum will be useful and helpful.

Moreover, some participants stated that the use of primary evidence could help teachers to provide neutrality and objectivity while teaching sensitive and controversial issues in the classroom. They also pointed out that except some extracts selected from particular resources beforehand, the existing history curriculum and other related regulations do not allow teachers to use primary sources. Additionally, the participants affirmed that the inclusion of these issues into the history curriculum might provide various educational benefits for pupils. One teacher educator stated that:

I believe those issues might be very helpful for pupils, thus they should be included into the program. For example, working on those issues may help pupils to learn how to find information from various types of resources and enable them to work in pairs and groups. They also help teachers to prepare suitable environments for pupils to put forward logical ideas, to refine these ideas by comparing with the perspective of others and to reflect on them. It will also be useful for developing pupils' discussion skills. (TE2)

Furthermore, some interviewees, specifically student teachers, pointed out that many practising teachers, who had been trained and worked within the current system, had got particular perspectives or prejudices about the sensitive and controversial issues. They asserted that many teachers introduce historical topics or issues from their own perspectives or ideologies, and expect pupils to approve and accept the perspectives as historical reality. Because of this situation, the participants proposed that teachers must be educated on how to approach and how to teach these kinds of topics prior to their introduction in the curriculum. In other words, the participants found it necessary to change initial and in-service education of history teachers in order to teach sensitive and controversial issues in history classrooms.

The findings evaluated here indicate that the majority of participants believed in the necessity of including sensitive and controversial issues in the history curriculum. They stated that these issues would be helpful to make connections between the past and the present days and to understand today's world better. However, some interviewees asserted that including sensitive and controversial issues in the curriculum under the current circumstances might be useless and politically risky because of the general understanding and notion of education in the country. Therefore, they suggested an inclusive perspective of change covering the development of whole educational beliefs, attitudes, perspectives and understandings. Apart from that, some participants argued that anyhow pupils learn about those issues from various sources. Therefore, it is not logical to keep them out of the curriculum.

7.2. Suggestions on Pedagogy

This section explores the interview participants' perspectives and suggestions on the practice of history teaching in Turkish schools. It is the general opinion amongst the participants that pedagogy is the main problem of history teaching in Turkey.

Participants of this study asserted that by means of school history, it is aimed to give pupils as much historical information/knowledge as possible, which was researched and publicised by academic historians. As a result, teacher talk or exposition is the main pedagogical activity in Turkish history classrooms. They argued that the dominant understanding or conception of education in the country, the education system and the curriculum have also been appropriate for and influential on this approach of history teaching. In addition, many participants stated that educational activities and processes in schools are mostly focused on external aspects of schooling, rather than pupils' learning or cognitive and emotional developments. As one of the teachers said:

No one looks at how I teach history, or how my pupils learn it. When we have inspection, they (inspectors) check the order of my class, my appearance and dressing, my speaking ability, or they look at how I manage my class. (T5)

The interviewees considered the general understanding and notion of education in the country and the present history curriculum as the main factors for the current problems of history teaching in schools. They suggested that in order to improve the pedagogy of history, we should change these educational conditions. According to them the main problems of pedagogy are financial conditions, limited technical and educational facilities, the centralised university entrance exam, inadequate teachers and excessive class-size. ST2 pointed out the influence of general understanding of education and excessive class-size on classroom teaching.

For example, it is very difficult to use discussion technique in the classroom. This is, somehow, arising from our education system or educational understanding. Pupils are generally uninterested and inclined to avoid talking. The classes are also very crowded. If you start a discussion in the classroom once, you can't take control of the class back. ST7)

Another participant emphasised the negative effect of the university entrance exam on history teaching.

The principal aim for a lycée pupil is to answer as many questions as possible in the university exam. If the kid can do nineteen out of nineteen history questions in the exam s/he is regarded as successful. Now the criterion is this. Because of that we teach pupils which of these options below is right or which of them is wrong. I mean we teach them certain patterns, certain types of questions or we advise them on particular topics, which they'll potentially face in the exam. That's to say there is no worry for giving them a historical consciousness or something like that. (T6)

Many of the interviewees indicated the necessity of various kinds of teaching techniques, materials, aids and technologies in history classroom. They believed that those techniques and facilities would help teachers to overcome the pedagogical difficulties and change the notion of history education from loading pupils with factual information/knowledge to teaching them how to pursue the study of history.

Along with those suggestions, one of the teacher educators proposed that in order to develop the curriculum and pedagogy efficiently, one needed to develop one's own educational theories initially. S/he criticised recent attempts of educational improvements in Turkey by claiming that all the attempts had been based on theories developed through research, carried out in western countries, mostly in the United States, England, France and Germany. S/he asserted that most of those theories or development models were not appropriate for Turkish educational contexts. Many of these attempts therefore failed to make a positive impact, as s/he discloses:

Our most important need is raising those theoreticians, who probably have teaching background, or at least having experience in the field. Then we can start to find out our problems, to analyse them, and to find solutions. For example we always complain about over-crowded classrooms. In my belief, we if we research this aspect we can find our own teaching methods that are appropriate to teach in these classrooms. (TE8)

Moreover, many of the interviewees pointed out the necessity of collaboration between schools and universities for developing pedagogical aspects of history teaching. Some teachers stated that they are recommended by the Ministry or by some academics to use slides, over head transparencies or other technological devices in their teaching. However, they denoted that these recommendations do not help without providing necessary physical conditions and pedagogical formation. Practising teachers were also willing to work in the classroom with researchers in condition that this should provide them more options of teaching methods, facilities, opportunities and positive feedback about their practice.

Supporting the perspective of teachers, teacher educators stated that the reforms or innovations previously put into force failed because they did not consider teachers' beliefs and attitudes about their profession. As a result, both groups agreed that it is a priority to research the actual practice in schools in order to improve history teaching. However, the majority of student teacher participants did not share this view. They insisted that it is difficult to improve pedagogy without changing teachers' perspectives and attitudes from the beginning.

The qualitative data analysed here conclude that participants of this study consider the dominant understanding of education in the country and the present history curriculum as the negative dynamics nourishing the current problems of history teaching.

According to them the main problems of history teaching are financial conditions, limited technical and educational facilities, the university entrance exam and excessive class-size. The participants held that solving those problems is the precondition for the development of pedagogy in Turkish history classrooms. Besides, teachers and teacher educators pointed out the need for improving the collaboration between schools and universities to develop history teaching. Nevertheless, student teachers insisted that it is difficult to improve pedagogy without changing teachers' perspectives and attitudes to their own profession.

7.2.1. Methods and strategies

This sub-section examines the interview participants' opinions and suggestions about using different kinds of teaching methods, techniques and strategies in history teaching. It was considered that teaching methods and strategies constitute an important part of pedagogy. Therefore, they are evaluated separately from the general pedagogical issues discussed above. Almost all of the interviewees claimed that history teachers mainly use exposition and questioning techniques. As a result, teaching methods, strategies and techniques are the main problems of current history teaching. Most of them suggested developing new practical and motivating techniques and methods, or adapt those developed in other countries in order to make history lessons relevant, interesting and enjoyable for pupils. In order to improve history teaching in Turkish schools, they suggested various kinds of teaching methods, strategies and techniques. The most important ones proposed are researching, investigating and doing history via assignment works, story telling, drama or role-play, trips to historical sites and museums, brain storming, discussion and group/co-operative learning methods, and attending conferences and seminars. However, the participants indicated that all these methods must be appropriate, acceptable and usable for teachers and pupils in the Turkish educational context. For example, speaking about museum visits one of the teachers stated that:

It's always difficult and problematic to organise a museum visit or a trip to historical sites, because of the official procedures. If I want to take my class to the schoolyard within the school time I have to obtain the consent of all my pupils' parents in addition to a written permission from the school administration. Can you imagine how difficult it is to organise that kind of trips? (T4)

Related to classroom practice, some of the interviewees indicated that the conceptualisation of textbooks in the Turkish context has been misleading history teachers and academics. They stated that textbooks are not only regarded as the main teaching materials but also seen as the curriculum or the whole area of history teaching. As a result of this conception most of the academic works in masters and PhD level have focused on history textbooks, because researchers have been considering that the situation of history teaching will be improved, if the problems and limitations of history textbooks are overcome. This group of interviewees however, suggested that teachers and academics in the field should try to go beyond the curriculum and textbooks. One of them stated:

We have to change this understanding. We should bring the first hand historical sources, historical novels, pictures of historical ruins and artefacts, and many other resources into the classroom. We need to develop techniques for teachers and pupils to question, to compare and to interpret these evidences. (TE8)

This group of interviewees also argued that the current practice of history teaching emphasises on giving pupils subject knowledge only. Instead of this approach, they put forward that the notion of school history must be teaching pupils how to study history, how to prepare written works on historical topics, how to use libraries, archives and other resources, and encouraging them to participate in lessons. Additionally, the interviewees claimed that the historical topics, resources, materials, environments or teaching and learning methods and techniques must be interesting and relevant for pupils in order to motivate them. ST6 expresses her/his opinion on this issue:

The topic being studied must be relevant for pupils' lives. It should be something that they can see or make connection with something in their environment. For example, if the topic is about a mosque or the arts of Seljuks an opportunity must be provided for them to see one of the Seljukian work of art in their region. The teacher should also encourage pupils to participate in the lessons and ensure that they can express their views freely. (ST6)

However, most of the participants including some practising teachers asserted that teachers, particularly experienced teachers, are not willing to use different teaching methods and techniques or to improve themselves. They indicated that history teachers always prefer the easy way and keep up with the curriculum and the use of textbooks in the classroom. They are also not enthusiastic to use new teaching methods, materials or resources. For example, one of the interviewees argued that in spite the fact that they have to give pupils written assignments on particular topics, most teachers do not read the assignments. Therefore, pupils regard this kind of work as unnecessary formalities,

so that they present some information collected from encyclopaedias as their written assignments. This group of participants proposed that teachers should be trained or encouraged to improve themselves.

Along with those teaching methods and techniques, the interviewees stated that it is necessary to use various kinds of materials, tools and technological devices to make history lessons interesting and meaningful for pupils. The majority of participants assured that technological devices are useful to visualise historical information and therefore they would motivate pupils to focus on lessons and help them make better sense of history. They suggested many different technological tools or devices that can be used in history teaching, such as television, video, overhead projector, slide machines, photocopiers, computers, various kinds of software and of course the internet.

However, many participants put forward the fact that the use of these facilities mainly depended on financial opportunities which Turkish schools lack of. Therefore, improving the financial and technological capacities of schools seems to be the precondition for using technology in history teaching. Moreover, student teachers asserted that experienced teachers are not willing to use these facilities even if they had the opportunity to access them.

This sub-section has discussed participants' suggestions of the use of teaching methods and strategies in history classroom. According to the findings presented above the current practice of history teaching emphasises the transmission of subject knowledge only. Instead of this approach, the participants put forward that the notion of school history must be teaching pupils how to study history, how to prepare written works on historical topics, how to use libraries, archives and other resources, and encouraging them to participate in lessons. Therefore, most participants recommended that teachers should use various teaching methods, techniques, tools and materials, but at the same time being aware of their schools' technical and financial conditions. Additionally, the interviewees asserted that the historical topics, resources, materials, environments or teaching and learning methods and techniques had to be interesting and relevant for pupils. While some participants suggested developing new teaching methods and techniques, the others recommended adapting methods and techniques already developed in other countries.

7.2.2. Resources

Similar to teaching methods and strategies, the use of various kinds of historical resources emerged as an important part of history teaching. As mentioned earlier, many of the interview participants made negative remarks on the common understanding and perception of textbooks in Turkey. It is known that textbooks are regarded as the main resource for history teaching. The majority of the interviewees however, did not agree with the way in which textbooks are used in history classrooms. They suggested the use of various kinds of materials and resources to attract pupils' attention to history, to arouse their interest, and to help them get involved in the processes of the study of history.

Firstly, the interviewees criticised the use of visual materials in history textbooks. According to them textbooks only included a limited number of maps, pictures and illustrations, which can be found to be the same in every textbook. According to the interviewees those visual materials placed in history textbooks were neither attractive/interesting nor helpful for teachers and pupils to make connections and inferences about the issue they study. For example, one of the teachers said that the textbook s/he uses contained a picture of 'Göktürk Inscriptions', a photograph that shows the solid rocks as one of the first written inheritances of Turks. S/he commented that this photograph of '*some rocks*' does not mean anything to pupils. Instead, it should present the scripts on the rocks and should give clues about the meaning of what is written there to stimulate pupils' thoughts. T6 explained how s/he used historical resources as:

I try to use every resource or material I can access. It can be a picture, a coin or the copy of a manuscript. I don't just show my pupils the material, I also ask them questions about it, such as I give this coin and request them to interpret and explain what they see on it, how people used it in the old times. If they can't read or understand the meaning of words written on it, I help them.
(T6)

Another participant put forward the idea of having a history room in every school, which stored historical maps, pictures, photos, scripts, illustrations, animations, artefacts and models that pupils and teachers could have access to. However, many interviewees pointed out that in order to provide and use those materials and resources, the schools and teachers needed more financial support.

Secondly, some participants brought forward the idea of using newspapers, historical maps and journals in the classroom. Particularly, student teachers argued that it is not realistic to expect that Turkish secondary schools have all those necessary resources and facilities. Therefore, teachers should find other materials to enrich history lessons. They asserted that newspaper articles or history periodicals could be used in schools to familiarise pupils with different perspectives on a particular topic, and to help them to follow and read various types of publications. Additionally, many participants regarded historical novels as an important resource for teaching history. It was asserted that historical novels could help pupils to develop their interest of history, read more out of school times, and develop discussion skills.

Thirdly, some participants suggested the use of documentary films and historical documents in the history classroom. They indicated that documentary films on history are helpful to give the image of the people and their environment and atmosphere in the past. The participants were hoping to see that the number of historical films and documentaries will be increased. Besides, many interviewees proposed the use of historical documents in classroom teaching. They maintained that although it is difficult to use this type of evidence in the Turkish context because of the language and alphabet barriers,¹ documents can at least give pupils clues about the historical reality, and stimulate their thoughts on historical matters.

The idea of using historical documents in the history classroom is also connected to another issue emerging from the interview data. Most of the interviewees support the use of first hand historical sources or primary evidence in history teaching. Whereas a small number of participants thought that it is unnecessary and off putting to use first hand historical sources, because most of these sources were in Arabic alphabet and written in a language that cannot be understood by secondary school pupils. This group of participants asserted that the use of primary evidence would provide pupils with the authenticity of historical information. According to them using primary evidence could at least help pupils to relate the historical information they learnt and the visual evidence. They could help them process and comprehend the study topics better, think and reflect on those topics, and not forget the knowledge easily. T1 stated another advantage of using primary evidence in history classroom.

¹ After the foundation of the republic the Turkish language has changed drastically for the aim of purifying it from the influences of Arabic and Persian. The Arabic script was altered with the one adapted from the Latin script as a requirement of the same policy.

I've been trying to use first hand historical resources. I take them into the classroom and introduce them to my pupils. For example, I read the part of Evliya Çelebi's Travel Book on the earthquake in Erzincan last time. It attracted pupils' attention. They were surprised to learn that something they hear and see about in the news everyday also happened in the past. (T1)

On the other hand, many participants suggested that the MONE or its local agencies should prepare or reproduce first hand historical sources in some appropriate ways or formats and make them accessible to teachers and pupils. Additionally, teacher educators felt that most of the teachers do not know how to reach and use primary evidence. They recommended that teachers and student teachers to learn how to use first hand historical resources in the classroom. On the other hand, student teachers remarked that experienced teachers are not only unable to use the primary evidence but also unwilling to learn about it.

However, many teacher interviewees stated that it is not appropriate for the curriculum and regulations to use first hand sources. They indicated the possibility of seeing contradictions between the first hand sources and the historical information presented in the curriculum and textbooks. Therefore, teachers proposed changing the curriculum and related regulations as a first step. Moreover, some participants pointed out the university entrance exam as a negative factor influencing the use of primary evidence in the history classroom. They indicated that using primary evidence in classroom teaching does not suit the structure of the university entrance exams. According to them, pupils are not inclined to deal with the first hand sources, because exam questions do not require the knowledge and skills of obtaining, analysing and interpreting these sources. The participants asserted that the structure of the university entrance exam must appropriately be altered to fit the approach of using primary evidence in history teaching or many other teaching methods and techniques.

The participants perceived the use of textbooks as the only resource for history teaching. They indicated several negative characteristics of history textbooks and their use in Turkish context. Instead of textbooks, they suggested using various kinds of resources in history teaching. Some of those resources they mentioned are maps, pictures, photos, scripts, illustrations, animations, artefacts, newspapers, history periodicals, documentary films, historical documents and so on. While talking about the use of historical documents in classroom teaching, the participants stated that the language and alphabet of these documents could limit their usability. However, most participants were positive

about the use of first hand sources indicating that historical documents could give pupils clues about the historical reality, and stimulate their thoughts on historical matters.

7.3. Suggestions on Teacher Education

The last part of the interview data focuses on pre-service and in-service history teacher education in Turkey. Secondary school history teacher education programmes were increased from four years to five years in 1998. According to those changes history student teachers are obliged to study their subject specific courses in the first seven semesters. Following that, they attend pedagogical education for three semesters including both theoretical courses on teaching and school practice. Many participants made negative comments on the previous teacher training system and changes brought into practice after 1998, whilst a number of the interviewees supported those changes made in teacher education programmes,.

Many of the participants, mostly student teachers, were concerned about this new system. They said that student teachers struggled between subject knowledge education and pedagogical training because of the separation between them. This is a bigger issue in some universities where student teachers receive their subject knowledge education from ‘pure history’ departments and come to ‘history education’ departments for pedagogical training. For example, the student teachers from New University go through these stages. They take the courses on the subject area from ‘the history department’ of the same university and come to the history education subdivision for pedagogical training. The student teachers from this university asserted that the mentality of academics, their teaching styles and the structure of courses are completely different in these two departments. Therefore, it is problematic for them to combine subject knowledge education and pedagogical training together. One of the teacher educators summarised the deficiencies of separation between subject knowledge and pedagogy education.

The difficulty here is that our students come here (History Education department) after studying pure history for three and half years, without hearing anything about teaching. Then they start attending pedagogical courses and teaching practice which makes them digress from the subject area. If these two are combined together we may overcome the problem. For example, we have this ‘Introduction to Teaching’ course in the eighth semester, which is not useful enough at that stage. I believe that if students take this course in their first semester it would be more beneficial because it’s not that easy to acquire teacher behaviours/capacities. (TE6)

Additionally, student teachers from all three institutions did not find the education they had received sufficient. Most of them did not feel they were ready to teach. Teacher educators on the other hand, argued that students who were going to be historians and those ones that were attending teacher-training courses must receive different subject knowledge education. They continued with the claim that there should be a parallelism between the teacher training programme and the school curriculum that graduates would teach. According to teacher educators this parallelism or synchronisation must not only be covering the same content areas but also be based on similar pedagogical approaches in order to train teachers to teach the school curriculum adequately and appropriately.

There are three more points related to the quality and efficiency of history teacher education. One of them is the insufficiency of the partnership between universities and schools, which should be well-organised and well-developed. The second point is the requirement of in-service education of mentors and school administrators who are involved in the processes of teacher training. The participants argued that many school administrators and mentors are not aware of the importance of school practice in the training of student teachers. They indicated that school practice is generally conceived as a formality process by many people involved in the education sector. The third point raised by the participants is the lack of educational opportunities, physical and educational resources, and materials available in schools, which had vital importance in improving the quality of history teaching and history teacher education.

Besides, as pointed out earlier, the majority of student teachers remarked on the insufficiency of pedagogical training. Firstly they underlined that the education they receive on some aspects of the teaching profession, such as classroom management or preparing teaching materials, is not sufficient at all. Student teachers also asserted that the pedagogical education they received was only concentrated on a theoretical level, but they particularly want to learn how to put that theoretical knowledge into practice. One student teacher stated:

I believe that when we take any subject specific course we must also be taught how to teach that course. For example, I should learn how to teach the Renaissance better than the topic itself, because I'm not going to specialise on Renaissance history. I think, we've learnt history, particularly some historical topics that our lecturers have expertise on, quite well. Nevertheless, the pedagogical courses we've taken were all at the theory level. For instance, 'General Teaching Methods' was one of the pedagogical courses I took last year, but I still don't know how to apply those teaching methods on most historical topics, like using discussion method while teaching early periods of Ottoman history. (ST6)

Moreover, the interview data revealed that student teachers made more negative remarks on teaching practice in relation to theoretical pedagogy education. The student teachers asserted that they spent most of their teaching practice time for observing the classes and doing the official paperwork. They had very little chance to teach in the classroom because of various reasons, as ST7 expresses:

I think school practice has been totally deviated from its original goals. We attend teaching practise in order to fulfil the requirements. We can only use exposition method. For example, we taught last week. We could prepare transparencies or a power point presentation on our topic, but we didn't do it because there isn't any OHP or computer available in the school. (ST7)

Furthermore, during the process of interviews, the participants were asked whether the inclusion of the ED into the secondary school curriculum required or facilitated any further developments in history teacher education. Firstly, the participants put that in order to consider and introduce the ED adequately in history teaching, student teachers had to be educated to look at historical issues from various viewpoints. They argued that introducing the ED in history teaching would inevitably require teaching more European history from various European, the world and individual perspectives as well as the Turkish point of view. However, the current history curriculum only presents and interprets history from a certain perspective as discussed in chapter five.

Secondly, the interviewees pointed out the urgent necessity of Turkish teacher training institutions' involvement in European student exchange programs. They stated that some Turkish universities, including several history education departments, had already been involved in those exchange programmes, but these programmes had not included any Turkish student teacher going abroad for a certain period of her/his course yet. Student teachers and teacher educators particularly put forward that visiting different countries and studying in different educational contexts would broaden student teachers' pedagogical and historical perspectives as well as their general worldviews. Student exchange programs were also seen as very important for learning about how history is being taught in other countries, how teachers in various European countries use textbooks or other historical resources, and how they introduce and interpret Turkish history. However, many interviewees stated that not being able to speak a foreign language is the most important problem for many Turkish student teachers in relation with student exchange programmes.

Thirdly, some participants expressed their concerns about accessing and using information on the history of many European countries. As mentioned earlier, they

claimed that the ED in history teaching would require teaching more European history. However, Turkish historiography and consequently the school curriculum mainly concentrated on Turkish history. Other countries, nations or societies are taken up as long as they have any relation or connection to Turkish history or have an impact on it. Therefore, research and publications on European history in Turkey did not seem sufficient for the participants.

In order to solve this problem and improve the state of history teaching and teacher education, the participants proposed the use of ICT. They indicated that the use of ICT was not only helpful to access information, but also useful to analyse, interpret and disseminate it. Nevertheless, the financial and physical conditions of Turkish schools and universities form the biggest problem for using ICT. Moreover, the language barrier can be considered to be another difficulty. While some participants suggested that the MONE and universities should give importance to the second/foreign language learning from primary to tertiary level, the others proposed that these organisations should develop a program for translating any kind of resources and publications into Turkish language.

The interview participants also thought that the inclusion of the ED might bring some opportunities to develop history teaching and teacher education. They asserted that it could prepare a ground for interaction amongst Turkish students and professionals and their counterparts from various countries to discuss methodological, pedagogical and subject matter issues, to exchange resources and to co-operate for developing history curricula, history teaching and history teacher education. Besides, some interviewees believed that there is a link between the ED in education and the process of Turkey's application to become a member of the EU. Therefore, they expected that the inclusion of the ED in history teaching and teacher education would provide more financial opportunities for Turkish schools and teacher training institutions.

Apart from that, some of the interviewees criticised the selection procedure of candidate teachers. They claimed that in addition to various defects of the current teacher training system, this procedure is the cause of many problems, because of its centralised structure. The participants found the process of selecting teacher candidates by a centralised examination not appropriate, because they believed that as a profession teaching requires some characteristics and abilities that cannot be measured by a multiple selection test. In addition to the current university entrance examination, which

includes the selection of student teachers, they suggested a further stage for the selection procedure, which includes an interview.

Apart from those issues, some of the interviewees argued that there were some problems related to history teacher education at the academic level. Firstly, some student teachers pointed out the inconsistency amongst the academic studies on history. They asserted that academic historians from different institutions approached historical topics or issues from completely opposite perspectives. They continued with the idea that the differing perspectives or debates do not arise from procedural or methodological issues. They were the reflection of political debates amongst the academics. One student teacher disclosed her/his experience with the emphasis that those competitions on history affect history teaching negatively:

One of my friends is studying history in ... University (another university in the same city). We try to help each other by discussing historical issues. We realised that our lecturers use different resources, teach history from different perspectives, and of course influence our understanding of history in totally different ways. We must consider that many students are inclined to accept any information or point of view presented by those lecturers, and they will be teaching to younger generations from the same points of view. (ST10)

Secondly, some student teachers and teacher educators stated that the number of teacher educators in the country is limited and many academics currently teaching in history education departments are pure historians. According to the interviewees those academics do not have any interest or expertise on educational sciences and they do not take pedagogical education seriously, which could be seen from their irrelevant academic works and the limited number of academic publications on history education. This group of participants argued that the government and universities should pay urgent attention to this issue and give importance to the training of teacher educators.

Another point arising from the interview data related to teacher training is the in-service education and development of practising teachers. Many of the teacher interviewees asserted that they would not think of improving their practice because of the economical difficulties and the heavy workload. On the other hand, despite agreeing with the complaint on economical difficulties, student teachers, teacher educators and some practising teachers recommended that teachers should always aim to improve themselves at least through reading on their subject. Besides, almost all participants indicated that the in-service teacher education offered by the Ministry MONE is insufficient and ineffective. The in-service teacher education programmes were neither

well organised, nor targeting suitably to all teachers in the country. Teachers also stated that in order to improve the quality of history teaching in schools, they needed to learn more on pedagogy of history and using ICT in history teaching. However, most of the in-service education is on the introduction of new laws and regulations on education or the inclusion of new topics in the curriculum, not for improving teachers' subject matter knowledge or technological and pedagogical capacities.

The findings analysed and discussed in this section summarise the interview participants' perspectives and suggestions on the training of history teachers. First of all, the participants opposed the separation of subject knowledge and pedagogical education, and suggested that those two dimensions of teacher training had to be combined and synchronised with each other. Additionally, student teachers from all three institutions indicated that the education, especially pedagogical training and teaching practice, they receive is not sufficient. Student teachers pointed out the necessity of ICT training. The participants also asserted that teacher training programmes and the school curriculum should be made appropriate to each other. Besides, some of the interviewees criticised the selection procedures of student teachers. Many participants suggested a two-stage selection procedure including a centralised exam and an interview to replace the current one.

Regarding history teacher education and the ED, the participants of the study pointed out the requirement of educating trainee teachers to look at historical and educational issues from various view-points. According to them, history teachers need to know more about European history and teach it from various perspectives in order to introduce the ED in history teaching adequately. Moreover, the participants stated that in order to introduce an ED in the school curriculum, it is a precondition for Turkish teacher training institutions to get involved in European student exchange programmes, which would be helpful to accessing more information and to make use of other countries' experiences.

Furthermore, the findings of this section revealed the participants' criticisms and concerns on in-service training and professional development of practising teachers. The lack of qualified history teacher educators was another issue discussed here. The participants indicated that more specialist history educators are needed.

7.4. Summary of the Findings

The findings analysed and discussed in this chapter exposed the participants' suggestions on various issues related to the improvement of the secondary school history curriculum, history teaching and history teacher training with the consideration of a potential inclusion of an ED. Firstly, it revealed the participants' views that the current curriculum has many deficiencies and incapacities. Therefore, it should be developed urgently with the help of relevant research to consider the views of various stakeholders.

Secondly, the findings specified five propositions that the participants of this study considered as the aims and objectives of history teaching for the new curriculum. The first proposition foresaw that history should be taught to develop a national identity. However, apart from a small group of teacher educators, the holders of this perspective did not support the idea of teaching history from a particular ideological or political perspective including a nationalistic one. The second proposition maintained that the aim of teaching history in schools is to take lessons from the past in order to orientate ourselves in today's world and to be able to predict what will happen in the future. The third proposition attributed that the purpose of history teaching is to function as an efficient citizenship education, while the fourth one proposed to eliminate nationalistic and chauvinistic elements of history teaching by developing a humanistic approach and tolerance in order to raise pupils to be critical and conscious individuals. On the other hand, the fifth proposition suggested that history should be taught to develop historical and critical thinking skills by teaching the methodology of history.

Thirdly, the findings presented in this chapter demonstrated participants' suggestions that the curriculum should include more social, economical and cultural dimensions of history selected from a balanced perspective of local, national, European and world contexts. The findings also proposed a balanced approach of representing various periods of history in the curriculum. Therefore, the requirement of bringing in more contemporary history, specifically very recent periods, was emphasised with the assertion that contemporary history was crucial for understanding today's world. However, the findings indicated that some participants defended the view of excluding a certain period of near history from the school curriculum. Besides, the analysis of available data indicated the necessity and importance of including sensitive and controversial issues in the curriculum.

Fourthly, this chapter has discussed the interview participants' suggestions on history teaching. The findings indicated many problems of the pedagogy, such as insufficient physical and financial conditions, limited pedagogical methods and techniques, lack of resources available for history teaching and so on. The participants stated that solving those problems would also develop the general quality of history teaching. Additionally, the findings proposed the requirements of doing more research to diagnose the educational problems, to develop appropriate teaching methods and strategies, and to prepare practising teachers for these changes. Apart from that, participants' ideas on preparing and using various kinds of resources in history classrooms are discussed in this chapter.

Fifthly, this chapter has discussed interview participants' suggestions on developing history teacher education. According to the findings, subject knowledge and pedagogical courses in initial teacher education must be combined and synchronised with each other. Besides, the quality of pedagogical training, particularly the teaching practice, needs to be improved and made appropriate to the school curriculum. Additionally, some participants pointed out that practising and trainee teachers had to be educated on using ICT in their practice. Concerning the idea of a potential inclusion of an ED in history curriculum, the findings indicated the requirements of educating trainee teachers to look at issues from different perspectives and involving them in European exchange programmes.

In the light of research questions introduced in chapter four, the next chapter will discuss the findings presented in chapters five, six and seven with the consideration of the relevant literature. It will also consider the implications of this study for policy and practice.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study investigates the views of teaching professionals on the existing Turkish history curriculum and its potential improvement with the inclusion of the ED. It also addresses the probable impact of the changes in the curriculum on the practice of history teaching and the education of history teachers in consideration with the ED. Its results indicate an urgent need for change and improvement in history curriculum, teaching and teacher education in Turkey which will be discussed in this concluding chapter.

The analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data was presented in the previous three chapters. Chapter five revealed the participants' views of the present secondary school history curriculum, the current state of history teaching in Turkish secondary schools and their relation to the education of history teachers. Chapter six presented the participants' knowledge of Europe, European history and history teaching in Europe in addition to examining their views on the relationship between Turkey and Europe, the ED in education and the ED in history teaching. The discussion in chapter seven focused on the participants' suggestions for the improvement of the present history curriculum, history teaching and history teacher education in Turkey with reference to the potential inclusion of the ED.

In this concluding chapter, the main findings obtained from the previous analysis chapters will be discussed with reference to literature examined in chapters two and three. The research questions presented in chapter four will provide a framework for the discussions here; each research question will firstly be presented, and then addressed through the discussion of findings investigated in the three data analysis chapters together with the literature.

This chapter consists of four sections. Section one seeks to address the first main research question: *“what are the views of Turkish history educators about the potential inclusion of a European dimension in the secondary school history curriculum?”* and its four subsidiary research questions. It aims to utilise the findings presented in chapters five and six. Focusing on the data analysed and presented in chapter seven, section two seeks to address the second main research question: *“according to history educators in*

what ways does the Turkish curriculum need to be improved to bring about a better understanding of the European dimension?” and its subsidiary questions.

Section three discusses the implications of the research for educational policy and practice. It begins with a discussion of the significance of the findings for the Turkish context. Implications for the understanding of history, history teaching and the ED in history teaching, implications for the improvement of the curriculum, implications for the pedagogy and also implications for the history teacher education are further issues to be considered in the third section. The fourth and final section includes reflections on the study and some concluding remarks.

8.1. The Present History Curriculum, Europe and the European Dimension

One purpose of this study is to present the views of Turkish history educators about a potential inclusion of an ED in the secondary school history curriculum. In order to identify their views on a potential ED in the history curriculum fully and comprehensively, this study began with an investigation of their opinions on the current history curriculum, pedagogy and history teacher education. Then, history educators’ perceptions of Europe, European history and history teaching in European countries were examined prior to the exploration of their conception of the ED in history teaching and its potential inclusion into the current history curriculum.

8.1.1. What do history educators think about the current history curriculum, history teaching in secondary schools and history teacher education?

The data analysed and presented in chapter five indicated ten key areas of findings in answer to this subsidiary research question.

Curriculum centralisation:

The first key point is the structure of the TES, the state of the school curriculum and the status of the history curriculum. As described in chapter one, Turkey has a centralised education system and school curriculum. History is a compulsory subject in the secondary school curriculum, which is prepared by an agent of the MONE and implemented in all schools throughout the country with some minor alterations or exceptions (see pp. 81-83). The findings in chapter five demonstrated that most of the participants involved in this study were against the idea of a centralised curriculum for various reasons. For instance, while some participants disagreed with the design of the

centralised curriculum and centralised educational system, others advocated the idea of teacher and pupil autonomy.

This finding from the investigation is not mirrored in literature, because it is a specific aspect which has not previously been investigated in any empirical study. Studies in the Turkish context show that researchers and practitioners have become inured to the centralised education system and the school curriculum (İnal, 1996; Kaplan, 1999). Therefore, they evaluate the problems of history teaching within the context of the current TES and do not consider taking the centralised education system and curriculum as an issue for investigation (Tunçay, 1977; Kabapınar, 1992; İnal, 1996; Özbaran, 1998).

Teacher autonomy:

Teacher autonomy is related to the issue of a centralised curriculum. The findings mentioned above have indicated that teachers and pupils might be subjected to rules and regulations introduced by the central authority, but the analysis of the data revealed that participants of this study hold varying views on this issue. While teacher educators thought that there is no place for teacher freedom in the history curriculum, student teachers and teachers maintained that they have limited freedom in the classroom. This finding provides evidence that there is a discrepancy between educational policy and what happens in actual classroom practice. It also reflects on the fact that most teacher educators involved in this study did not have adequate insight into actual classroom situations. There could be a number of reasons for this which was discussed in chapter six.

Aims and objectives of history teaching:

The aims and objectives of history teaching are centrally defined and described in Turkey. Most of the aims and objectives stated in the curriculum were designed to guide pupils to acquire national awareness, national consciousness and a national identity (MONE, 1983; 1998a). Thus they are regarded as a means of fulfilling the extrinsic purposes defined by Slater (1995). Aims and objectives stated in the current curriculum and the TES indicate that history teaching in Turkey is perceived as a tool to maintain the impact of the dominant educational ideology and status quo in the socio-political order (Apple, 1979; Copeaux, 1998; Dilek, 1999).

However, some of the aims and objectives of history teaching stated in the current curriculum (MONE, 1998a) are to facilitate pupils' cognitive development and improve

their historical and critical thinking skills, which can be classified as the intrinsic purposes of history teaching (Slater, 1995). The findings demonstrate the participants' general view that the aims and objectives of history teaching introduced in the curriculum (both extrinsic and intrinsic ones) are neither clear, nor achievable by the average pupil. These aims and objectives are also not suitable for classroom practice. The participants reasoned this view on various grounds. Firstly, regardless of their occupation or institution, some interviewees asserted that the content and method of the curriculum is not appropriate to achieve the aims and objectives it proposes, whilst others indicated the negative impact of the state's educational policy, the TES and the common educational understanding in the country. Other reasons mentioned by the participants are the centralised university entrance examination, unsatisfactory textbooks, unwilling and incompetent teachers and the majority of pupils who do not have an interest in or intention to study history.

This aspect of the curriculum demonstrates the lack of assessment and evaluation in the TES. Despite the fact that the extrinsic and intrinsic purposes mentioned above were adopted in the curriculum and history teaching with the same deliberate intentions, neither their applicability nor their products have been evaluated or assessed, which implies that educational changes and innovations in the Turkish context are seen as processes at policy level, not as matters of educational practice. Moreover, the awareness of deficiencies and inadequacies in practice could be a reason for the Turkish educational authorities to neglect the evaluation and the assessment of the changes that have been carried out through a policy.

History for nationalist education:

In this context, the participants' overall view shows that the curriculum mainly introduces Turkish national history from a nationalistic perspective. This verifies the assertions cited in the literature that the history curriculum adopts a nationalistic and ethnocentric approach, which is not appropriate for presenting different historical perspectives in the classroom (Behar, 1996; Millas, 1997; Copeaux, 1998). Özbaran's (1997b), Tekeli's (1998) and Aydin's (2001) statement: the curriculum introduces a nationalistic version of history corroborates with the views of some interviewees who believe that the historical perspective of the curriculum contains a chauvinistic approach, which encourages the development of the concept of 'the other' in pupils' minds and enmity towards other cultures, nations and countries. The view of the

participants on this aspect of the curriculum verifies the impact of the extrinsic aims and objectives of the curriculum (Slater, 1995; İnal, 1996, Dinç, 2001). The findings also confirm that the curriculum is loaded with the content of Turkish national history (Behar, 1996; Kabapınar, 1998) and does not introduce history from other contexts, such as local, regional, European or the world histories (Kaya *et al*, 2001; Aktekin, 2004).

On the other hand, the analysis displayed some discrepancies from the overall view of the participants in respect to the above issues. For instance, the teacher educators from Central University did not subscribe to the general view that the curriculum presents a nationalistic perspective of history. This issue highlights the institutional differences particularly amongst the teacher educators, which reflects the way in which academics group together in specific institutions, departments or subdivisions in Turkish universities.

Historical dimensions:

According to the findings there is no balance amongst the political, social, economic and cultural dimensions of history in the curriculum. Similar to the issues discussed above, this result confirms previous studies revealing political history as the dominant element of the curriculum content, which emphasises diplomatic and military events (Kabapınar, 1998; Üçyiğit, 1977, Yetkin, 1998). Moreover, the findings demonstrate that different dimensions of history are not related or connected to one another in the curriculum. This finding also verifies the results of relevant studies (Tekeli, 1998; Kaya *et al*, 2001).

Historical periods:

The participants' views indicated that the curriculum does not introduce different periods of history in a fair and equal way. It is a deficiency that the curriculum does not include contemporary history. This result confirms Yıldırım's (1998) and Arikan's (1998) points that the Turkish curriculum does not allocate necessary space for prehistory and Ancient times, whilst overemphasising the Ottoman periods. Additionally, the participants share the common perspective of the authors (Arslan, 1998a; 1998b; Dilek, 1999; Kabapınar, 1998; Silier, 2003; Orhonlu, 1998; Tekeli, 1998) that the curriculum should introduce more contemporary history in order to raise pupils' interest in history and motivate them better.

Content-skills comparison:

The data analysis shows that the curriculum emphasises the transmission of given historical content-knowledge and ignores the acquisition of historical skills. Extensive and detailed historical content knowledge, mainly consisting of names of people and places and dates of significant events was considered a negative aspect of the curriculum on classroom practice (Kabapınar, 1998; Özbaran, 1998, Dilek, 1999). According to these authors the extent of the curriculum content confuses the pupils rather than helping them learn more about history. Besides, the findings indicated that the extent of the content introduced in the curriculum is too much for the time allocated for its teaching in the classroom, which further verifies the above point cited in previous studies.

Pedagogy and teacher education:

The findings analysed and presented in section two of chapter five highlighted the participants' views on the existing practice of history teaching and history teacher education. In relation to the practice of history teaching, the findings indicated that there are various problems, such as the traditional methods of teaching based on dictation, memorisation and rote learning, lack of teaching materials, resources and other physical capacities, incompetent and unenthusiastic teachers and the centralised university entrance exam. These issues examined in chapter three, have been raised in various studies (Dilek, 1999; Kabapınar, 1998; Tekeli, 1998; Demircioğlu, 1999). Furthermore, the use of textbooks as the main resource in history classrooms is considered an important problem by the participants of this study and some authors (Kaya *et al*, 2001; Kabapınar, 1998; Silier, 2003).

The findings revealed that considering their own teaching, practising and student teachers felt themselves knowledgeable, sufficiently trained and comfortable, although student teachers had some worries about the training they received on syllabus design and lesson planning. On the other hand, teacher educators did not consider the pedagogical training of student teachers sufficient. Although they indicated various pedagogical problems, these findings confirm that some participants, particularly practising and student teachers did not consider themselves as a part of the inadequate and deficient practice of history teaching. This contradictory result might have arisen from the participants' possible misconception of the research as an inspection process and the researcher as an inspector, which drove them to approach the issue under

investigation from a peculiar perspective. This is evident in their critical evaluation of the general structure of teacher education programmes and the quality of pedagogical courses, where student teachers put forward strong criticisms.

Comparing the views of different groups of the participants:

Comparing and contrasting the general views of the three groups of participants, it is seen that teacher educators presented the strongest opposition to the current curriculum and history teacher training, whilst practising teachers' opinions were rather moderate on the same issues. As highlighted earlier, this difference might have arisen from the status of practising teachers as civil servants in the Turkish context in which student teachers and teacher educators have relatively autonomous positions/statuses. On the other hand, the comparison of three universities employed in this study demonstrated that the participants, particularly teacher educators from Central University, had positive attitudes towards the current curriculum and history teacher education in their own institution, while the participants from West University disclosed the strongest criticism about the same issues. Various factors might have influenced this disparity. For example, the ideological/socio-political perspectives commonly shared amongst the members of each institution are different.

8.1.2. How do history educators view Turkey's position in Europe, its relationships with European countries and European-wide organisations, and the issue of Turkey joining the EU?

Three key findings emerged from the data analysed and presented in chapter six in relation to this subsidiary research question. Firstly, although they considered the geography of Turkey as a part of Europe, the participants of this study did not see it as a European country, mostly because of cultural differences. This can be interpreted as the impact of dominant political and educational ideologies on the participants' conceptions of Europe. As discussed in the introductory chapter, one of the pillars on which Turkish education was built in the early republican period [and which still has an impact on Turkish people's understanding of Turkey (us) and Europe (the others)] is the theory of national utopianism (Turkish Review, 1989). This theory encompasses the Turkish nation, Islamic religion (later replaced by secularism) and European civilisation (Dilek, 1999). However, it does not include European culture as an element of European civilisation, rather it considers European civilisation as the social, technological and economic development level in Europe (Gökalp, 1989), which has

been taken as a central objective for Turkish modernisation and development since the early twentieth century.

The above finding therefore, can be interpreted in a way that the impact of this theory makes the participants view Turkey as a European country, mostly because of economic and political reasons. However, regardless of the grounds [religious (Islamic) or secular in connection with Turkish nationalism] on which they establish their cultural identities, the majority of participants stressed the differences between Turkish and European cultures. Moreover, most teachers and teacher educators in this study thought that politically Turkey is a European country, whilst student teachers were not in agreement. This can be evaluated as an indication of the impact of formal education on people's perspectives of Europe, whose impact diminishes after the end of formal education with the inclusion of other factors.

Moreover, this finding indicates a clear-cut difference between European and Turkish identities. Based on this point, most of the participants construct their identities in opposition to Europe and the underpinnings of a projected European identity discussed in chapter two. The findings also imply that the participants view education in general and history teaching in particular as means to construct and reinforce a national identity and a conception of Turkish and universal (global) citizenship, whilst opposing the idea of developing a European identity and a European citizenship consciousness. In parallel with Rusen's (2000) perspective, they particularly reject the idea of a top-down project proposing to introduce uniform conceptions of European identity and European citizenship.

Secondly, the participants thought that the relationships between Turkey and European countries and European-wide organisations were not sufficient because of a number of factors. The majority of the participants believed that the difference in economic development levels is the most important cause for the weak relationships between Turkey and Europe. This information indicates that amongst the participants, the term 'Europe' is mostly used to refer to Western Europe or the members of the EU not the whole continent. In reality however, the direction of the economic differences between Turkey and individual European countries (western or eastern) do not show a linear axis.

Cultural and religious differences were considered as the second most important reason for the insufficient relationships between the two sides. According to the participants

these differences stem from history and affect both Turks and Europeans negatively when viewing each other. This probably arose from the general conception of history in Turkey, which views the past as an on-going conflict since the time of the crusades. In this conflict, Turks represent Asiatic culture, tradition and the Islamic religion, whilst Europeans stand for western values, liberalism and Christianity (Yurdusev, 1997). Looking at history from this perspective, the participants expectedly develop a historical perspective through which they feel the pride of the past as being the inheritors of the Ottoman Empire and Turkish history before the Ottomans. This historical perspective also encourages them to develop an uncritical and biased understanding of history through which they acquire stereotyped images/perspectives of the past. For example, the acquisition of various lands by Turks in the past have been called ‘conquests’ not an ‘occupation’, or according to the same view of history, Turks never exploited other people, cultures or religions under their control (Yurdusev, 1997; Aydın, 2001).

Therefore, holding this perspective of the past possibly drives the participants to accuse the European other about the weak state of relationships. Besides, it is possible to assert that a similar conception is held by many Europeans as it was raised by some of the interviewees. For example, there are various negative and discriminating statements made by Europeans in the past and today about Turks, such as the statement of the current chairman of the Convention on the Future of Europe, Giscard d’Estaing: *“Turks are different. They have a different culture, history and religion than ours. [for this reason] If they join the EU, the projects of the EU will be destroyed”* (COE, 2005: http://www.coe.int/T/e/Com/about_coe). This quotation indicates that, as many Turks do, some Europeans believe that there is a common European history shared by all Europeans except Turks (or sometimes Muslims), which does not reflect a realistic perspective of European history and the underpinning of European identity as discussed by Tonra and Dunne (1997) and Koulouri (2000).

Moreover, this view of European history undervalues the roots and connections of European history to Turkish geography and the role of the Turks in the development of modern Europe (Davutoğlu, 2001). Furthermore, the given perspective of Turks and Turkey from a European point of view demonstrates that many Europeans are not aware of the progress Turkey has achieved since the 1920s. The legal and social system of Turkey has shifted from the traditional-Islamic one by taking the western (mostly European) countries as a model. In addition, Turkey also adopted parliamentary

democracy as its political system more than a half century ago, but Turkish democracy has not been completed and secured yet.

The political states of Turkey and European countries came out as the third important reason for the weak relationships between the two sides. However, the findings indicate that some participants viewed this issue as a result of conflicting and pragmatic mutual foreign policies between Turkey and Europe. It reveals that the participants of this study perceive politics and political relations between Turkey and European countries as a matter of geopolitics. This perception probably stems from the common understanding of history and history teaching in Turkey, through which learners conceptualise the past as an on-going conflict between 'us' and 'the others' for the purposes of survival and sovereignty.

Apart from these three points, the findings demonstrated the lack of knowledge and understanding about the other side as the fourth reason for the weak relationship between Turkey and Europe. As discussed earlier, the common conception of history, consequently the view of the other in this thesis, in both Turkey and in various European countries can be evaluated as the main reason for this outcome. Besides, the limited space given to European history in the curriculum and the perspective from which European history is introduced could have an impact on obtaining this result.

However, despite the fact that they did not see Turkey as a European country and the relationships between Turkey and Europe as sufficient, the participants wanted to witness good relationships between Turkey and European countries and organisations in the future. According to the participants, education, particularly history teaching, can play a role in improving those relationships. That is to say that although the relationships between Turkey and Europe are generally observed from a Turkish perspective as a result of the factors discussed above, the participants identified the need for change and improvement.

The third key finding to discuss in this subsection is related to the participants' views on the issue of Turkey being a member of the EU. While some participants supported Turkey's membership of the EU, others opposed it. Supporting or opposing the idea of Turkey's membership of the EU, most participants did not believe that this will be realised in the near future. Participants who favoured Turkey's membership of the EU supported this idea mostly because of economic reasons. However, there was another group of participants not having any hope to see Turkey as a member of the EU. Their

group's support was based on the values institutionalised in the EU, such as democracy, human rights and civil liberties.

On the other hand, a third group, who opposed the EU, revealed suspicions and predetermined ideas about EU membership. According to this group, the EU and its membership would only bring danger and threat to Turkish independence, thus accordingly it is better to look for alternatives for Turkey's economic and political development. These three perspectives can be considered an accurate reflection of Turkish people's conflicting views of Europe, the EU and Turkey's potential membership of the EU. In practice however, all the matters mentioned above are regarded as the issues of Turkish international politics, which should be considered and dealt with by politicians or bureaucrats not by students, teachers or academics.

The investigation of the participants' overall views on the issues discussed in this subsection has shown that the participants' views on Turkey's position in Europe, its relationships with European countries and organisations and the issue of Turkey joining the EU varies according to occupational group and institution. To summarise these variations it can be stated that most of the participants from West and New universities and some teachers presented positive and encouraging attitudes towards the issues discussed in this sub-section. On the other hand, the majority of the participants from Central University and some practising teachers revealed negative and uncertain opinions about the same matters.

8.1.3. How do history educators perceive their own knowledge of Europe, European history and history teaching in European countries?

Seeking an answer to this subsidiary research question was considered important to establish the participants' views on Europe, the ED in education and the ED in history teaching. The findings presented in the relevant sections of chapter six demonstrated that the majority of the participants regarded themselves knowledgeable about Europe in general and European history in particular. It was also seen that Turkey's application to become a member of the EU motivated some participants to learn more about Europe and European history. Nevertheless, most of the participants' knowledge was generally based on news and articles from the mass media. This was reflected more clearly in their information/knowledge about history teaching in European countries and European projects and studies on history teaching. Only a small number of participants, namely teacher educators, considered themselves knowledgeable about these matters.

This finding indicates the limitation of education and training on Europe, European history and history teaching in Europe in the Turkish context. It was also stated by most of the participants that the place of Europe and European history in the Turkish curriculum was very limited and defective. It confirms the necessity for better education on Europe and European history in secondary and higher education levels in Turkey. Furthermore, history student teachers should be trained about the state and developments of history teaching in other countries in order to specialise in their own profession and develop critical attitudes about the current practice in Turkey and abroad, which will help school pupils and particularly student teachers to learn not only about the past of Europe but also its current state in terms of culture, society and institutions and the underlying concepts of today's Europe, such as democracy, liberal (capitalist) economy and human and civil rights. In this way consequently, they can understand today's Europe and world better; locate themselves in the contexts; and form their identities through their own decisions based on the information of local, national, European and world dynamics.

To answer the subsidiary research question presented as the heading of this sub-section, it can be stated that the participants of this study have limited information/knowledge about Europe, European history and history teaching outside Turkey. Although the quantitative data on this issue revealed the participants' optimistic responses about the issues covered here, the analysis of qualitative data indicated that their knowledge on the issues is limited.

8.1.4. What do history educators understand by the concept of 'European dimension' and what do they think about the potential inclusion of a European dimension in the secondary school history curriculum?

Participants' conceptions of the ED in education and the ED in history teaching and their views on the potential inclusion of the ED in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum form the main focus of this section. According to the findings the participants conceptualise the ED as a European way of life or the standards of life in Europe. As discussed in chapter two, the concept of the ED has been used to refer to various aspects of European-wide policies, practices, activities and relations. These aspects can be categorised as the pillars of the standard of life in Europe which verifies the conception of the ED that has emerged from this study.

The same understanding also shaped some participants' conception of the ED in education as the quality and standards of education in (western) European countries. The examination of the official documents of the EU (including the former EC) and the COE indicated that the concept of ED has mostly been used in connection with education and educational matters (COEC, 1988; European Commission, 1988; Maastricht Treaty, 1992; COE, 1997). For instance, one of the official documents of the EC (European Community) mentions the ED in education as a way of developing education in Europe to improve social and cultural integration (COEC, 1988). The comparison of the research findings and the policies and documents of the EU and the COE indicates that some participants of this study accept the objective of the ED in education as a reality, which can be taken as a model to develop Turkish education.

Another group of participants asserted that the ED in education is something related to education for European citizenship, multiculturalism, democracy, peace, tolerance and human rights. These are the issues mentioned in the official documents and the related publications (COEC, 1988; European Commission, 1993; Maastricht Treaty, 1992; COE, 1997; McGhie, 1993; Feneyrou, 1993; Ryba, 1995; Convery, 2002). As detailed in chapter two, the ED in education is a concept through which young generations are educated for the purposes of study, work and leisure in the wider community of Europe and the rest of the world (Convery, 2002). The ED's position in promoting European citizenship has also been emphasised by authors and official publications in order to improve learners' knowledge and awareness of Europe and the concepts shaping our understanding of today's Europe, such as multiculturalism, democracy, peace, tolerance, human rights and so on (Shennan, 1991).

On the other hand, a third but smaller group of participants defined the same concept as a Eurocentric approach to education. This conception of the ED reveals the suspicious, pessimistic and reactionary view of 'the other' in Turkish context (Akınoğlu, 2004). Participants holding this perspective look at the international issues from the point of national security. As discussed in chapter six for example, they conceptualise the ED in education as a policy endeavouring to persuade the learners that all the advancements in sciences and social sciences have been achieved by Europeans. Hence, their achievement has been for the sake of humanity, while non-Europeans have always been passive, unproductive or destructive. Although holders of this perspective criticise Europeans and the ED in education (as in their own conception), it is seen that their own perspective and critiques include prejudice and stereotyping about Europeans.

The above discussions reveal three conceptions of the ED in education by Turkish history educators. These three conceptions of the ED held by three groups of participants indicate that the first view was proposed by those participants whose information/knowledge of the ED and other related concepts is limited. However, they revealed positive attitudes about the ED in education. The second conception was shared amongst the participants who were more informed about the concept as well as other developments taking place in Europe in respect of education. It was also witnessed that the participants in this group were optimistic and supportive of the ED in education and its potential impact on the educational practice in European countries. In contrast, the participants in the last group were negative and backward-looking about the concept, which may be a result of their reclusive general world view.

Similar to the perceptions of the ED in education, three main conceptions of the ED in history teaching emerged from the available data. According to the first conception, the ED in history teaching means teaching more European history, which confirms that the place allocated to Europe and European history in the current secondary school history curriculum is limited. The second one considers the concept as a tool for improving the quality of history teaching in schools. As examined previously, the present curriculum and practice of history teaching in Turkish schools have many problems and deficiencies. The above findings on the ED in history teaching show that some participants considered the ED as a means of improving curriculum content and the state of history teaching. A similar perception of the ED in history teaching was revealed in the EUROCLIO's vision of history teaching in Europe (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004a).

On the other hand, the third conception defines the ED in history teaching as a neutral and objective approach to teaching history that considers respecting the others in history and avoiding bias, prejudice and stereotyping against them. It is understood that participants holding this view had information/knowledge about European works and projects on history teaching, which have been carried out since the 1950s, thus, they could make connections between the purposes of those European-wide projects and the ED in history teaching. The perception of the ED in history teaching as 'a neutral and objective approach' demonstrates the impact of positivist educational thought on their conception of history and history teaching. Moreover, the need or search for neutrality and objectivity in their conceptions implies that bias, prejudice and stereotyping or subjectivity might already have a place in the Turkish history curriculum. According to

Slater (1995) neutrality and objectivity in history and history teaching has long been an issue of dispute. He asserts that it is not easy to mention complete objectivity in history, because of the nature of historical evidence as he explains:

If we cannot talk about objective content, we can talk about objective procedures. Procedures are objective if they cannot be modified either by the idea being examined or the conclusions we hope to reach (Slater, 1995: 136).

Attempting to provide scientific objectivity in history teaching has not only been an issue in the Turkish context, it has also been on the agenda of the EUROCLIO (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004a). Hence, it can be argued that bias and subjectivity have been integrated components of history teaching in various educational contexts. However, the findings given above demonstrate that some participants held that it might be possible to develop a neutral and objective approach to history teaching.

The comparison of the participants' views of the ED in education, the ED in history teaching and the relevant literature analysed in chapter two indicates the limited understanding of the ED in history teaching in the Turkish context. For instance, the findings reveal that the participants' perceptions of the ED in education included or were linked to the concepts of democracy, peace tolerance, human and civil rights and European (democratic) citizenship, which were also discussed by the official documents and authors considering the ED in history teaching (COE, 1997; COE, 2001; Marchand and Van der Leeuw-Roord, 1993; Stradling, 2001; Stobart, 2003).

However, the findings on the ED in history teaching did not touch the majority of these concepts. The participants' perceptions of the ED in history teaching indicate that most of them were not informed about the wider scope of the concept introduced in the Rec. (2001) 15 of the COE (COE, 2001). For example, except the need for more European history, the findings did not specify any characteristic of the ED in history teaching, such as developing learners' interest and awareness of Europe, European historical consciousness or the continuing relationships between various historical contexts, dimensions and periods (COE, 2001).

Although their information/knowledge on the ED in history teaching was rather limited, the participants of this study disclosed encouraging attitudes about its potential inclusion in the Turkish history curriculum. As discussed earlier, the participants' positive views on change and development mostly arise from the current situations of the history curriculum and history teaching, which are poor in both quantity and quality. Thus, the participants considered the matter of inclusion of the ED in the

history curriculum as an opportunity to improve the history curriculum, history teaching and to develop pupils' knowledge of and attitudes to Europe and European history. The participants also regarded the same matter as an occasion to develop a positive image of Europe in the minds of Turkish youth. Table 8.1 below summarises the participants' views on the issues related to Europe and the ED in education and history teaching have been discussed in this section.

Table 8.1. The participants' views on the issues related to Europe and the ED in education and history teaching

	Teachers	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators		
		Central	West	New	Central	West	New
Turkey and Europe	• The Relationships between Turkey and Europe are not sufficient, because of the difference in development levels, culture, religion and political situations and the lack of knowledge and understanding about the other side. Should be improved in the future.						
Turkey's potential membership of the EU	Supportive, uncertain or not in favour of	Uncertain or not in favour of	Supportive and uncertain	Supportive and uncertain	Uncertain or not in favour of	Supportive and uncertain	Supportive and uncertain
Education and training on European issues	Limited, only a few teachers know about these issues	Limited, few are knowledgeable	Limited, few are knowledgeable	Limited	Most of them are knowledgeable	Some of them are knowledgeable	Some of them are knowledgeable
The ED in education	A Eurocentric approach to education		-	-	A Eurocentric approach	-	-
	• The quality and standards of education in (western) European countries; • Education for European citizenship, multiculturalism, democracy, peace, tolerance and human rights.						
The ED in history teaching	• Teaching more European history; • A tool and prospect for improving the quality of history teaching in schools; • A neutral and objective approach to teaching history that considers respecting the others in history and avoiding bias, prejudice and stereotyping against them.						

8.2. The Inclusion of the European Dimension in the Turkish History Curriculum

The second general aim of this study is to address the second main research question: *“According to history educators, in what ways does the Turkish curriculum need to be improved to bring about a better understanding of a European dimension?”* The data analysed and presented in chapter seven are to answer this wider question through discussing the participants’ views of several issues. They are the necessity of developing the history curriculum, the key elements of the ED in history curriculum and the potential impact of the inclusion of an ED in the Turkish history curriculum on the practice of history teaching and history teacher education.

Various deficiencies in the current curriculum discussed above brought the majority of the participants to hold the view that it should be developed urgently with or without the inclusion of the ED. However, many participants found the potential inclusion of the ED necessary and useful for the improvement of the history curriculum and history teaching. In addition, the findings indicated that most participants thought that the previous attempts to develop the curriculum and pedagogy had failed because of the ways in which they were introduced and the incapacities and insufficiencies of available material, physical and human resources to implement the changes. The participants therefore, drew the attention to the necessity of using relevant research for the improvement of the curriculum that considers the views of various stakeholders, such as teachers, pupils, parents, school administrators, educational researchers and so on.

8.2.1. What do history educators see as the key elements of the European dimension in the history curriculum?

The discussions in section 8.1 demonstrated that the secondary school history curriculum needs updating. It was also seen that the majority of the participants in this study had positive attitudes about a potential inclusion of the ED in the Turkish curriculum, which was viewed as an occasion to overcome the shortcomings and improve the curriculum and pedagogy. This sub-section discusses the participants’ suggestions for components of the history curriculum that would be changed/improved through the inclusion of the ED. Discussions here focus on two key components of the curriculum: aims and objectives of history teaching and main characteristics of the curriculum content.

8.2.1.1. The aims and objectives of history teaching

The findings analysed in chapter seven revealed that the participants did not all agree on the rationale for teaching history. Five different propositions for the aims and objectives of history teaching emerged from the findings.

Teaching history to develop national identity:

The first proposition envisaged that history should be taught to develop a national identity. This is the dominant perception of the purpose of history teaching that has shaped Turkish history education since the 1930s (Dinc, 2005). Facilitating history teaching as a means of developing a national identity has also been a common practice (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b) and an issue of debate in the European context (Ferro, 1984; Marwick, 1984; Lee, 1992; White, 1992; Tate, 2004; Phillips, 2004).

History teaching in Turkey has been influenced by a nationalistic approach that highlights the idea of developing a national identity (Behar, 1996; Millas, 1997; Copeaux, 1998, Ata, 2002b). The centralised characteristic of the TES and school curriculum has also facilitated this approach through introducing a nationalistic version of history to all school pupils (Özbaran, 1997b, 2003; Tekeli, 1998; Aydın, 2001). As a result, this finding can be interpreted as the impact of the overriding notion of history teaching in Turkey on some of the participants' perceptions, because all participants of this study were subjected to this influence at least as pupils.

Taking lessons from the past:

A second group of participants maintained that the aim of teaching history in schools is to take lessons from the past in order to orientate ourselves in today's world and to be able to predict what would happen in the future. Although this conception has some connections to the previous one, it attributes a broader notion to the teaching of history. While the previous proposition highlights a particular version or understanding of the past in order to orientate the self in today's world, this suggestion views history as the totality of the human past which should be known in order to understand what is happening today and to make accurate predictions for the future. It can be argued that participants holding this conception reduce the function of history teaching to storytelling to serve for some collective purposes. However, history teaching can encourage other attributes, such as helping learners to develop historical and critical thinking skills to become conscious individuals.

History for citizenship education:

According to the third proposition the purpose of history teaching is to serve as an efficient mode of citizenship education. Similar to the previous two perceptions, making use of school history in citizenship education is not an unfamiliar idea in the Turkish context (Dilek, 1999). The main motive for introducing history as a part of the school curriculum has been to contribute to educating better citizens in any given society or nation (Slater, 1995; Özbaran, 1997a; Tekeli, 1998; Dilek, 1999; Phillips, 2004). However, the participants of this study underlined the fact that the education for citizenship introduced through history teaching should encompass national characteristics with a global/universal dimension, not just a European feature. Citizenship education has been a part of the Turkish school curriculum, but attributing a democratic character to it, which emerged from the qualitative findings of study, is a relatively new idea in the Turkish context. There has been no attempt in recent Turkish history to discuss or introduce education for democracy, though the country's struggle to facilitate its participatory democracy has a long history.

History for humanism and tolerance:

The fourth proposition foresees developing a humanistic and tolerant approach that can be achieved through eliminating nationalistic and chauvinistic elements of the history curriculum as the purpose of history teaching. This is the opposite of the first proposition discussed above, because instead of developing a national identity through history teaching, it proposes to eliminate nationalistic and chauvinistic elements from the curriculum. In contrast to the approach of the current Turkish history curriculum which emphasises political, diplomatic and military matters, the supporters of this perspective defend the idea of teaching the human side of history.

History for developing critical-conscious individuals:

The fifth and last proposition holds that history should be taught to develop historical and critical thinking skills through stressing the methodology of history. This view can be evaluated in a different category from the other four views discussed, since in essence it has got a unique character. Whereas the other four propositions perceive school history as a means to change the learners' general world views and their attitudes to specific issues, this proposition intends to change the way the learners perceive and think of the world around them by helping them to acquire and develop certain skills, such as empathy and critical thinking (Lee, 1992; Slater, 1988; 1995). In this context,

the first four views can be seen as application of the ‘extrinsic purposes’ of history, whilst the last can be classified as the proposal for the fulfilment of the ‘intrinsic purposes’ of history teaching (Slater, 1995). From Lee’s perspective the former suggestions propose to change society through history teaching, whilst the latter aims to change what learners see in their surroundings and how they see it (Lee, 1992).

The participants of this study did not hold any of the above views, whilst rejecting others. They sympathised with more than one view. For example, developing a national identity and improving learners’ historical and critical thinking skills were both suggested by the same participant as the purposes of teaching history. It shows that some participants uphold these two contradictory propositions together at the same time. Chapter three revealed that the present curriculum embraces aims and objectives dominated by extrinsic purposes of history teaching but includes some intrinsic ones as well. One interview respondent commented thus:

... one of the objectives of the present curriculum is to develop pupils’ critical thinking skills, but the same program also aims to make pupils comprehend how noble the Turkish nation is. What happens, if a student reaches a conclusion that Turks are not noble by thinking critically? (TE3)

This interview extract clearly highlights the dilemma in the definition of the aims and objectives of history teaching in the Turkish context. Although there was an attempt to put the intrinsic purposes of history teaching into practice, it is not a straightforward process to abandon the extrinsic ones, particularly in a centralised and politicised educational context, such as the Turkish one. It is possible to assert that as an impact of the context on their views, some participants hold two completely different views about the purposes of history teaching.

8.2.1.2. Selection of the curriculum content

The participants’ suggestions concerning the key elements of the ED in the history curriculum referred to several aspects of the curriculum content, namely historical contexts, dimensions and periods of the content. According to the findings, the curriculum should include more social, economic and cultural dimensions of history selected from a balanced perspective of local, national, European and world history contexts. This suggestion arises from the state of the current curriculum that mainly introduces political history selected from the past of the Turkish nation as discussed earlier. The qualitative data also highlighted the view of Marchand and Van der Leeuw-Roord (1993) and Stradling (2001) that in order to grasp pupils’ attention and help them to make sense of the past, it is necessary to introduce various dimensions of history

together in a coherent and meaningful way. Besides, the participants suggested that the cause, consequence and implications of historical events should be evaluated in local, national, European and world history contexts and linked to one another, a suggestion which tallied with the COE's recommendations (COE, 2001; Stradling, 2001).

Historical periods are a further issue of the curriculum content. The participants suggested that the curriculum should represent different periods of history in a balanced and fair way. As the earlier discussions highlighted there is no such balance in the current curriculum, especially contemporary history, which has been omitted from the content. The need to include more contemporary history, particularly very recent times, was emphasised with the assertion that near history is crucial for school pupils to make sense of what is happening around them and to understand today's world. The findings here comply with Slater's (1995: 117) suggestion that history syllabuses in Europe should "*include substantial elements of contemporary issues studied in their historical context,*" which was also recommended by the COE (COE, 2001; Low-Beer, 2001).

Contrasting with the general view arising from the findings, some participants defended the idea of excluding a certain period of near history from the school curriculum. This is a perspective probably stemming from sensitive and controversial characteristics of contemporary historical issues (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). However, some authors argue that the current state of history teaching in many educational contexts, which is dominated by political history mainly introduced from a national perspective, makes people consider contemporary historical issues sensitive and controversial (Von Borries, 2001; Stradling, 2003; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2003). The presentation of more economic, social and cultural history in the curricula from a multiplicity of perspectives is suggested as a way to make contemporary history a natural and functional part of the curriculum (Von Borries, 2001; Stradling, 2003). This suggestion can also be accepted as a ground for changing this group of participants' views.

The place of sensitive and controversial historical issues in the current curriculum is the last theme amongst the participants' suggestions for the curriculum content. According to the finding it is necessary and important to include sensitive and controversial historical issues in the curriculum. The current curriculum does not include this sort of topic mostly for political reasons. The findings establish that school pupils learn about sensitive and controversial historical issues outside formal education, mostly through following the mass media. According to the participants, it would be better to introduce

them to sensitive and controversial issues within the school. Introducing these issues in the curriculum may not only help pupils become informed but also enable them to develop historical and critical thinking skills (Stradling, 2003). This can be achieved through using procedures, such as finding information from various resources, analysing, comparing and contrasting different sorts of information, discussing and reflecting on it to arrive at their own points of view about those issues.

Table 8.2. Problems of the curriculum and suggestions to overcome them

Problems encountered	Suggestions to overcome problems and to renew practice
<i>Centralised structure of the curriculum.</i>	<i>The current curriculum needs to be improved urgently in consideration with the inclusion of an ED. The improvement should be based on empirical research considering the views of teachers, pupils, parents, school administrators, educational researchers and so on. It must provide an appropriate ground for teacher and pupil autonomy.</i>
<i>The aims and objectives of history teaching are to guide pupils to acquire national awareness, national consciousness and a national identity. They are not realistic and practicable.</i>	<i>The place of the extrinsic purposes, such as teaching history to develop a national identity or humanistic and tolerant approaches, to take lessons from the past and to facilitate the citizenship education, is maintained. However, the necessity for the inclusion of the intrinsic aims and objectives of history teaching is strongly emphasised. They are seen crucial for educating the twenty-first century's critical and conscious individuals.</i>
<i>There is no balance amongst the political, social, economic and cultural dimensions of history in the curriculum and between the historical contexts from where the curriculum content is selected. Different historical dimensions are not related or connected to each other.</i>	<i>The curriculum should include more social, economic and cultural dimensions of history selected from a balanced perspective of local, national, European and world history contexts. Various dimensions of history must be introduced together in a coherent and meaningful way. The cause, consequence and implications of historical events should be evaluated in local, national, European and world history contexts and linked to one another.</i>
<i>Different periods of history are not presented in a fair and equal way. There is a lack of contemporary history.</i>	<i>The curriculum should represent different periods of history in a balanced and fair way. More contemporary history, especially very recent times must be included in the curriculum.</i>
<i>Emphasis on the transmission of content-knowledge not the acquisition of historical skills.</i>	<i>The curriculum should be stressed on developing pupils' historical and critical thinking skills, not the transmission of the content. Introducing sensitive and controversial historical issues from a multiplicity of perspectives can facilitate and encourage mutual and comparative understanding of history in a broader perspective</i>
<i>The same content repeatedly introduced in different levels of schooling.</i>	<i>The design of the secondary school history curriculum should consider the primary one and must not introduce the same topics previously presented to pupils. Employing a thematic approach can solve this problem and providing teachers and pupils an opportunity for selection of the content.</i>

European-wide studies and history teaching projects also put forward the necessity of including sensitive and controversial issues into the history curricula across the continent (Stability Pact: 2002: <http://www.stabilitypact.org/education/history-report2002.asp>; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). It is also stressed that introducing these

issues from multiple perspectives may encourage mutual and comparative understanding of history and could help learners to develop the skill of critical thinking and the values of tolerance, respect for diversity and so on (Stability Pact, 2002: <http://www.stabilitypact.org/education/history-report2002.asp>; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b; Von Borries, 2001; Stradling, 2003).

Table 8.2 summarises the main problems of the Turkish secondary school history curriculum and suggestions emerged from the views of the participants to improve the curriculum.

8.2.2. Would the inclusion of a European dimension alter the practice of history teaching in Turkish secondary schools?

The problems of history teaching in Turkish schools have been previously referred to on several occasions. The findings indicate that the participants of this study view a potential inclusion of the ED in the history curriculum as an opportunity to overcome the incapacities and insufficiencies of history teaching. The views of the participants suggested that change in the practice of history teaching is necessary, inevitable and vitally important because of the problems that have been encountered by researchers working in the field (Kabapınar, 1998; Özbaran, 1998; Tekeli, 1998; Demircioğlu, 1999; Dilek, 1999; Kaya *et al*, 2001; Silier, 2003). It is observed that the need for change and improvement of history teaching surpasses participants' individual or group views of Europe and the ED. Regardless of their views, all participants supported the idea of change, and hence, they considered a potential inclusion of the ED as a means of serving the improvement of history teaching in Turkish schools.

Moreover, according to the participants the main problems of pedagogy are the common conception of history teaching as the transmission of predetermined knowledge and the lack of alternative teaching methods and strategies. The review of the relevant literature indicates that these problems are not specific to the Turkish context (Sylvester, 1994; COE, 1994; Slater, 1995; Low-Beer, 1997; Phillips, 2002; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). Putting the methodology of history into use emerged a long time ago as a way to overcome these problems in England (Shemilt, 1983; Lee, 1994; Husbands, 1996; Low-Beer, 1997; Counsell, 2002). This was also recommended by some interviewees for the Turkish context. Lee (1994) explains that the reflection on the methodology of history on history teaching adds to the essence of school history not only to grasp the

given knowledge but also to give the learner ways in which one can access and acquire it.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that there is a need for appropriate empirical research to clearly identify and theorise the pedagogical problems; and to develop suitable teaching methods, strategies and resources. This finding is not apparent in the relevant literature. It is clear that studies in the Turkish context have been focused on diagnosing the problems of history teaching mainly on the basis of textbook analysis (Tunçay, 1977; Üçyiğit, 1977; Kabapınar, 1992, 1998; İnal, 1996; Özbaran, 1998; Aydin, 2001; Kaya *et al*, 2001; Silier, 2003). Most of those studies list a set of recommendations for policy makers and textbook authors without presenting any practical solutions that can be utilised in classroom teaching. The centralised structure of TES and the school curriculum might have an impact on this picture. As discussed earlier, the current system does not allow teachers to employ any teaching method, strategy or resource in the classroom without the permission of relevant authorities. Therefore, despite the consciousness of the value of empirical research for change and improvement in pedagogy, some authors in the field (and some participants) consider this a duty of the central authority, not a task for researchers and practitioners (Üçyiğit, 1977; Kabapınar, 1992,; Özbaran, 1998; Aydin, 2001; Kaya *et al*, 2001).

Table 8.3. Problems of the practice of history teaching and suggestions to overcome them and to renew practice

Problems encountered	Suggestions to overcome problems and to renew practice
<i>The traditional methods of teaching based on dictation, memorisation and rote learning, lack of teaching materials, resources and other physical capacities, incompetent and unenthusiastic teachers and centralised university entrance exams</i>	<i>Putting the methodology of history (the inquiry method) into use with its richness and diversity is a way to overcome methodological problems. There is a need for appropriate empirical research to clearly identify and theorise the pedagogical problems; and to develop suitable teaching methods, strategies and resources. The other problems are in secondary importance which can be solved within the process.</i>

It can be stated that Husbands *et al*'s (2003) classification of research on history teaching does not apply to the Turkish context. Although it has generally been carried out on the basis of textbooks, research on the purpose of history teaching is the only category to have been practised in Turkey (Tunçay, 1977; Kabapınar, 1992, 1998; İnal, 1996; Behar, 1996; Özbaran, 1998, 2003; Aydin, 2001). However, except for a few academic studies (such as: Dilek, 1999; Candan, 1998; Ata, 2002b; Aktekin, 2004) there is no empirical research on children's understanding of history or the pedagogy of history in primary and secondary levels. Table 8.3 above sums up the problems of

history teaching in Turkish schools and the participants' suggestions for solve these problems and renew the practice.

8.2.3. What changes would be necessary in the teacher education system in order to educate history student teachers effectively to teach the European dimension as a part of the history curriculum?

The findings indicate that although they had positive impressions about the recent changes in the Turkish teacher education programmes, most of the participants believed that history teacher education in Turkish higher education institutions required improvement. Firstly, they thought that teacher education programmes should be appropriate to the school curriculum. Hence, potential changes in the history curriculum must be reflected in the programmes of the relevant teacher training institutions in order to educate student teachers better to enable them carry out the alterations in the curriculum efficiently. Nevertheless, some participants, mostly student teachers, did not think that this is happening in the current system, even after the recent changes. According to the findings the separation between subject knowledge education and pedagogical training is the most important problem that needs addressing.

Secondly, most of the participants complained about the quality of pedagogical education and teaching practice. This is an issue that has been experienced in various educational contexts in Europe. Ecker (2003b) and Van der Leeuw-Roord (2004b) report that these problems are still being observed in several European countries. However, following educational improvements, which were carried out in the Western world, some participants argued that in order to introduce the ED in history teaching efficiently, student teachers should be educated to consider historical issues from multiple perspectives. The involvement of the relevant educational authorities and NGOs in European-wide studies and projects on history teaching and student exchange programmes were seen as chances to improve the quality of pedagogical education and teaching practice. This involvement was also considered useful for student and practising teachers and teacher educators to interact with their counterparts in other countries to learn more about the matters related to the ED in history teaching, such as European history, history teaching in European countries and the use of ICT in history classrooms.

Thirdly, the lack of qualified history teacher educators to implement the potential changes and to improve the quality of teacher education has emerged from the findings

of this study as well as from the relevant literature (Demircioğlu, 1999; Ecker and de Bivar Black, 2003). Hence, the participants pointed out the necessity of educating history educators. The in-service training of practising history teachers is the last issue related to the participants' suggestions concerning history teacher education. According to the findings, current in-service teacher education in Turkey does not function at all, thus it should be reconsidered and restructured. Table 8.4 displays the main problems of the education of history teachers in the Turkish universities and suggestions emerging from this study to overcome them.

Table 8.4. Problems of history teacher education and suggestions to overcome them

Problems encountered	Suggestions to overcome problems and to renew practice
<i>There is a gap between teacher education programmes and the school curriculum. There is no harmony between subject knowledge education and pedagogical training. The quality of pedagogical education and teaching practice is poor. There is a lack of qualified history teacher educators.</i>	<i>Potential changes in the history curriculum must be reflected in the programmes of the relevant teacher training institutions. Subject knowledge education and pedagogical training should be combined and harmonised. The quality of pedagogical education and teaching practice must be improved. Participating in the European-wide studies and projects on history teaching and student exchange programmes may provide opportunities for improving the quality of teacher education. Educating teacher educators is a precondition for improving teacher education.</i>

8.3 Implications

In this section, I will discuss the implications of the research for educational policy and practice. Starting from the discussion of the significance of the findings for the Turkish context, this section examines the implications for the understanding of history, history teaching and the ED in history teaching, the implications for curriculum improvement, pedagogy and history teacher education.

8.3.1. Significance of the findings for the Turkish context

A main outcome of this study is the empirical evidence in response to the potential inclusion of the ED in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum provided by Turkish history educators. Throughout this thesis, an argument has been developed, which highlights the need for change and improvement of the secondary school history curriculum and the practice of history teaching in Turkey. The findings demonstrated that a potential inclusion of the ED in the history curriculum was considered as a crucial opportunity to transform history teaching, despite the fact that the inclusion did not receive strong support from the participants. This transformation envisages a change

from loading pupils with historical content knowledge to developing them as good, motivated learners, who can transfer their learning into real life situations.

However, the previous attempts at change in the Turkish context made the participants concerned about the potential inclusion of the ED in the history curriculum. It is pointed out by some participants as well as the previous studies (Ata, 2002b; Aktekin, 2004) that educational changes are implemented without any prior preparation or research in Turkey through the decision-making process of the central educational authority: the MONE. Hence, the changes have not had the necessary or expected impact on educational situations. As Fullan (1991) observes, educational change involves learning new ideas, new things and the practising them in their actual contexts. In consequence, the involvement of various stakeholders, such as teachers, pupils, parents, educational research and researchers, and policy makers in the process of change is seen as necessary and crucial for its success (Fullan, 1991). Eliciting the views of practising and student teachers and teacher educators on the present curriculum, this study has the potential to contribute to the process of change and improvement in the Turkish secondary school history curriculum by showing its problems and inadequacies and new ways to solve these problems.

Presenting Europe, European history, history teaching in European countries and the ED in history teaching as the current issues to discuss in the Turkish history curriculum, this study may also be considered as a way forward to change the focus of studies on history teaching. As discussed earlier, research on history teaching in Turkey has been concentrated on the critique and evaluation of history textbooks, particularly emphasising the placement of the aims and objectives of history teaching and presentation of the content knowledge. However, this study puts forward the hypothesis that in order to make an impact on policy and practice, history teaching studies should empirically investigate the real situations of policy making processes, curricular issues and classroom teaching from wider perspectives. Developments in history teaching experienced in other countries, specifically in Europe, are suggested as models not only for processes of improving the curriculum and history teaching, but also for transforming the concept of change and the role of educational research, which have long been established in the Turkish context.

Another important outcome of this study is the demonstration of history educators' views on the purpose of history teaching, which is gradually changing from the

traditional perspective of enabling pupils to develop a national identity to helping them to build up historical and critical thinking skills in order to become conscious individuals. Despite the fact that the current curriculum introduces developing historical and critical thinking skills as a purpose of history teaching along with the traditional aims and objectives, so far it has not been possible to put the intrinsic purposes into practice under the centralised structure of the TES and the school curriculum. Grounded in the views of teaching professionals, this research identifies the need of the Turkish history curriculum to move from the traditional or conventional aims and objectives of history teaching to a set of aims which is to develop pupils' historical and critical thinking skills.

Demonstrating the participants' pessimistic and reluctant attitudes to Europe and Europe related issues, the findings indicated that in order to help school pupils to understand these issues better, it is necessary to introduce more European history into the curriculum, selected from various historical contexts, dimensions and periods. Particularly, the presentation of more contemporary history, including sensitive and controversial historical issues, emerged as an urgent necessity for school pupils to make sense of Europe-related issues as well as understanding today's world better.

This study shows that more appropriate empirical research in the Turkish context is required to clearly identify and theorise the pedagogical problems; and to develop suitable teaching methods, strategies, resources and materials. It has also been underlined that transforming the teacher education programmes in accordance with the potential changes in the curriculum and pedagogy is necessary and crucial.

8.3.2. Implications for the understanding of history, history teaching and the ED in history teaching

As seen in the analysis chapters and in the discussion of the findings introduced above, many participants perceived the discipline of history as a field to create a suitable and agreeable past to build up a sense of nation and national identity under the presumed criteria of Turkey's political and ideological dynamics (Behar, 1996). History teaching was also viewed as a means to materialise the above socio-political notions (İnal, 1996; Aydın, 2001); particularly in guiding pupils to develop a national identity. Raising school pupils as the citizens of the ideal society within this context is another idea ascribed to history teaching in Turkey, where history curriculum is imagined as an

apparatus that provides all the necessary information/knowledge and presents it in a scientific and objective way.

Both the review of the relevant literature and the findings demonstrate that traditional positivist understanding of history and history teaching remains influential in Turkey. However, there have been several changes on the political-ideological emphasis attributed to history and history teaching in Turkey since the 1930s (Dinç, 2005). In this understanding, historical information/knowledge is generally perceived as objective, scientific and absolutely true (Black and MacRaild, 2000). Hence, its teaching is considered as equipping pupils with the necessary information/knowledge which they are supposed to know as educated members of society. New approaches to history and history teaching which have emerged in the western world during the last century were only expressed by a few participants as their perception of the above concepts. In my belief, various approaches to and perspectives of history and study of history, such as the Annales School, Marxist history, cultural history, traditional history, local history, comparative history and so on should be taken into account while considering the nature of history and history as a discipline (Tosh, 2000; Black and MacRaild, 2000). Concerning history teaching ‘the new history approach’ developed in the UK since early 1970 can be considered as an example and a model for improving the pedagogical aspects of history in schools (Shemilt, 1980; Husbands, 1996; Phillips, 2002; Husbands et al, 2003).

A second conclusion observed the participants’ holding differing views on European issues. The analysis showed that two particular perspectives arise from the participants’ general world views, which were partly shaped by the formal education, including history teaching in schools. In other words, it can be argued that the general understanding of history and history teaching in Turkey not only determines Turkish people’s perceptions of the past and the way through which these perceptions are transmitted to the new generations but also have an impact on their view of Europe as ‘the other side’, Europeans as ‘the others’ and some related issues. Some of the participants, whose world views were shaped by the general understanding of history and history teaching, viewed the ED in education as a Eurocentric approach to education and the ED in history teaching as introducing more European history.

However, the findings revealed that there are other participants who had optimistic and unbiased attitudes towards Europe and European matters. For example, the participants

in this second group did not view history as a conflict between Turks and Europeans and they considered Turkey's integration into Europe as a milestone for the country's ongoing modernisation and development process. Research participants in this second group also held relatively positive conceptions of the ED in education and the ED in history teaching, which are originally the products of European-wide collaborative work. They linked the ED in education to European citizenship, multiculturalism, democracy, peace, tolerance, human and civil rights whilst taking the ED in history teaching as an approach that considers respecting the others in history and avoiding bias, prejudice and stereotyping against them.

Unfortunately, I feel obliged to state here that the views discussed first are the ones actually representing popular perspectives and attitudes to Europe and Europe related matters in the Turkish context. Consequently, it seems necessary to spread out positive and unbiased perspectives about the others through changing and challenging the content and view of Europe, Europeans and European history in the curriculum. In my opinion however, the essential requirement is to equip pupils with the necessary skills and capacities to look at the past critically and to help them build up their own perspectives about 'the others' without being influenced by bias, prejudice or stereotyping coming from any particular understanding of history or any particular world view. Therefore, history and history teaching in schools need to be focused on introducing Europe and European history in their authentic historical, physical, social and cultural contexts as a part of the curriculum to represent the Europeans or 'the others' not the image of 'European others' stemming from the existing traditional perspectives.

8.3.3. Implications for curriculum improvement

According to the findings of this study, the secondary school history curriculum is inadequate. It focuses on the transmission of given historical information/knowledge from a predetermined perspective. There is no place allocated for developing pupils' historical skills and cognitive abilities of problem solving, decision making or thinking critically, which should constitute an important part of history teaching (Husbands, 1996; Dilek, 1999; Lee, 1994; Phillips, 2002; Husbands *et al*, 2003). The requisite and importance of historical and critical skills have long been debated but accepted and emphasised in the national curriculum of England and Wales (Phillips, 1998; DfEE and QCA, 1999) which can be considered as a model for improving the Turkish curriculum.

However, it should be raised that this study suggests the UK model as a guide, not as an exact copying of what have been achieved in the UK context.

In relation to the same issue, the aims and objectives of Turkish education in general and history teaching in particular should be reconsidered. The place of extrinsic purposes needs to be restricted while the intrinsic ones should be included and put into practice in a more concrete manner. As pointed out by some authors, changes on the level of intention and purpose are indispensable, and they are the preconditions for innovation in the application level (Slater, 1995; Husbands *et al*, 2003; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b). Besides, intrinsic aims and objectives of history teaching are the ones whose implementation can make learning stipulating, resourceful and practical for learners and help them to develop historical and critical thinking skills (Slater, 1995, Husbands *et al*, 2003).

The content of the present history curriculum constitutes another problematic area. There is too much content and too many details, which are repeatedly introduced at different levels of schooling. Moreover, various topics or different dimensions of the same topic in the curriculum are not connected to one another. For instance, study units were formed on the century basis; national history and non-national history of the same epoch are presented in separate study units; or political and socio-cultural dimensions of a certain period or context of history introduced in different places. In order to overcome these problems, the general characteristics of the TES and the curriculum should be considered first. Giving teachers the authority of syllabus design and content selection appears to be an alternative way to change the current system and solve the problems arising from it. Under the current circumstances however, it does not seem possible and feasible to expect any change in the centralised characteristics of the TES and the school curriculum. Thus, seeking solutions within the current system seems to be a realistic way to improve the Turkish curriculum.

Firstly, in the current curriculum, history topics are introduced to pupils within the context of different courses at different levels of schooling. Most of the content is reintroduced in each level in order to reinforce pupils' learning and make those pupils, who leave formal education after the compulsory phase of schooling, learn about certain topics (Kabapinar, 1998; Dilek, 1999). The findings of this study indicate that history in the Turkish school curriculum should be taken as a whole. Considering pupils' age and abilities in each stage, the curriculum content should be divided amongst different

stages of schooling, if the selection of the content by the central authority is necessary and inevitable as happens in the National Curriculum of England and Wales (DfEE & QCA, 1999).

Secondly, the curriculum content can be selected through a holistic approach making connections between various perspectives, contexts, dimensions and periods of history. For example, the present curriculum introduces the First World War only from the Turkish point of view as a part of national history. It only refers to those particular political, military and diplomatic events that Turks were involved in or took part in without making adequate connections with previous or later periods of history. In my belief however, the curriculum should relate this to a wider context and introduce it from multiple viewpoints, such as Turkish, British and Russian views of the war. The study unit should also include all contexts and dimensions of the history of the First World War. Its causes and consequences should adequately be introduced to give pupils a wider temporal perspective about the era of the war.

The lack of contemporary history forms another problem of the curriculum content. This is asserted by some authors (Arslan, 1998a; Kabapinar, 1998; Aktekin, 2004, Culpin, 2005) as well as some of the interviewees that ideological anxieties stemming from governmental politics constitute the main reason for excluding a certain period of near history from the curriculum. However, it has been argued that contemporary history plays an important role in motivating pupils and helps them make sense of it through establishing relationships between near history topics and their own lives and environments (Arslan, 1998a; Husbands *et al*, 2003; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b; Culpin, 2005). The study of recent history in the Turkish context can yield a further outcome; it may facilitate the use of historical methodology in the classroom by allowing pupils to use written historical evidence they can read, understand and interpret by themselves, because Arabic script is the format of the written resources of Turkish history before the 1930s, which cannot be read by Turkish school pupils nowadays.

The necessity for including sensitive and controversial historical issues emerged as further issues related to curriculum content. Similar to contemporary history, sensitive and controversial issues are excluded from the curriculum for socio-political reasons. The general approach to education and history teaching that envisages the teaching of historical topics from a certain predetermined perspective also has an impact on their

exclusion. Introducing sensitive and controversial historical issues in the curriculum from multiple perspectives would facilitate pupils learning' and understanding of these topics (Von Borries, 2001; Stability Pact: 2002 <http://www.stabilitypact.org/education/history-report2002.asp>; Stradling, 2003; Van der Leeuw-Roord, 2004b).

The place allocated to Europe, European history and other related matters also emerged as an issue from the findings. As discussed earlier, the inclusion of more European history from various perspectives is required in order to make it possible for pupils to learn and better understand Europe's past; and to comprehend the ED in education, the ED in history teaching and other contemporary European and world issues surrounding themselves. Besides, as in most other topics there is no provision made in the current curriculum to relate European history to pupils' lives, which causes a lack of motivation amongst pupils towards the study of such topics. Despite the fact that this problem arises from the pedagogy as well as the curriculum, content is an important educational component for pupils' cognitive and academic development (Leat, 2000 cited in Öztürk, 2005).

The implications discussed here focus on two particular characteristics of the curriculum. They provide the purposes of learning history and the selection of the curriculum content. The analysis of the findings and their comparison to the same features of the history curricula implemented in the UK context previously and currently and the model of a history curriculum suggested through the European-wide studies show some peculiar characteristics. As shown in Table 8.5, the current Turkish history curriculum shares similar features with the history curriculum model of the 'great tradition' in the UK. On the other hand, the findings of this study propose an approach to the history curriculum, which possesses similar features to the 'new history' approach in the UK and the model of the history curriculum which can be defined as the European perspective or the ED in history teaching emerged from the literature reviewed in chapter two.

Table 8.5. Approaches to learning history and selection of the content in four traditions of history teaching [the first two rows of the table are taken from Husbands *et al* (2003: 12) while the rest is the outcome of this study]

	Purposes of learning history	Content
The 'great tradition' in the UK (England & Wales)	• Defined through the content of the subject. • Focuses substantially on the cultural capital of the historical content. • School history is to develop and strengthen national identity and citizenship.	• Focuses on the understanding of the present through engagement with the past. • Characterised by a concern with national history. • Characterised by inclusive and chronological curriculum content. • Recent history is excluded for political reasons [e.g. the history of the last 50 or 20 years].
The 'New history' in the UK	• Defined through the contribution of the subject to wider general education. • Focuses substantially on the preparation for working life and the acquisition of skills.	• Stresses the importance of learning about a variety of historical situations and contexts. • Characterised by a variety of content reflecting world history and the experiences of a variety of groups. • Characterised by selective and thematic curriculum content.
History teaching in Turkey	• Defined through both the content of the subject and its contribution to wider general education. • The principles of Turkish national education are reemphasised within the context of history teaching. • The preparation for working life and the acquisition of skills are mentioned. In practice however, it focuses on the transmission of cultural capital of the selected historical content. • School history is to develop and strengthen national identity and citizenship.	• Focuses on the engagement with the past in order to understand the present. • Characterised by a concern with national history. No place for local, regional, European and world histories. • Nationalistic/ethnocentric approaches dominate the curriculum content. • Characterised by prescribed, inclusive and chronological curriculum content. • The main emphasis is on the acquisition of extensive and detailed historical knowledge. • Political history is the dominant element. • Recent history is excluded for political reasons. • Most of the content is introduced repeatedly in different schooling levels to reinforce learning.
History teaching from a European perspective (The ED)	• Defined through both the content of the subject and its contribution to wider general education. • Focuses substantially on the preparation for working life and the acquisition of skills. • School history is to arouse the awareness of Europe and to develop European identity and European citizenship.	• Stresses the importance of learning about a variety of historical situations, contexts and dimensions. • Characterised by a variety of content reflecting local, national, European and world history and the experiences of a variety of groups. • Characterised by selective and thematic curriculum content. • Contemporary history is given importance to understand today's Europe better. • Purifying the content of history from bias and prejudice is given priority. • Introducing historical content from a multiplicity of perspectives

8.3.4. Implications for pedagogy

It is seen that a teacher and textbook centred pedagogy is being implemented in the Turkish context. This means that history teachers mostly rely on textbooks not only as a resource but also as the curriculum and teaching guide. Reading or summarising the

factual information written in the textbooks by teachers or pupils through following textbooks page by page and questioning pupils about the given information/knowledge are the most common pedagogical activities in history classes. There is no room for alternative teaching strategies and activities, such as discussion, role-play, empathy or other kinds of resources or different ways of using textbooks. Therefore, history lessons do not attract pupils' interest, unless they have other motives orienting them towards the study of history, such as history's place and importance in the university entrance examinations or their personal interest and curiosity about specific history topics.

This study suggests the inclusion of the ED in history teaching from the perspective of critical pedagogy (Phillips, 2002) is an opportunity and vehicle to overcome the pedagogical problems and improve the state of history teaching in Turkish schools. In order to achieve this goal, it is necessary to change the status and role of the teachers and learners in teaching and learning situations. Hence, the emphasis given to a teacher's active role should be transferred to the learners building up their own perceptions, knowledge and understanding in a learning environment, where pupils actively interact with each other under the supervision of their teacher (Schostak, 2002). Through this interaction, pupils can learn how to question and explore their own ideas, values and attitudes about the issue under scrutiny as well as gaining insight into those of others (Schostak, 2002). Teachers should be given the freedom to select and decide on the course content, and the role of managing, guiding and facilitating pupils' learning activities.

The successful implementation in UK classrooms (Husbands *et al*, 2003; Counsell, 2003) proves that the methodology of history (or the inquiry method) can set a model for improving the pedagogy of history in the Turkish context. Table 8.6 below demonstrates the change of pedagogy in the UK context, the existing features of history teaching in Turkey and the pedagogical approach projected by the ED in history teaching. However, the application of this approach requires a lot of preparatory work in Turkey, particularly because of the distinct characteristics of written historical resources. This potential problem can be overcome by changing the main characteristic of textbook from a fact-book to a collection of written and visual resource-book. The use of more written, audiovisual resources and artefact materials is required to facilitate the inquiry method and pupils' understanding of the past.

Table 8.6. Pedagogical approaches in four traditions of history teaching [the first two columns of the table are taken from Husbands *et al* (2003: 12) while the rest is the outcome of this study]

The 'great tradition' in the UK (England & Wales)	The alternative tradition: 'New history' in the UK	History teaching in Turkey	History teaching from a European perspective (The ED)
• Emphasises the didactically active role of teacher. • Assumes a high level of teacher subject knowledge. • Learner's role is largely passive. • Written texts (mostly textbooks) are the main resource for history teaching. • Teachers have a freedom to decide on the curriculum content and pedagogical issues.	• Emphasises constructivist role of learner engagement with the past. • Places a premium on teacher's ability to manage students' learning activities. • Considers the use of historical methodology (enquiry) as a pedagogical device. • Presumes the use of variety of written and audio-visual materials and artefacts as resources for history teaching. • Teachers have a freedom to select themes and topics from the broader curriculum framework and decide on pedagogical issues.	• Emphasises the didactically active role of teacher. • Assumes a high level of teacher subject knowledge. • Learner's role is largely passive. • Textbooks are the only and main resource for history teaching. • No place for teacher choice and specialism.	• Emphasises constructivist role of learner engagement with the past. • Places a premium on teacher's ability to manage students' learning activities. • Considers the use of historical methodology (enquiry) as a pedagogical device. • Presumes the use of variety of written and audio-visual materials and artefacts as resources for history teaching. • Assumes teacher freedom to decide on the curriculum content and pedagogical issues.

8.3.5. Implications for teacher education

This study has indicated that the constant changes in the Turkish initial teacher education system have not satisfactorily resolved the problems or improved the state of history teacher education yet. Consequently there is a need for further improvement in teacher education programmes which should be consistent with the potential changes in the school curriculum and pedagogy. As Smyth (1995) points out, teachers play the most important role in carrying out educational changes and innovations. Thus, the successful implementation of change in policy and practice level (the change of the curriculum and pedagogy in the context of this study) heavily depends on teachers' preparedness, readiness and willingness for operating these changes.

The improvement of history teacher education appears as a precondition for facilitating changes in policy and practice level. Combining subject knowledge and pedagogical training and increasing their quality is the main suggestion which emerges from this study, especially, the necessity of developing student teachers' knowledge and skills in using various kinds of teaching methods, techniques, materials and technologies, including the use of ICT. Attention should also be paid to student teachers carrying out their teaching practice in actual classroom environments; because most participants

argued that teacher education programmes are not relevant to the situations, teachers face in schools (Demircioğlu, 1999; Çakıroğlu and Çakıroğlu, 2003). Therefore, the time allocated for teaching practice in the current system should be increased to improve student teachers' observation and teaching skills, which requires better co-operation between secondary schools and teacher education institutions.

The potential inclusion of the ED in the secondary school history curriculum and history teaching also entails better training of history student teachers on European issues. Hence, the initial teacher education programmes should include more European history, particularly its contemporary aspects, and introduce them from several different perspectives in order to help student teachers to develop open and objective approaches to those topics and their teaching in the classroom. It is seen that practising teachers also have problems with the conception of the ED and its nature. The successful implementation of the ED in the Turkish history curriculum requires an in-service training for practising history teachers to develop their knowledge and understanding of the related issues as well as gaining some basic teaching skills and a range of new teaching methods. Fullan (1991: 84) states that "*the essence of educational change consists in learning new ways of thinking and doing, new skills, knowledge, attitudes, etc.*" That is to say that it is essential and crucial to change the perceptions, skills and practice of teachers for a successful implementation of the curriculum change suggested through this study.

Turkish teacher education institutions' and other relevant bodies' involvement in European-wide collaborative projects on history teaching and student exchange programmes has emerged as a requirement for curriculum change with the inclusion of the ED. This would be useful for student and practising history teachers and teacher educators to learn more about the ED in history teaching and other developments in their field. The last point which emerges from this study on teacher education is the continuing need for more qualified history teacher educators, which was pointed out by Demircioğlu (1999).

8.3.6. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

Although this study has presented several outcomes, it holds a number of limitations. Firstly, the data collection instruments, particularly the questionnaires, could not be piloted in the same way as the actual data collection with the minimum required sample size as a result of travelling long distances and time and financial restraints. Therefore,

some problems were experienced in the analysis process. This has in turn, affected the presentation of the findings and outcomes of the research. For example, the lack of coherence between individual questionnaire items did not allow the use of factor analysis, which might have offered a better and simpler way to present the quantitative data. It also impeded the examination of interrelationships between individual questionnaire items. Moreover, the time constraints and the difficulties to access participants restricted the sample size, especially in relation to practising teachers. In a further research project, the issues of piloting, access and time allocated to field research should be carefully considered.

Secondly, it has been observed that some participants might not have had a clear idea about some of the issues being investigated through this study. During the course of interviews, they were provided with some information about the concepts, such as the ED in history teaching, in order to help them make connections between their previous knowledge and the research problems. This might have had an impact on their responses. This problem could have been overcome by providing initial stimulus materials representing various perspectives about such matters before carrying out the interviews.

Thirdly, this study only explores Turkish student and practising history teachers and teacher educators' views on a potential inclusion of the ED in the secondary school history curriculum and the possible changes which would be necessary in the structure and content of the same curriculum. However, the research problem does not only concern the above three participating groups but also interests other groups, such as policy makers, pupils and parents. Thus, further research investigating the views of the above groups, particularly pupils' perspectives, on the same issues would be beneficial for the improvement of the curriculum and pedagogy.

Fourthly, a case study which would investigate the integration of an approach to the history curriculum suggested through this study and its implementation in real classroom situations could be carried out as a future research study. The implementation of this study with enthusiastic teachers would be beneficial to see how its outcomes can be put into practice in the current Turkish social and educational context. It may also provide evidence for further improvement in the history curriculum and its practice.

8.4. Reflections on the Study and Some Concluding Remarks

This last section draws upon my reflections on the study and some concluding remarks. As a Turkish government sponsored student, I will become a history teacher educator in a newly established university after my graduation. Before starting my postgraduate studies in the UK, I gained a degree in history, which gave me the information/knowledge of history and a familiarity with the methodology of the discipline. However, I did not have any experience or insight into teacher education as a discipline and teaching as a profession. Although I was given a teaching certificate (equal to PGCE in the UK) after receiving pedagogical courses along with the history ones during my undergraduate years, I did not have any idea about how to teach history in real classroom situations, because almost all of the pedagogical courses I took were on a theoretical level and teaching practice was limited to a couple of hours of lessons. For the above reasons, I decided to direct the focus of my postgraduate studies on my potential career, history teaching and history teacher education. My MA study and the initial reviews of the relevant Turkish literature provided me with the basis that previous studies on history teaching in Turkey mainly focused on the analysis and critique of textbooks. Only few exceptions, which were mostly carried out abroad, (Kabapinar, 1998; Demircioğlu, 1999; Dilek, 1999, Aktekin, 2004) are devoted to other aspects of history teaching through empirical research. Hence, I decided to focus on one of the problematic areas of history teaching in Turkey, the curriculum. I designed my study to explore the views of student teachers, practising teachers and teacher educators in order to learn about their opinions and experiences concerning the curriculum and the practice of history teaching from their own perspective. As a prospective teacher educator, I aimed to learn about the realities of history teaching in the context where I am going to work. Furthermore, I endeavoured to provide other researchers, policy makers and practitioners with a research basis to be used in the processes of policy making and curriculum innovation for the purpose of better history teaching.

The second concern of this study has been to investigate participants' views and attitudes towards, Europe, European issues and a potential inclusion of the ED in the Turkish history curriculum. It was thought necessary to study formal education, particularly history teaching, in relation to the possible impact on the development of new generations' perceptions of and attitudes to Europe and other contemporary issues related to the period in which Turkey endeavours to join the EU and take a place in the

western world. Combining these two objectives based on history educators' views, this study aimed at drawing a picture of the present situation of the Turkish secondary school history curriculum, history teaching and history teacher education and to provide suggestions for their development.

The study has shown that some participants accepted the present structure of the current curriculum, the pedagogy and the TES as an unchangeable reality and thought within the given context. However, there were others who were critical of the conditions of the current curriculum and pedagogy. In this respect, this study demonstrated the necessity of helping history educators, particularly, student and practising teachers, to learn about the developments in their profession, which were achieved in other countries and to become aware of problems they face in their actual practice. In other words, Turkish pre-service and in-service teacher education need to be updated.

Moreover, most participants revealed negative or uncertain perceptions about Europe related issues in general and the ED in history teaching in particular. The popular understanding of history and general approaches to history teaching in Turkey have an impact on many participants' unenthusiastic views of Europe-related issues. The participants who felt themselves close to the alternative conceptions of history and history teaching disclosed optimistic views about Europe and the ED in history teaching. Providing an account of the ED in history teaching, this study aims to inform practitioners and researchers about alternative approaches to history and history teaching, particularly the perspective of the ED. It also has the potential to initiate discussions about the improvement of the secondary school history curriculum with the possible inclusion of the ED.

This study addressed the potential inclusion of the ED in the secondary school history curriculum and the components of the same curriculum that needs to be improved in order to bring about a better understanding of the ED. Although it does not go deeply into the origins of the participants' perceptions, the findings of this study establish certain discrepancies amongst the views of different groups of participants. These differences probably reflect the different educational backgrounds that each participating group comes from or each group's professional status/position.

Additionally, the views of student teachers and teacher educators were compared on the basis of their institutions. It was observed that participants from each institution held particular perspectives about certain issues, particularly about Europe-related matters

and the ED in history teaching, explored in this study. This implies that academics holding particular world views, group together in certain Turkish higher education institutions. Higher education introduced in the three institutions being studied also play a role in student teachers' understanding and attitudes towards history, history teaching, Europe, Europe-related issues and the ED in history. Although all institutions present very similar education to the students having the same characteristics in terms of age, gender, background and recruitment procedures, the findings showed some diversity amongst the participants from different institutions. For instance, the participants from Central University hold optimistic opinions about the current curriculum, while opposing Turkey's involvement in Europe, its membership of the EU, the idea of the ED in education and a potential inclusion of the ED in the history curriculum and its practice. On the other hand, most participants from West University presented negative views about the present curriculum and supported a potential inclusion of the ED in the history curriculum. The comparison of three groups of participants and three teacher education institutions on the basis of student teachers' and teacher educators' views gave me contextual information about the realities of secondary education and teacher training.

Throughout the study, I have critically appraised developments in history teaching achieved in the European context, particularly in the UK. I have also learnt about the realities of the curriculum and pedagogy of history in Turkish secondary schools and the training of history teachers in higher education institutions. I have observed that the definition of aims and objectives of history teaching, the selection and presentation of content and its structure and status form the main problems of the curriculum. It has been seen that these problems can be overcome through selection of the curriculum content that is balanced on the criteria of historical contexts, dimensions and periods and based on intrinsic purposes of history teaching (Slater, 1995). Furthermore, teaching approaches depending on lecturing, reciting and questioning should be replaced by approaches which encourage pupils to become involved in classroom activities, to learn and apply the processes of the study of history and to change their views of history as a discipline and as a school subject. These requirements also indicate that student and practising teachers need to learn more about their subject as well as the theoretical and practical aspects of new pedagogical approaches.

At the end of it all, how has going through this challenging and difficult process benefited my own professional development? It has certainly enabled me to develop a

deeper insight and understanding of the realities of history teaching in Turkish and European contexts. Before immersing myself in the process I had an awareness of the issues as a student and a civilian of Turkey. Now that I have come to the end of the road, I can look at the same issues with an open and critical perspective of what history teaching is, what it is for and how it should be practiced. As such, I can use my research to grow as a researcher and as a teacher educator. At a more practical level, it has given me the confidence to get involved in the initiation of the process and in bringing into life/actualising the suggestions of those involved in the research: to change and improve the Turkish history curriculum.

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Appendix A

The EC Resolution on the European Dimension in Education

24 May 1988

**THE RESOLUTION OF THE COUNCIL AND MINISTERS OF
EDUCATION OF 24 MAY 1988 (COUNCIL OF EUROPEAN
COMMUNITIES, 1988)**

EC Resolution on the European Dimension in Education

The resolution aims to:

- strengthen in young people a sense of European identity and make clear to them the value of European civilisation and of the foundations on which the European peoples intend to base their development today, that is in particular the safeguarding of the principles of democracy, social justice and respect for human rights;
- prepare young people to take a part in the economic and social development of the Community and in making concrete progress towards European union, as stipulated in the Single European Act;
- make them aware of the advantages which the Community represents, but also of the challenges it involves, in opening up an enlarged economic and social area to them;
- improve their knowledge of the Community and its member states in their historical, cultural, economic and social aspects and bring home to them the significance of the cooperation of the member states of the European Community with other countries of Europe and the World.

Appendix B

Maastricht Treaty Articles 8-8D on the Citizenship of the Union

MAASTRICHT TREATY

ARTICLES 8-8D ON THE CITIZENSHIP OF THE UNION

Article 8

1. Citizenship of the Union is hereby established. Every person holding the nationality of a Member State shall be a citizen of the Union.
2. Citizens of the Union shall enjoy the rights conferred by this Treaty and shall be subject to the duties imposed thereby.

Article 8a

1. Every citizen of the Union shall have the right to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States, subject to the limitations and conditions laid down in this Treaty and by the measures adopted to give it effect.
2. The Council may adopt provisions with a view to facilitating the exercise of the rights referred to in paragraph 1; save as otherwise provided in this Treaty, the Council shall act unanimously on a proposal from the Commission after obtaining the assent of the European Parliament.

Article 8b

1. Every citizen of the Union residing in a Member State of which he is not a national shall have the right to vote and to stand as a candidate at municipal elections in the Member State in which he resides, under the same conditions as nationals of that State. This right shall be exercised subject to detailed arrangements to be adopted before 31 December 1994 by the Council, acting unanimously, on a proposal from the Commission and after consulting the European Parliament; these arrangements may provide for derogations where warranted by problems specific to a Member State.
2. Without prejudice to Article 138(3) and to the provisions adopted for its implementation, every citizen of the Union residing in a Member State of which he is not a national shall have the right to vote and to stand as a candidate in elections to the European Parliament in the Member State in which he resides, under the same conditions as nationals of that State. This right shall be exercised subject to detailed arrangements to be adopted before 31 December 1993 by the Council, acting unanimously on a proposal from the Commission and after consulting the European Parliament; these arrangements may provide for derogations where warranted by problems specific to a Member State.

Article 8c

Every citizen of the Union shall, in the territory of a third country in which the Member State of which he is a national is not represented, be entitled to protection by the diplomatic or consular authorities of any Member State, on the same conditions as the nationals of that State. Before 31 December 1993, Member States shall establish the necessary rules among themselves and start the international negotiations required to secure this protection.

Article 8d

Every citizen of the Union shall have the right to petition the European Parliament in accordance with Article 138d.

Every citizen of the Union may apply to the Ombudsman established in accordance with Article 138e.

Appendix C

Maastricht Treaty Articles 126, 127 and 128 on Education, Vocational Training and Youth

MAASTRICHT TREATY

ARTICLES 126, 127 AND 128 ON EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND YOUTH

Article 126

1. The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging co-operation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organization of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.
2. Community action shall be aimed at:
 - developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States;
 - encouraging mobility of students and teachers, inter alia by encouraging the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study;
 - promoting co-operation between educational establishments;
 - developing exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the education systems of the Member States;
 - encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of exchanges of socio-educational instructors;
 - encouraging the development of distance education.
3. The Community and the Member States shall foster co-operation with third countries and the competent international organizations in the field of education, in particular the Council of Europe.
4. In order to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article, the Council:
 - acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189b, after consulting the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, shall adopt incentive measures, excluding any harmonization of the laws and regulations of the Member States;
 - acting by a qualified majority on a proposal from the Commission, shall adopt recommendations.

Article 127

1. The Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organization of vocational training.
2. Community action shall aim to:
 - facilitate adaptation to industrial changes, in particular through vocational training and retraining;

- improve initial and continuing vocational training in order to facilitate vocational integration and reintegration into the labour market;
 - facilitate access to vocational training and encourage mobility of instructors and trainees and particularly young people;
 - stimulate co-operation on training between educational or training establishments and firms;
 - develop exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the training systems of the Member States.
3. The Community and the Member States shall foster co-operation with third countries and the competent international organizations in the sphere of vocational training.
 4. The Council, acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189c and after consulting the Economic and Social Committee, shall adopt measures to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article, excluding any harmonization of the laws and regulations of the Member States.'

Article 128

1. The Community shall contribute to the flowering of the cultures of the Member States, while respecting their national and regional diversity and at the same time bringing the common cultural heritage to the fore.
2. Action by the Community shall be aimed at encouraging co-operation between Member States and, if necessary, supporting and supplementing their action in the following areas:
 - improvement of the knowledge and dissemination of the culture and history of the European peoples;
 - conservation and safeguarding of cultural heritage of European significance;
 - non-commercial cultural exchanges;
 - artistic and literary creation, including in the audio-visual sector.
3. The Community and the Member States shall foster co-operation with third countries and the competent international organizations in the sphere of culture, in particular the Council of Europe.
4. The Community shall take cultural aspects into account in its action under other provisions of this Treaty.
5. In order to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article, the Council:
 - acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189b and after consulting the Committee of the Regions, shall adopt incentive measures, excluding any harmonization of the laws and regulations of the Member States. The Council shall act unanimously throughout the procedures referred to in Article 189b;
 - acting unanimously on a proposal from the Commission, shall adopt recommendations.'

Appendix D

1954 European Cultural Convention

EUROPEAN CULTURAL CONVENTION

Paris, 19.12.1954

The governments signatory hereto, being members of the Council of Europe,

Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose, among others, of safeguarding and realising the ideals and principles which are their common heritage;

Considering that the achievement of this aim would be furthered by a greater understanding of one another among the peoples of Europe;

Considering that for these purposes it is desirable not only to conclude bilateral cultural conventions between members of the Council but also to pursue a policy of common action designed to safeguard and encourage the development of European culture;

Having resolved to conclude a general European Cultural Convention designed to foster among the nationals of all members, and of such other European States as may accede thereto, the study of the languages, history and civilisation of the others and of the civilisation which is common to them all,

Have agreed as follows:

Article 1

Each Contracting Party shall take appropriate measures to safeguard and to encourage the development of its national contribution to the common cultural heritage of Europe.

Article 2

Each Contracting Party shall, insofar as may be possible:

- a. encourage the study by its own nationals of the languages, history and civilisation of the other Contracting Parties and grant facilities to those Parties to promote such studies in its territory; and
- b. endeavour to promote the study of its language or languages, history and civilisation in the territory of the other Contracting Parties and grant facilities to the nationals of those Parties to pursue such studies in its territory.

Article 3

The Contracting Parties shall consult with one another within the framework of the Council of Europe with a view to concerted action in promoting cultural activities of European interest.

Article 4

Each Contracting Party shall, insofar as may be possible, facilitate the movement and exchange of persons as well as of objects of cultural value so that Articles 2 and 3 may be implemented.

Article 5

Each Contracting Party shall regard the objects of European cultural value placed under its control as integral parts of the common cultural heritage of

Europe, shall take appropriate measures to safeguard them and shall ensure reasonable access thereto.

Article 6

1. Proposals for the application of the provisions of the present Convention and questions relating to the interpretation thereof shall be considered at meetings of the Committee of Cultural Experts of the Council of Europe.
2. Any State not a member of the Council of Europe which has acceded to the present Convention in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 4 of Article 9 may appoint a representative or representatives to participate in the meetings provided for in the preceding paragraph.
3. The conclusions reached at the meetings provided for in paragraph 1 of this article shall be submitted in the form of recommendations to the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, unless they are decisions which are within the competence of the Committee of Cultural Experts as relating to matters of an administrative nature which do not entail additional expenditure.
4. The Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall communicate to the members of the Council and to the government of any State which has acceded to the present Convention any decisions relevant thereto which may be taken by the Committee of Ministers or by the Committee of Cultural Experts.
5. Each Contracting Party shall notify the Secretary General of the Council of Europe in due course of any action which may be taken by it for the application of the provisions of the present Convention consequent on the decisions of the Committee of Ministers or of the Committee of Cultural Experts.
6. In the event of certain proposals for the application of the present Convention being found to interest only a limited number of the Contracting Parties, such proposals may be further considered in accordance with the provisions of Article 7, provided that their implementation entails no expenditure by the Council of Europe.

Article 7

If, in order to further the aims of the present Convention, two or more Contracting Parties desire to arrange meetings at the seat of the Council of Europe other than those specified in paragraph 1 of Article 6, the Secretary General of the Council shall afford them such administrative assistance as they may require.

Article 8

Nothing in the present Convention shall be deemed to affect:

- a. the provisions of any existing bilateral cultural convention to which any of the Contracting Parties may be signatory or to render less desirable the conclusion of any further such convention by any of the Contracting Parties, or

- b. the obligation of any person to comply with the laws and regulations in force in the territory of any Contracting Party concerning the entry, residence and departure of foreigners.

Article 9

1. The present Convention shall be open to the signature of the members of the Council of Europe. It shall be ratified, and the instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.
2. As soon as three signatory governments have deposited their instruments of ratification, the present Convention shall enter into force as between those governments.
3. With respect to each signatory government ratifying subsequently, the Convention shall enter into force on the date of deposit of its instrument of ratification.
4. The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe may decide, by a unanimous vote, to invite, upon such terms and conditions as it deems appropriate, any European State which is not a member of the Council to accede to the present Convention. Any State so invited may accede by depositing its instrument of accession with the Secretary General of the Council of Europe. Such accession shall take effect on the date of receipt of the said instrument.
5. The Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall notify all members of the Council and any acceding States of the deposit of all instruments of ratification and accession.

Article 10

Any Contracting Party may specify the territories to which the provisions of the present Convention shall apply by addressing to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe a declaration which shall be communicated by the latter to all the other Contracting Parties.

Article 11

1. Any Contracting Party may denounce the present Convention at any time after it has been in force for a period of five years by means of a notification in writing addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe, who shall inform the other Contracting Parties.
2. Such denunciation shall take effect for the Contracting Party concerned six months after the date on which it is received by the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorised thereto by their respective governments, have signed the present Convention.

Done at Paris this 19th day of December 1954, in the English and French languages, both texts being equally authoritative, in a single copy which shall remain deposited in the archives of the Council of Europe. The Secretary General shall transmit certified copies to each of the signatory and acceding governments.

Appendix E

The Combined Version of the Questionnaire (English)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HISTORY STUDENT AND PRACTISING TEACHERS AND TEACHER EDUCATORS

Dear Colleague,

On behalf of Turkish Ministry of Education, I am doing PhD in the University of Nottingham in the UK. My broad research area is 'History Education'. One part of my research project comprises Turkish history student teachers' attitudes to and perceptions of history teaching, present secondary school history curriculum and the inclusion of a European dimension in this curriculum. The questionnaire has prepared for this purpose and aims to contribute the improvement of history teaching and development of the curriculum with your assistance.

This questionnaire is not an examination. Your responses will not be evaluated as true or false¹. This questionnaire will only be used for research purpose and the questionnaire form you have filled will not be seen by anyone else other than the researcher. When filling the questionnaire, please try to reflect your own perceptions and beliefs. If you do not understand anything in the questionnaire please ask the researcher. Thank you very much for your help and the time you have allocated.

Erkan Dinc

Research Student
The University of Nottingham
School of Education

Section 1

Personal Information:

Please tick the appropriate box.

1.1. Gender:

Female	☐

Male	☐

1.2. Age²:

Under 20/31	☐

20-24/31-40	☐

25-29/40-50	☐

Over 29/50	☐

1.3. Name of the Institution³:

Canakkale 18 Mart University	☐

9 Eylul University	☐

Gazi University	☐

1.4. Type(s) of the school(s) you are attending for teaching practice⁴:

General Lycée	☐

Comprehensive Lycée	☐

Vocational/Technical Lycée	☐

Anatolian Lycée	☐

Science L.	☐

Private General L.	☐

Private Science L.	☐

Other (please specify):

1.5. The Name of the university you were graduated from⁵:

1.7. Your working experience as a teacher/teacher educator⁶: years

1.6. Your research area(s)*:

1.8. Your academic title*:

Professor ☐

Associate Professor ☐

Assistant Professor ☐

Lecturer ☐

Research Assistant ☐

1.9. Your position in this department*:

Section 2

Participants' attitudes of the present curriculum:

Please tick the appropriate box.

2.1. I support the view of centralised curriculum.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.2. The curriculum sets clear aims and objectives for the course.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.3. The aims and objectives set by the curriculum are achievable by most of the students.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.4. The curriculum allows teachers to select themes and topics.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.5. Teachers have to teach the content introduced by the curriculum.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.6. Teachers have freedom to alter the order of topics given in the curriculum.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.7. The curriculum presents a balanced amount of local, national, European and world history.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.8. The curriculum mainly presents Turkish national history.

Strongly Agree ☐

Agree ☐

Neutral ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐

2.9. The curriculum presents a balanced view of local, national, European and world history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.10. The curriculum presents a nationalistic view of history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.11. The curriculum is appropriate for presenting different historical perspectives in the classroom.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.12. The curriculum presents a balanced amount of political, socio-economic and cultural history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.13. The curriculum is mainly based on history of wars and political achievements.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.14. The curriculum presents all the periods of history in an equal and fair way.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.15. The curriculum stresses on some periods of history and neglects the others.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.16. It is an important deficiency that the curriculum does not include any topic or theme about the history after the World War II.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.17. The curriculum emphasises on historical content-knowledge.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.18. The curriculum gives importance to the teaching of the skills used by historians.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

2.19. The content introduced by the curriculum is too much for the time available.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.20. Is there anything else you want to say about present secondary school history curriculum that I have not asked you?

Section 3

Participants' experiences of and attitudes to history teaching in Turkish schools:

Please tick the appropriate box. [In this section there are three statements for each item. The first statement is taken from practicing teachers' questionnaire; the second one is from student teachers questionnaire. The last statements located for each item are originally placed in teacher educators' version of the questionnaire.]

3.1. I can prepare my scheme of work and plan my lessons. / I have learnt how to prepare my scheme of work and plan my lessons. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to prepare their scheme of work and plan their lessons.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.2. I know how young people learn history. / I have learnt how young people learn history. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn the ways in which secondary school students learn history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.3. I can use different teaching techniques and strategies in my lessons. / I have learnt different teaching techniques and strategies in my university-based studies. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to use different teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.4. I feel myself confident enough to apply for new teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom. / I can use those techniques and strategies in the classroom. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to apply new teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.5. I can make use of different kinds of historical resources in my lessons. / I can make use of different kinds of historical resources in my lessons. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to make use of different kinds of historical resources in their lessons.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.6. I can create different kinds of teaching materials for history lessons. / I can create different kinds of teaching materials for teaching history in secondary schools. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to create different kinds of teaching materials for history lessons.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.7. I can use different kinds of teaching materials in my lessons. / I can use different kinds of teaching materials in my lessons. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to use different kinds of teaching materials in their classrooms.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.8. I can develop productive discussions amongst my students. / I can develop productive discussions amongst my students. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers learn how to develop productive discussion amongst their own students.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.9. I am aware of students' misunderstanding of some historical concepts and events. / I am aware of pupils' misunderstanding of some historical concepts and events. / During their academic studies in the university, student teachers are educated about pupils' misconceptions of some historical concepts and events.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

3.10. Is there anything else you want to say about history teaching in secondary schools and/or history teacher education in universities including your department that I have not asked you?

Section 4

Participants' perceptions of some concepts:

Please tick the appropriate box.

4.1. The aim of school history is to develop a national identity.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.2. The aim of school history is to learn what happened in the past.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.3. The aim of school history is to provide orientation for the present day.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.4. The aim of school history is to enable students to predict what will happen in the future.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.5. The aim of school history is to equip students with the skills that used by historians to reach historical information/knowledge, and analyse and present it.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.6. There is a strong link between school history and governmental politics.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.7. History should be taught from a nationalistic point of view.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.8. History should be taught from an angle which represents government's/states political ideological perspective.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.9. History should be taught to arouse the awareness of different political, ideological points of view.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.10. There is a strong link between history and citizenship education.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.11. History should be taught to raise citizens of the Republic of Turkey.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.12. History should be taught to raise 21st century's European citizens.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

4.13. Is there anything else you want to say about this topic that I have not asked you?

Section 5

Participants' general perceptions about Turkey and Europe

Please tick the appropriate box.

5.1. I think, geographically Turkey is a European country.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.2. I think, politically Turkey is a European country.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.3. I think, culturally Turkey is a European country.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.4. The relationships between Turkey and other European countries are sufficient.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.5. The relationships are not sufficient because of the political states of both sides.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.6. The relationships are not sufficient because of the economical situations of the two sides.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.7. The relationships are not sufficient because of the cultural and religious differences.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.8. The relationships are not sufficient because of the lack of knowledge and understanding of opposite sides.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.9. The relationships should be improved in the future.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.10. Education can play a significant role to improve those relationships.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.11. School history can facilitate young people's understanding of Europe.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.12. The image of Europe is obscure in my mind because of the lack of knowledge.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

5.13. Is there anything else you want to say about this topic that I have not asked you?

Section 6

The European dimension and secondary school history curriculum:

Please tick the appropriate box.

6.1. I have adequate information/knowledge about Europe.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.2. I have adequate information/knowledge about the history of Europe.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.3. The image of Europe given in the history curriculum and formal history education is true and accurate.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.4. I think the space given to the history of Europe and European history in the secondary school history curriculum is adequate.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.5. I have satisfactory information/knowledge about history teaching in one or more European countries.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.6. I think history education can promote European dimension.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.7. I think the quality of history education in Turkish secondary schools can be improved by the inclusion of a European dimension.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.8. I think the inclusion of a European dimension in history education is unnecessary and inappropriate.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.9. European dimension in history education should only be aimed to give information about facts and figures of European political history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.10. The present history curriculum prevents teachers from teaching more on Europe and European dimension.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.11. The European dimension in history education should include socio-economical and cultural elements instead of political history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.12. The European dimension in history education must not include sensitive political issues.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.13. The European dimension in history education should only be formed from the topics on medieval ages and modern ages.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.14. The European dimension in history education should include contemporary history.

Strongly Agree	☐	Agree	☐	Neutral	☐	Disagree	☐	Strongly Disagree	☐

6.15. Is there anything else you want to say about this topic that I have not asked you?

Thank you very much for your help and co-operation. For the second phase of my research, I would like to conduct interviews with a small number of participants in May. If you like to participate in the interviews could you please write your name and a contact telephone number or an email address to the space below. You can also contact me for any reason via this email address: texed2@nottingham.ac.uk

Your name:

Tel:

Email:

¹ This information is placed in student teachers questionnaire only.

² The first number in each box refers to student teachers' age, while the others located for practising teachers and teacher educators.

³ Only located in student teachers' and teacher educators' questionnaires.

⁴ Limited to student and practising teachers' questionnaires only.

⁵ Only located in practising teachers' questionnaire.

⁶ Limited to practising teachers' and teacher educators' questionnaires only.

* Only located in teacher educators' questionnaire.

Appendix F

The Combined Version of the Questionnaire (Turkish)

TARİH MÜFREDAT PROGRAMI VE AVRUPA PERSPEKTİFİ

Öğretmen Adayı Görüşleri

Değerli Öğretmen Adayı,

İngiltere’de Nottingham Üniversitesi’nde Tarih Eğitimi alanında doktora yapmaktayım. Doktora tez çalışmamın bir bölümü öğretmen adaylarının ‘tarih öğretimi, mevcut lise tarih müfredat programı ve bu programa bir Avrupa perspektifi eklenmesi’ konularındaki görüş ve düşüncelerinin araştırılmasını içermektedir. Elinizdeki anket bu kapsamda hazırlanmış olup, sizlerinde yardımıyla tarih öğretimi ve müfredat programının geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunmak amacını gütmektedir.

Bu anket bir sınav değildir. Sorulara vereceğiniz cevaplar doğru veya yanlış olarak değerlendirilmeyecektir.¹ Bu anket yalnızca araştırma amacıyla kullanılacak ve doldurduğunuz formlar araştırmacı dışında hiç kimse tarafından görülmeyecektir. Lütfen soruları mümkün olduğu kadar kendi gerçek düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak şekilde cevaplayınız. Eğer anlamadığınız bir soru olursa, lütfen araştırmacıdan açıklama isteyiniz. Ayırdığınız zaman ve verdiğiniz bilgiler için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Erkan Dinç
Doktora Öğrencisi
Nottingham Üniversitesi
Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiltere

Bölüm 1

Kişisel Bilgiler

Lütfen size göre uygun olan yeri işaretleyiniz ya da doldurunuz.

1.1. Cinsiyetiniz:

Bayan	☐	Erkek	☐

1.2. Yaşınız²:

20/31'den küçük	☐	20-24/31-40	☐	25-29/40-50	☐	50/29'dan büyük	☐

1.3. Üniversiteniz³:

Çanakkale 18 Mart Üniversitesi	☐	9 Eylül Üniversitesi	☐	Gazi Üniversitesi	☐

1.4. Çalıştığınız veya öğretmenlik uygulaması eğitimine devam ettiğiniz okulun türü⁴:

Düz lise	☐	Çok Programlı Lise	☐	Meslek Lisesi/ Teknik Lise	☐		
Anadolu Lisesi	☐	Fen Lisesi	☐	Özel Düz Lise	☐	Özel Fen Lisesi	☐

Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz):

1.5. Mezun olduğunuz üniversitenin adı⁵:

1.6. Mesleki tecrübeniz⁶: yıl.

1.7. Araştırma alan ya da alanlarınız⁷

Bölüm 2

Müfredat Programı hakkındaki Görüşleriniz:

Lütfen uygun gördüğünüz kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

2.1. Müfredat programının MEB (veya bağlı birimleri) tarafından hazırlandığı mevcut merkezîyetçi sistemi destekliyorum.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.2. Müfredat programı tarih öğretiminde nelerin amaçlandığını açıkça ortaya koymaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.3. Müfredat programında sunulan hedef ve davranışlar makul ve öğrenciler tarafından başarılabilecek düzeydedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.4. Müfredat programı derslerim için konu ve tema seçiminde öğretmenlere de fırsat vermektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.5. Öğretmenler sadece müfredat programında sunulan içeriği (konuları) öğretmek zorundadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.6. Öğretmenler müfredat programında sunulan konuların sıralarını ve her biri için ayrılan zaman miktarını değiştirebilirler.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.7. Müfredat programında sunulan yerel, milli, Avrupa ve Dünya tarihi ile ilgili konuların ağırlığı (miktarı) birbirleri ile dengelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.8. Müfredat programında sunulan genellikle 'Türk Milli Tarihi' konularıdır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.9. Müfredat programında sergilenen tarihsel bakış açıları yerel, milli, Avrupa ve Dünya tarihi alanlarına göre dengeli bir dağılım göstermektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.10. Müfredat programı tarih konularını genelde 'milliyetçi' bir bakış açısından sunmaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.11. Müfredat programı sınıf ortamında farklı tarihsel görüşleri sunmaya elverişlidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.12. Müfredat programı tarihin siyasi, sosyo-ekonomik ve kültürel boyutlarını dengeli miktarlarda sunmaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.13. Müfredat programı genellikle savaş ve siyasi başarılarla ilgili konular üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.14. Müfredat programı bütün tarihsel dönemleri eşit ve dengeli ağırlıklarda sunmaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.15. Müfredat programı bazı tarihsel dönemler üzerinde yoğunlaşırken bazılarını ise görmezden gelmektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.16. II. Dünya savaşı sonrasına ait tarih konularının (Orta Asya Türk devletleri ile ilgili olanlar hariç) müfredat'ta olmaması önemli bir eksikliklerdir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.17. Müfredat programı tarihsel bilginin aktarılması üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.18. Müfredat programı tarih konularında bilgi ve fikir edinmek üzere tarihçiler tarafından kullanılan yöntem ve tekniklerin öğrencilere kazandırılmasına önem vermektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.19. Müfredat programının içeriği tarih öğretimine ayrılan zaman göre çok fazladır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

2.20. Müfredat programı genelinde eklemek istediğiniz bir şey varsa lütfen aşağıdaki boş alanı kullanınız.

Bölüm 3

Liselerde tarih öğretmek üzere almış olduğunuz eğitim hakkındaki görüşleriniz:

Lütfen uygun gördüğünüz kutucuğu işaretleyiniz. [Bu bölümdeki her soru için üç ayrı önerme bulunmaktadır. Birinci önerme öğretmenler, ikinci önerme öğretmen adayları ve üçüncü önerme tarih eğitimcileri anketlerinde yer almıştır.]

3.1. Yıllık ve günlük ders planlarımı hazırlamak konusunda yeterli bilgi ve birikime sahibim. / Yıllık ve günlük ders planlarımı hazırlamak konusunda yeterli eğitim aldımö almaktayım. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında yıllık ve günlük ders planları hazırlama konusunda yeterli bilgi ve beceri edinmektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.2. Lise öğrencilerinin tarihsel bilgi ve becerileri nasıl algılayıp öğrendikleri konusunda yeterli bilgi ve birikime sahibim. / Lise öğrencilerinin tarihsel bilgi ve becerileri nasıl algılayıp öğrendikleri konusunda yeterli teorik eğitim aldım. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında lise öğrencilerinin tarihsel bilgi ve becerileri nasıl algılayıp öğrendikleri konusunda yeterli teorik eğitim almaktadır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.3. Derslerimde çeşitli öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini kullanabilmekteyim. / Üniversite eğitimim sırasında çeşitli öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini ve bunları sınıf içerisinde kullanmayı öğrendim. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında çeşitli öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini sınıf içinde nasıl kullanacakları konusunda öğrenim görmektedirler.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.4. Derslerimde yeni ve değişik özelliklerdeki öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini kullanmak için kendime olan özgüvenim yeterlidir. / Derslerimde yeni ve değişik özelliklerdeki öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini kullanmak için hazır ve kendimden eminim. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında yeni öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini nasıl adapte edip derslerinde kullanabileceklerini öğrenmektedirler.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.5. Derslerimde çeşitli tarihsel kaynakları kullanabiliyorum. / Üniversite eğitimim sırasında çeşitli tarihsel kaynakları sınıf içerisinde nasıl kullanabileceğimi öğrendim. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında çeşitli tarihsel kaynakları derslerinde nasıl kullanabileceklerini öğrenmektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.6. Üniversite eğitimim sırasında tarih dersleri için çeşitli öğretim materyalleri hazırlamayı öğrendim. / Üniversite eğitimim sırasında tarih dersleri için çeşitli öğretim materyalleri hazırlamayı öğrendim. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında kendi uygulamaları için çeşitli öğretim materyalleri hazırlama yöntemlerini öğrenmektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.7. Derslerimde çeşitli öğretim materyallerini kullanabiliyorum. / Bu öğretim materyallerini derslerimde nasıl kullanabileceğimi biliyorum. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında çeşitli öğretim materyallerini derslerinde nasıl kullanabileceklerini öğrenmektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.8. Derslerimde öğrenciler arasında faydalı ve üretken tartışmalar oluşturabiliyorum. / Üniversite eğitimim sırasında tarih derslerinde kendi öğrencilerim arasında nasıl faydalı ve üretken tartışmalar oluşturabileceğimi öğrendim. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında kendi öğrencileri arasında nasıl faydalı ve üretken tartışmalar oluşturabileceklerinin yöntemlerini öğrenmektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.9. Lise öğrencilerinin bazı tarihsel kavram ve olguları yanlış anlayabilecekleri ya da bunları birbirleriyle karıştırabileceklerinin farkındayım. / Lise öğrencilerinin bazı tarihsel kavram ve olguları yanlış anlayabilecekleri ya da bunları birbirleriyle karıştırabileceklerinin farkındayım. / Öğretmen adayları üniversitedeki eğitimleri sırasında lise öğrencilerinin bazı tarihsel kavram ve olguları nasıl yanlış anladıkları veya bunları birbirleriyle nasıl karıştırabildikleri konusunda uyarılıp eğitilmektedirler.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

3.10. Bu konuda eklemek istediğiniz bir şey varsa lütfen aşağıdaki boş alanı kullanınız.

Bölüm 4

Tarih öğretimiyle ilgili bazı kavramlar hakkındaki görüşleriniz:

Lütfen uygun gördüğünüz kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

4.1. Tarih öğretiminin amacı öğrencilerde milli kimlikler geliştirmektir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.2. Tarih öğretiminin amacı geçmişte neler olduğunu, gerçekleştirdiğini öğrenmektir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.3. Tarih öğretiminin amacı geçmişin ışığı altında günümüzde olup bitenleri anlamaya yardımcı olmaktır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.4. Tarih öğretiminin amacı öğrencilerin gelecek hakkında akılcı ve tutarlı tahminler yapabilme yeteneği edinmelerini sağlamaktır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.5. Tarih öğretiminin amacı tarihçilerin tarihsel bilgiye ulaşmak, onu analiz etmek ve sunmak için kullandıkları beceri ve teknikleri öğrencilere kazandırmaktır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.6. Okullarda (lise) tarih öğretimi ile devlet politikaları arasında önemli bağlantılar vardır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.7. Tarih milliyetçi bir bakış açısından öğretilmelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.8. Tarih devletin siyasi ve ideolojik önceliklerini dikkate alan bir perspektiften öğretilmelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.9. Tarih öğrencilerde bir birinden farklı veya tamamen karşıt siyasi ve ideolojik fikirlerin olabileceği ve bunların bir arada varlıklarını sürdürebilecekleri bilincini uyandırmak amacıyla öğretilmelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.10. Tarih ve 'Vatandaşlık' eğitimi arasında önemli bağlantılar vardır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.11. Tarih öğretiminin amacı Türkiye Cumhuriyeti'nin çağdaş vatandaşlarını yetiştirmektir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.12. Tarih öğretiminin amacı 21. Yüzyılın Avrupa vatandaşlarını yetiştirmektir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

4.13. Bu konuda eklemek istediğiniz bir şey varsa lütfen aşağıdaki boş alanı kullanınız.

Bölüm 5

'Türkiye ve Avrupa' hakkındaki genel görüşler

Lütfen uygun gördüğünüz kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

5.1. Bulunduğu coğrafya açısından Türkiye bir Avrupa ülkesidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.2. Siyasal yönetimi ve kurumları açısından Türkiye bir Avrupa ülkesidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.3. Kültürel özellikleri açısından Türkiye bir Avrupa ülkesidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.4. Avrupa ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ilişkiler yeterli bir düzeydedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.5. Her iki tarafın siyasi yapı ve anlayışlarından dolayı Avrupa ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ilişkiler yeterli bir seviyede değildir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.6. Her iki tarafın ekonomik durum ve politikarından dolayı Avrupa ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ilişkiler yeterli bir seviyede değildir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.7. Dini ve kültürel farklılıklardan dolayı Avrupa ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ilişkiler yeterli bir seviyede değildir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.8. Karşı taraf hakkındaki bilgi ve anlayış eksikliğinden dolayı Avrupa ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ilişkiler yeterli bir seviyede değildir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.9. Avrupa ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ilişkiler geliştirilmelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.10. Karşılıklı ilişkilerin geliştirilmesinde eğitimin önemli bir rolü olacaktır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.11. Liselerdeki tarih öğretimi gençlerin Avrupa ile ilgili bilgi ve fikirlerinin gelişmesinde faydalı ve etkili olabilir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.12. Bilgi eksikliğinden dolayı kafamdaki Avrupa imajı belirsiz ve karmaşıktır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

5.13. Bu konuda eklemek istediğiniz bir şey varsa lütfen aşağıdaki boş alanı kullanınız.

Bölüm 5

Lise Tarih Müfredat Programı ve Avrupa Boyutu (perspektifi):

Lütfen uygun gördüğünüz kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

6.1. Avrupa hakkında genel olarak yeterli bir bilgi birikimine sahibim.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.2. Avrupa tarihi hakkında genel olarak yeterli bir bilgi birikimine sahibim.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.3. Müfredat programı ve formel tarih öğretiminde sunulan Avrupa imajı doğru ve yerindedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.4. Tarih müfredat programında Avrupa ve Avrupa tarihine ayrılan yer yeterlidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.5. En az bir Avrupa ülkesindeki lise seviyesinde tarih öğretimi hakkında yeterli sayılabilecek düzeyde bilgime sahibim.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.6. Tarih öğretiminin ülkemizde bir Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) fikrinin gelişmesine yardımcı olacağını düşünüyorum.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.7. Müfredata bir Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) eklenmesinin liselerdeki tarih öğretiminin geliştirilmesine yardımcı olacağını düşünüyorum.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.8. Tarih öğretimine bir Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) eklenmesi uygun olmadığı gibi gereksizdir de.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.9. Tarih öğretiminde Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) yalnızca Avrupa tarihindeki siyasi ve bilimsel-teknolojik gelişmelerle ilgili somut bilgiler vermelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.10. Mevcut müfredat programı öğretmenlerin Avrupa ve Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) hakkında daha fazla eğitim vermesini engellemektedir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.11. Tarih öğretiminde Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) siyasi tarih yerine daha çok sosyal, ekonomik ve kültürel öğeleri içermelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.12. Tarih öğretiminde Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) 'Ermeni Sorunu ve Kıbrıs' gibi günlük politikalarla yakından alakalı olan tartışmalı ve hassas konuları içermemelidir.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.13. Tarih öğretiminde Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) yalnızca orta, yeni ve yakınçağ yakınçağ tarihi ile ilgili konuları kapsamalıdır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.14. Tarih öğretiminde Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) çağdaş tarih (20. ve 21. Yüzyıllar.) konuları üzerinde yoğunlaşmalıdır.

Tamamen katılıyorum	☐	Katılıyorum	☐	Kararsızım	☐	Katılmıyorum	☐	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	☐

6.15. Bu konuda eklemek istediğiniz bir şey varsa lütfen aşağıdaki boş alanı kullanınız.

Katıldığınız için çok teşekkür ederim. Bu araştırmanın ikinci aşamasında aranızdan altı (6) öğretmen adayı arkadaş ile yine aynı konu üzerine mülakat (görüşme) yapmak istiyorum. Mülakatları Mayıs ayı içerisinde yapmayı planlamaktayım. Eğer katılmak isterseniz lütfen aşağıya isminizi ve size ulaşabileceğim bir telefon numarası ya da email adresi yazınız. Araştırma ile ilgili veya diğer bir nedenle bana ulaşmak isterseniz bu adresi: texed2@nottingham.ac.uk kullanabilirsiniz.

Adınız:

Tel.:

Email:

Erkan Dinç

¹ Bu bilgi yalnızca öğretmen adayı anketinde yer almaktadır

² Her kutucuktaki ilk yaş aralıkları öğretmen adaylarını, ikinciler ise öğretmen ve tarih eğitimcilerin için hazırlanmıştır.

³ Bu bölüm yalnızca öğretmen adayı ve tarih eğitimcisi anketinde bulunmaktadır.

⁴ Bu bölüm yalnızca öğretmen adayı ve öğretmen anketinde bulunmaktadır.

⁵ Bu bölüm yalnızca öğretmen anketinde yer almaktadır

⁶ Bu bölüm yalnızca öğretmen ve tarih eğitimcisi anketinde yer almaktadır.

⁷ Bu bölüm yalnızca tarih eğitimcisi anketinde yer almaktadır

Appendix G

Interview Schedule (English)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR STUDENT AND PRACTISING TEACHERS AND TEACHER EDUCATORS

1. Personal information.
2. Opinions about the secondary school history education and the curriculum in general:
 - Can the pupils with three years experience of history courses acquire information about the past and understand it?
 - Can they develop a historical perspective and understanding from three-year history courses?
 - If so, can they use this perspective to interpret and understand today's world?
 - Can they acquire enough historical information, understanding and skills to be a productive and conscious citizen, and have a better international understanding?
3. Your opinions about the present curriculum in relation with Europe and European History:
 - Their scope (extent),
 - The way in which they have chosen or placed into the curriculum,
 - Their portion in the whole curriculum,
 - The contexts and dimensions of the content; Local, European, world histories or political, cultural, social and etc.
 - Teaching methods and strategies have been used to teach those topics.
4. Your knowledge/information about Europe and European history: and how you obtained it?
5. What does the concept of the "European dimension" mean to you? Why?
6. What do you think about the European dimension in history teaching? Why?
7. What is your opinion about the relationships between Turkey and other European countries and institutions, especially on Turkey's membership process into the EU?
8. Do you know anything about the works and projects of UNESCO, The Council of Europe, The European Union and their agents (branches) on history teaching?
 - If yes, what is your opinion about those works?
 - What do you think about history teaching in other European countries and their common and different characteristics (features) with the Turkish one?
9. Do you think that initial and in-service history teacher education programmes have any impact on learners' (student and practising teachers) understanding of Europe and the European dimension in history education?
 - If so, can you tell me about it particularly in relation to your own experience and your own institution?

- 10.** Do you think there is a possibility of developing a new history curriculum which considers the European dimension within the structure of the current Turkish Education System?
- What kinds of ideas, perspectives should be given priority to prepare a new curriculum that considers the European dimension in history education?
 - Who should join the process or development of the new curriculum, or whose ideas, perspectives should be taken into account?
 - If you think that it is not possible within the same system, does the current history curriculum require any renewal/ development? If so what are they and how can they be realised?
- 11.** What should be the aims and objectives of the new history curriculum which will take the European dimension into account?
- What sorts of changes do we need on the same parts of the present curriculum?
- 12.** How could the scope (extent) and content of this curriculum be shaped?
- The dimensions of historical content (political, socio-economical, cultural history),
 - Historical periods (which should be given priority), the role of contemporary history in this context,
 - The possibility of balancing local, national, regional, European and world history throughout the curriculum (history of international institutions),
 - Teaching sensitive and controversial issues.
- 13.** Do you think that we need an important change in the practice of history teaching, particularly in relation to the European dimension?
- Pedagogical issues (teaching methods, techniques and strategies),
 - The use of educational materials and techniques,
 - The use of educational resources.
- 14.** Do you think it is necessary to change initial and in-service history teacher education programmes, if there is a possibility for the inclusion of a European dimension into the history curriculum?

Appendix H

Interview Schedule (Turkish)

GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

1. Kişisel Bilgiler

2. Lise tarih müfredat programı ve tarih öğretimi hakkındaki genel düşünceler.

- Üç yıl boyunca tarih dersi alan öğrenciler geçmiş hakkında yeterli bilgi edinip bunu anlayabiliyormu?
- Bu deneyim ile bir tarihsel perspektif ve anlayış geliştirebiliyorlarmı?
 - Geliştirebiliyorlar diyorsanız, bu perspektifi kullanarak bugünün dünyasını ve olaylarını yorumlayıp anlayabiliyorlarmı?
- Yeterli tarihsel bilgi, anlayış ve beceriler edinerek toplumun yetişkin birer üyesi, iyi birer vatandaş olabiliyor ve daha iyi bir uluslararası anlayış kazanabiliyorlarmı?

3. Halihazırdaki Tarih öğretimi ve müfredat programında sergilenen Avrupa, Avrupalılar veAvrupa Tarihi ile genel olarak ötekiler, öteki kültürler hakkındaki bilgi ve değerlendirmeler hakkındaki düşünceleriniz nelerdir?

- Kapsamı,
- İçerdiği konular ve bu konuların seçilme sebep ve yöntemleri,
- Müfredat genelindeki payları,
- Konuların tarihin siyasi, sosyo-ekonomik ve kültürel boyutlarına göre dağılımı,
- Bu konuların öğretimi için tavsiye edilen öğretim yöntem ve teknikleri.

4. Avrupa ve Avrupa tarihi hakkında ne derece bir bilgi birikiminiz var?

- Bunu nerede ve nasıl edindiniz?

5. Avrupa boyutu veya Avrupa perspektifi kavramı size ne ifade ediyor?

6. Tarih öğretiminde Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) konusundaki düşünceleriniz nelerdir?

7. Türkiye ile diğer Avrupa ülkeleri ve AB, AK gibi kuruluşlar arasındaki ilişkiler hakkındaki görüşleriniz nelerdir? Özellikle Türkiye'nin AB'ye üyeliği konusunda ne düşünüyorsunuz:

8. Tarih öğretimiyle ilgili olarak UNESCO, Avrupa Konseyi, Avrupa Birliği gibi uluslararası kuruluşlar ve bunlara bağlı birimler tarafından yürütülen çalışma ve projeler hakkında bilginiz veya ilginiz varmı?

- Varsa bu çalışmalar hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
- Diğer Avrupa ülkelerindeki tarih öğretimi hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz, bunların Türkiye ile ortak ve farklı yanlarından, olumlu olumsuz özelliklerinden bahsedermisiniz?

9. Size göre üniversite eğitimi ve hizmetiçi öğretmen eğitim kurslarının, öğretmen adayı ve öğretmenlerin Avrupa ve tarih öğretiminde Avrupa perspektifi hakkındaki fikirlerinin oluşumunda bir etkisi oldumu?

- Var diyorsanız kendi tecrübenizden yola çıkarak anlatır mısınız?

10. Sizce Türkiye’deki mevcut eğitimde program geliştirme anlayışı ile Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) doğrultusunda bir tarih müfredatı mümkün olabilir mi?

- Mümkün değil diyorsanız bu hususta ne gibi yenilikler yapılmasına ihtiyaç olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
- Sözkonusu müfredatın hazırlanmasında nasıl bir anlayış güdülmeli, bu süreç kimler katılmalıdır veya kimlerin fikrine başvurulmalıdır? (üniversite öğretim elemanları, öğretmenler, öğretmen adayları, öğrenciler vs.)

11. Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) gözönünde bulundurularak hazırlanacak bir lise tarih müfredat programının hedefleri size göre neler olmalıdır?

- Ya da bu hususta hangi değişiklikler yapılmalıdır?

12. Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) gözönünde bulundurularak hazırlanacak bir müfredat programının kapsamı ve içeriği nasıl olmalıdır?

- Hangi konuları içermelidir? Ya da hangi konulara öncelik, önem verilmelidir? (Siyasi, sosyal, ekonomik veya kültürel ve yerel, milli, bölgesel, Avrupa veya dünya tarihi)
- Hangi tarihsel dönem, veya dönemlerin işlenmesine öncelik, önem verilmelidir? (ilk, orta,yeni ve yakın çağlar, günümüz tarihi),
- Tartışmalı ve hassas konuların tarih öğretimindeki yeri konusundaki görüşünüz nedir?

13. Kullanılması veya öncelik, önem verilmesi gereken öğretim yöntem ve teknikleri, kaynaklar, sizce tarih öğretimi anlayışımızda köklü bir değişikliğe ihtiyaç var mı? Neden?

- Grup tartışması, eleştirel düşünme, empati vs. teknikler,
- Tarih öğretiminde bilgisayar, internet ve diğer eğitim teknolojilerinden yararlanılması,
- Önem ve öncelik verilecek kaynaklar.

14. Sizce lise tarih müfredat programının Avrupa boyutu (perspektifi) dikkate alınarak yeniden düzenlenmesi halinde hizmetiçi öğretmen eğitimi ve üniversitelerin tarih öğretmeni yetiştiren programlarında değişiklik yapılması gerekirmi?