



Initial training for history teachers Structures and standards in 13 member states of the Council of Europe

A comparative study

Edited by Alois Ecker

Project “Learning and teaching the history of Europe in the 20th century”

Council of Europe
Strasbourg 2002

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- the promotion of an awareness of European identity;
- the search for common responses to the great challenges facing European society.

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1. Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russian Federation, San Marino, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, "the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia", Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom.

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Acknowledgements

A comparative international study like ours is only possible if there is an incredible amount of help and support from many sides. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the Council of Europe for helping us with our networking activities and the organisation of the two seminars and the expert meeting in Vienna and Prague. My special thanks also go to the Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Culture for generously funding our project and facilitating the contacts with our contributors and to the Czech Ministry of Education for hosting the second expert meeting of this project in Prague. This study would not have seen the light of day without the ongoing support of Monika Goodenough-Hofmann, Anneliese Stoklaska, and Annamaria Sikoronja from the Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Culture.

I am particularly indebted also to all the experts who contributed to this study and to the representatives of the countries concerned in the Education Committee of the Council of Europe who kindly reviewed the country reports.

My sincere thanks also go to the members of the research group at the Institute of Economic and Social History at the University of Vienna: especially Gerhard Dabringer who made the collected data accessible, Isabel Oliva who gave form and structure to all this information and to Sabine Schmidt, who took on the task of copy-editing the articles.

Last but not least, I would like to thank all the members of the editorial board: Christa Donnermair (Austria), Elka Drosneva and Julieta Savova (Bulgaria), Heinz Strotzka (Austria), Yvonne Sinclair (United Kingdom), and Ineke Veldhuis-Meester (Netherlands) for revising the final versions of the articles.

Vienna, December 2000
Alois Ecker

Foreword

History teaching at secondary schools depends on three main elements which must be taken into account and constantly adjusted to societal developments and the cultural needs of coming generations: curriculum development, textbooks and teaching materials and teacher training. Our pilot study on a crucial aspect of the third element – initial training for history teachers – is the first comparative study on the structures of initial training for history teachers in several European countries. To our knowledge it is also the first study of this kind to compare the structures of teacher training in a concrete subject on a European level.

The study describes the structures and standards that apply to the initial teacher training (ITT) for history teachers in Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain, and the United Kingdom (England and Wales). It includes database and background information on ITT which will help those in charge of history teacher training – ministries of education and teacher training institutions: universities, pedagogical universities and teacher training colleges – to discuss concepts of ITT for history teachers. The aim of the study is to provide information that will raise the level of professionalism not only of history teaching, but also of teacher training.

Highly industrialised countries are currently undergoing a process of rapid cultural change. This rapid change will also affect teachers at secondary schools. History teachers have to deal with political, social, economic, and cultural change every day. Indeed, this is the very subject of their profession. Unfortunately, they are not always well prepared for this job. Therefore, we explored current forms of their initial training, as this will provide a basis for future planning and for developing ITT reforms on the levels of institutional co-operation, institutional reforms, and the personal development of both teachers and teacher trainers.

Thanks to the organisational support and longstanding experience of the Council of Europe with issues of history teaching and thanks to the generous support provided by the Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Culture and the Czech Ministry of Education we were able to organise two expert seminars in Vienna and Prague, where those ITT questions initially investigated with the help of country reports and two comprehensive questionnaires were discussed in greater detail.

In more concrete terms, the study aims at providing information about the structures of ITT: ITT models; length of studies; conditions of assessment and graduation; curricula; relations and differences between school curricula and ITT curricula; relations between academic and practical training in ITT; the institutions involved in training: universities, pedagogical universities, colleges, pedagogical academies, and other teacher training institutes; and the (theoretical) concepts which form the background of training. We also looked at the forms of co-operation between training institutions, especially as regards opportunities of practical training, but also at teamwork and project-oriented training during studies.

Furthermore, we wanted to get an insight into the social context history teachers currently work in or will be working in the future. Therefore, we also looked at general demographic data referring to history teachers, their social background, the trend towards feminisation of the profession, teachers' salaries, and students' chances of actually working as history teachers after graduating from university or teacher training college.

We are indebted to many people for providing us with the necessary information about the countries involved in this study. Our thanks go to all of them.

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Introduction

Alois Ecker and Julieta Savova

The Council of Europe's project "Innovation in the primary school"² made a number of recommendations, one of which was "that the Council should devote more attention to the issues concerning teacher training. There were several reasons for this recommendation but the principal one derived from what project members saw as a major barrier to successful innovation in schools."³

More than ten years after this recommendation was published in a Council of Europe project on innovation in primary school, it is still as relevant as in 1987 – and not only for primary school teachers. Without adequate organisational and personnel development, innovations in educational institutions – be it on the primary, secondary or tertiary level – will not be successful in the long term. Organisational development in today's schools primarily depends on effective structures of communication and co-operation between those who work in organisational management and those who teach. Personnel development, first and foremost, depends on the actual qualifications of teachers themselves.

Taking into account that "teaching" is not just a gift of nature, talent, character or divine grace, we have to look at the various ways in which teachers acquire the necessary teaching competencies on the job. The best-known ways of acquiring teaching competencies are initial and in-service training courses and seminars. Therefore, we decided to carry out a comprehensive survey on the professional training of history teachers for tomorrow's secondary schools.

By exploring initial training for history teachers we hoped to find out more about the structures and standards which are established at the very beginning of a history teacher's teaching career. During the three to four years at teacher training college or the four to five years at university, history teacher trainees are expected to acquire a basic orientation on their future teaching profession. This orientation often remains the predominant structure of a teacher's professional role and identity throughout her or his entire teaching career. We thought it might be interesting to look at the explicit and the hidden aims that characterise the initial years of future history teachers in Europe, and at how they are filled with content, in a more systematic way.

This is the first comparative study on the training of subject teachers on a European level. The training of teachers in general and of history teachers specifically has not been particularly reflected upon on an international or a general European level. It still remains a field of national interest, and there is not much comparison with training structures in neighbouring countries, for example. Even within a certain country, one teacher training institution may know very little about the objectives and forms of training applied by another institution in the neighbouring city. We noticed a general lack of information and communication about the structures of training, both in individual countries and in Europe as a whole. The structures of teacher training are rather heterogeneous, so that we thought it might be useful first to highlight the structures that are common to initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe and then to describe the differences between the main concepts in this field.

2. CDCC project No. 8 on "Innovation in primary school", CDCC document DECS/EGT(87)23; Council of Europe.

3. See Galton, Maurice and Moon, Bob (eds) (1994) *Handbook of teacher training in Europe*, David Fulton, London p. 181.

These 13 countries – Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain, and the United Kingdom – were selected, on the one hand, for geopolitical reasons and, on the other hand, because they enabled us to address characteristic differences in training concepts. Drafting the first questionnaires on initial training for history teachers in 1998, we were not very sure about the relevant issues and topics to enquire about. In the first few months of this survey we knew little more than what was going on at our own training institution and at those institutions with which we already had long-standing contacts. Over the last two years we not only learned to ask the more relevant questions, but we also acquired a profound knowledge of the relevant structures behind the initial answers. Discussions with colleagues from other countries at the seminars held in Vienna (April 1998)⁴ and Prague (June 1999)⁵ helped us to put our own views and ideas about the topic in perspective – and various colleagues told us that their experience had been similar.

During our investigations we came to appreciate the particular form of research we had chosen – the combination of standardised questionnaires followed by expert discussions in two seminars and by corresponding working groups – as a particular form of intervention into the education systems concerned. Our questions provoked further investigation on a national and institutional level. In-depth discussions at two seminars and additional research on special topics in five working groups between April 1998 (Vienna) and June 1999 (Prague) revealed a number of crucial problems which we had not been aware of at first. At the start of this survey we did not know that there was so little co-ordination with regard to initial training for history teachers among the countries of Europe. Therefore, we would like to express our hope that this study will help to realise one of the original aims of this project: to establish an international platform for the systematic discussion and investigation of important issues and problems concerning initial training and, thus, to develop a new quality of reflection upon the relevant needs in teacher training.

History teaching in Europe has had to face challenging new developments during the last decade: In the countries of east and south-east Europe the process of political reforms has greatly changed the role of history teachers as well as the significance of history teaching at school and university. But the changes regarding history and the teaching of history were not limited to the countries in transition. History in western and central Europe has also had to cope with the growing complexity of political, social and economic systems. Despite the particular differences between eastern and western European countries, special attention must be paid to one tendency which may well be considered the biggest challenge for history at the beginning of this century – the new nationalist and right-wing tendencies. These also affect young people so that history teachers are confronted with these problems in the classroom, too.

4. See the Vienna seminar report, “Initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe”, CDCC document DECS/EDU/HIST20/FORM (98) 1, Council of Europe.

5. See the Prague seminar report, “Initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe – follow-up seminar”, CDCC document DECS/EDU/HIST20/FORM (99) 4, Council of Europe.

On the other hand, new approaches to history both on the content level and on the methodological level – especially the use of new technologies⁶ – need to be implemented in classroom teaching, and teachers need to be prepared for these forms of dealing with the past.

In the 20th century, national history remained the dominant focus of history teaching all over Europe – even though this was, as we know, not always to the benefit of the people living in Europe. At the beginning of the 21st century we have to ask ourselves whether historiographers and history teachers should continue to promote the construction of national histories and, thus, remain dependent on the political powers that be, or whether history and history teaching should encourage a more systematic and reflective approach to the past, with comparative and multi-perspective methods, which could contribute to overcoming the nationalist heritage in history: for example by topics of social, economic and cultural history as well as a political history with a thematic focus, a broader view and differentiated categories, including European and global perspectives, and promoting a history based on democratic values and human rights.

We have to ask ourselves whether future education through history teaching will be able – with the consent of the new young generation – to foster social and communicative competencies, critical thinking, open-mindedness, mutual understanding, tolerance and solidarity between the people of Europe and other parts of the world.

Educators work with a long-term perspective, not knowing whether their efforts will ever bear fruit. Therefore, they can only hope that their work will be successful in bringing about more objective forms of history and history teaching. Nevertheless, we have to ask again and again which ways of dealing with the past are best-suited to foster peaceful development and co-operation in Europe. As teachers and educators we have to look for ways of using history to encourage self-consciousness and cultural identity in the next generation without excluding “the other” – irrespective of whether she or he is the “other” on grounds of gender, social status, religion, race, language, ethnicity, or nationality.

Teacher training plays an important role in this effort to promote democratic forms of history, as it determines the fundamental structures of how history will be taught to future generations. While it is true that learning and training today requires the permanent, lifelong improvement of qualifications, prospective teachers still get their first orientation in the initial teacher training at university or other teacher training institutions. This is why we thought it important to explore – across national borders and comparing different European countries – what happens in these first years of training and induction.

6. See Tardif, Jacques, *The challenges of the information and communication technologies facing history teaching*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, 1999.

Key questions on structures of initial training for history teachers

Alois Ecker

We would like to introduce the subject with some general remarks on the current development of education systems in Europe and its consequences for the training of history teachers.

Teacher training in an era of accelerated cultural change: complex societies and complex learning processes

The highly industrialised regions of the world are currently undergoing a process of rapid social, political and economic change. This restructuring has a strong impact on the cultural sphere: seemingly stable conventions are undermined, well-established norms and forms of behaviour change rapidly. This process has been termed “accelerated cultural change”.⁷

Accelerated cultural change also affects the educational sector. Established educational institutions are coming under increasing social pressure. New suppliers in the information sector – new technologies, TV, print media, adult education, private institutions – compete with schools and universities as providers of education. The kind of education offered at school and university is increasingly being questioned.

Consequently, history teaching is confronted with various new challenges. Demands on school teachers have grown rapidly over the last years in terms of both content and pedagogy. Relationships between teachers and pupils are changing. Successful teaching methods and contents are no longer accepted unquestioningly by today’s young generation. What we need in the classroom is complex, integrative and dynamic methods of teaching and learning. Methods which enable the learner not only to acquire declarative knowledge about certain historical facts (such as the social dynamics of industrial societies, the restructuring of the family, the changing relationship of the sexes), but also to develop procedural knowledge which can be acted upon in concrete, everyday social situations – methods which allow the learner to experience the complexity of social change and which help her or him to develop social competencies.

The accelerated cultural change described above affects the teacher’s role in general as well as co-operation among colleagues. Interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork have not formed part of teacher training so far. The teacher is still seen as an individual, isolated worker in the classroom – and this outside perception corresponds with the prevailing self-image of the teachers themselves. As soon as they have closed the classroom door, they feel themselves alone with a group of pupils or students – often without taking sufficient account of the fact that they teach these pupils together with a number of other colleagues. Even today, there is very little co-ordination between subject teachers who teach the same class level. On the other hand, such forms of co-ordination rarely get any official or institutional support such as a concrete financial compensation for the time spent on such co-ordination.

Thus, accelerated cultural change represents a new challenge for teacher education. Future teachers need to be trained to apply complex methods and to co-operate with colleagues, and they need to be able to react flexibly to any other problems which may arise in their professional life. Therefore, the education and training of teachers also needs to be remoulded into a rich learning environment where student teachers can acquire and improve the necessary academic, didactic and organisational competencies.

7. Ecker, Alois (1994) Process-oriented didactics of history, <http://www.univie.ac.at/Nirtshattsgeschichte/index.html>.

This leads us to the **first** set of questions regarding initial training for history teachers: What can be done to promote reflection upon this issue not only with respect to what is happening in the classroom, but also with respect to current social and cultural developments outside the classroom, in the school as a special social system and in the school's environment? What can be done to promote reflection upon rapid cultural change in teacher training institutions, with respect to the macro-social development of our societies, the economic and social changes in Europe and in other parts of the world?

Reflection upon the training situation requires a system of meta-reflection on the structures of learning how to teach history

In this approach, history didactics⁸ is regarded as an *applied social science*.⁹ Its central concerns with regard to the teaching of history at school are as follows:

- In the face of current social developments, which ways of dealing with the past seem particularly necessary and useful to encourage reflection in the group of people concerned (such as students)?
- Which (historical) methods are appropriate for reconstructing past cultural, social, economic and political situations and their development in a critical and multi-perspective dimension?
- What knowledge is necessary in order to foster a historical understanding that relates to current changes in society?

These are the central questions which history didactics needs to resolve within its concrete social environment.

Consequently, we also need to deal with these questions in initial training for history teachers. However, we should not focus on the current situation of history teaching at school, but on the demands which history teachers are likely to meet in the future. We need to ask what kind of future these teachers are being educated for.

One crucial theoretical point concerning the observation of and reflection upon our subject came up repeatedly in many discussions with teacher trainers. When we talk about history teaching, we should clearly distinguish three levels of observation and reflection: history teaching in the classroom; teacher education (the training of students and/or teachers through initial or in-service training); the training of trainers.

Each level is a proper social system in its own right – and what is good on one level need not necessarily be good on another one. “Level switching” is a common problem in the current debate on history didactics. It means that even theoreticians of history teaching do not draw a clear distinction between the levels they are talking about. Owing to this mix-up, they might seem to suggest that there is no difference in discussing, for example curriculum development for secondary schools and curriculum development for initial teacher training. When it comes to teacher training, in particular, many experts do not have the training situation in mind, but

8. In English-speaking countries the term “methodology” still prevails. We decided to give preference to the term “didactics” as this notion is becoming more and more common in Europe, and especially because it is more precise and comprehensive in describing the “art of learning and teaching” as well as reflection upon learning and teaching structures.

9. Ecker, Alois (1994b) *Process-oriented didactics of history*.

the classroom. They seem to be talking about teacher training but, in fact, they are interested only in what goes on at school. Of course, there are certain links between these two levels, but – to stick to our example – the history curriculum for school pupils is not necessarily the same as that for teacher trainees at university. Thus, what we need in discussing teacher training is more awareness of the level of observation and reflection we are talking about.

Academic reflection upon the training of history teachers is still relatively new. At university, at least, the traditional way of teacher training used to consist in the cognitive learning of “historical events” (or “facts”) and in the adoption of methods of historical research – but up to now, there has been very little reflection upon what is happening in the learning and teaching situation, and almost none upon ways of integrating the processes of cognitive learning and “social learning”.

In the understanding of university members, “teaching” very often remained an imitation of the behaviour of experienced older teachers. If there was any theoretical reflection at all, it mostly consisted in normative concepts, or “instructions”, of what trainees should do in the classroom rather than in any empirical observation, description and analysis or feedback on what could be described as the actual interaction between teacher trainees and pupils. Most of the time, the training of future teachers remained limited to instructions as to what the students should do or learn in history courses instead of describing how the trainers should perform their task.

This leads us to a second set of questions regarding initial training for history teachers: What can be done to improve the perspective of observation and reflection in initial training for history teachers? What should trainers focus on in reflecting upon the training situation? Who is at the centre of interest. Is it really the student who wants to become a history teacher – or is it still the idealistic concept of a teacher which the trainer dreamed about during his own schooldays?

Institutional co-operation: on the relationship between theory and practice in university-based teacher education

Teacher training is not only a question of trainers and students. It takes place in institutions – and usually there is not only one institution involved in initial training for history teachers, but several. Initial teacher training (ITT) takes place at universities, pedagogical universities or teacher training colleges, but also at schools, where teacher trainees get their first practical experience. Therefore, we also have to look at the forms and quality of co-operation between those institutions which are involved in concrete ITT models.

The historical development of the relationship between school and university, for example, has opened up certain channels of co-operation, but it has obstructed others. The relationship between university teachers and schoolteachers is widely experienced as hierarchical, so that horizontal co-operation is seriously under-developed or is made difficult by mutual allegations of deficits and conflicts. Universities still see themselves as institutions which produce “theory”, while schools are expected to provide practical learning environments.

If there is co-operation between these two institutions, it still depends very much on individual initiative and contracts, but not on contracts between the institutions themselves. Practical teacher training in these cases has to rely on small and unstable channels.

Consequently, there is very little practical training during university studies, and students who want to become history teachers often do not even get any opportunity during their first four years at university to find out in classroom practice whether they are actually able to handle a class of pupils or not.

This leads us to a **third** set of questions regarding initial training for history teachers: What can be done to improve co-operation between the institutions involved in teacher education, that is universities, pedagogical universities, teacher training colleges and schools as well as the administrative bodies governing these institutions (ministries of education, ministries of science and research, central or regional school administrations)? What are the main obstacles that hamper the productive co-operation of these institutions?

A professional profile for history teachers

If we accept accelerated cultural change as a reality in the current historical process, we have to develop concepts of teacher training in a way that allows teachers to perform their tasks more professionally. For history teachers, this includes a thorough and continuous reflection upon the aims, contents and methods of history teaching.

In recent years, many professions have reacted to the structural changes in society by adjusting their understanding of their own roles and, thus, altering their job descriptions. Looking for a systematic job description for history teachers in training institutions, it often turns out that there is no explicit professional profile for teachers in secondary school. Professional training, then, runs the risk of working like a company without a business plan, the members of which (teachers/lecturers and students) act without clear objectives and remain dependent on diffuse assumptions and traditions as well as on external influences and orders. Teacher education at university or other training institutions, therefore, is in dire need of clearly formulated aims which may serve as guidelines for the development of concrete syllabuses.¹⁰ Such a professional profile will also have to include academic and didactic qualifications.

The *academic competencies* required for the profile might be: a good knowledge of political as well as social, economic and cultural history; the ability to establish links between political, economic, social and cultural developments in the historical period under discussion; flexibility in handling factual and methodological knowledge; a readiness to cross borders between academic disciplines; the ability to relate historical contents to the present; the ability to develop a critical and problem-oriented choice and treatment of historical subjects; and the ability to select and to deal with the historical information available through new technologies and the Internet in a critical and problem-oriented way.

As far as *didactic qualifications* are concerned, the profile might include: process-oriented competencies; the ability of self-reflection; social and communicative competencies; planning and design skills; skills in the analysis of organisations; the ability to handle (institutional) power transparently and to deal with conflicts in class constructively; the ability to direct,

10. See also: Buchberger, Friedrich (1994) "Teacher education in Europe – diversity versus uniformity", in: Galton, Maurice and Moon, Bob (eds) op.cit., p. 34.

analyse and reflect on processes within the learning group with respect to the historical subject under discussion; the ability to prepare, manage and co-ordinate the learning process in a way that enables pupils to reconstruct a certain historical situation and to deal with a certain historical event by applying critical historical methods; the ability to analyse possible ways of co-operation with colleagues, superiors and parents within the respective organisation; the ability to plan and implement interdisciplinary co-operation and project work.

This leads us to a **fourth** set question regarding initial training for history teachers: What is the professional profile of a history teacher who is to teach history to the new generation of pupils? Which academic and didactic competencies do future history teachers need?

Developing interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork

We said above that teaching is still largely seen and performed as an individual and “lonely” profession. Considering the teamwork and co-operation skills required in business enterprises all around the world, we have to ask ourselves whether this model of teaching still corresponds to today’s needs. International educational organisations have repeatedly stressed the importance of fostering teamwork and interdisciplinary co-operation through teacher training. The 45th session of the International Conference on Education in Geneva for example proposed in their Recommendation No. 2:

to develop basic skills among teachers for the performance of their indispensable role, which consists on the one hand in arranging information in such a way that it may become knowledge, in making choices and in developing critical faculties, and on the other hand in transmitting culture, forming personal and social relationships, being outgoing, favouring life together and promoting awareness of both differences and common values. In particular, these skills involve: ... Teamwork: inculcating attitudes encouraging co-operation and dialogue with colleagues and all levels of educational staff, the essential conditions for collective professionalism guiding teaching activities; ...¹¹

The future development of modern democratic societies depends on people who are able to communicate flexibly in different codes and to co-operate even in situations they are not familiar with. Teacher trainers, therefore, are called upon to develop new forms of directing the learning process in a way that foster trainees’ co-operation skills.

If we look at teacher training courses at university or college from this perspective, we find that most academic courses – and even pedagogical and didactic courses – do not encourage teamwork and co-operation between students *in an active way*. Teacher trainees work on their own most of the time, having to rely on their individual work and expertise. Therefore, it should be one of the major objectives of future initial training to foster students’ teamwork skills. Can we imagine that students also work together in teams in the same courses? Can we imagine that they prepare their practical lessons at school together in a team, that they also work together closely when teaching in the classroom and that, finally, all members of the group receive the same marks at the end of this process?

11. Unesco (1996) International Conference on Education. Draft declaration of the 45th session of the International Conference on Education. 30 September-5 October 1996, Geneva, p. 4.

These demands are in line with another requirement for the teaching profession: considering that our societies have become more complex, we need training situations which help us to simulate this complexity. Complex subjects – and training people to teach about historical processes is a very complex subject – also require a highly complex learning process.

Therefore, teacher training institutions are called upon to develop and implement more complex forms of organising teaching in the training situation on different levels of the learning process:

- on the level of students: for example through project-oriented structures in training courses; group work and project work; team teaching; and opportunities of systematic reflection upon teacher trainees' classroom experience in these teams;
- on the level of trainers, for example, by encouraging teamwork between trainers; interdisciplinary co-operation between different experts who work together in a training course, such as historians, ethnologists and psychologists in courses on the history of everyday life, or historians, didacticians and advisory teachers in seminars on subject didactics;¹²
- on the level of training institutions, for example, by developing curricula which offer opportunities of interdisciplinary co-operation in training courses.

This leads us to a **fifth** set of questions regarding initial training for history teachers: What can be done to improve students' teamwork skills? What kind of support is necessary for trainers and teacher training institutions to develop training models which provide opportunities of interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork?

The (im)balance between academic and professional training

A point that is often made in the context of teacher training is that students should first acquire a profound historical knowledge and academic competencies before they start to teach history. Standing in front of a class for the very first time, they will feel more confident if they have a thorough knowledge of their subject. This argument is put forward mostly by academic historians who defend the traditional form of teacher education at universities.

It is indeed a valid argument – but only to a certain extent. The question remains whether academic training is oriented towards history teaching, or whether it is limited to the “mere” academic training of students intending to become historians, researchers or archivists. Archaeological excursions, specialist courses on analysing medieval sources, statistical calculations in demography or quantitative analysis about the economic growth of the Rothschild bank between 1866 and 1873 may certainly be of interest and serve as good examples for teacher trainees, too, as long as they are related to the needs of history teaching at school. Yet this is rarely the case in academic training at university.

12. The German term *Fachdidaktik* is either translated as “subject didactics” or “subject-based didactics”. We prefer the first version.

Academic training should be linked more closely to professional training. Historians at university are not always aware that they are holding courses for future history teachers. History teachers need to systemise historical developments and to introduce pupils to the basic assumptions and tools of history. Academic training has to enable them to fulfil these tasks. This leads us to the **sixth** set of questions regarding initial training for history teachers: What can be done in ITT to create and maintain a fruitful balance between academic and professional training? What can be done to further develop the interest of academic historians as regards didactical problems and questions?

The relationship between didactic theory and teaching practice

As mentioned above, the relationship between theory and practice is traditionally experienced as a hierarchical one, so that there is very little direct horizontal co-operation between theoreticians and practising teachers in teacher training. Moreover, looking at current models of initial teacher training, we are confronted with a significant imbalance between theoretical and practical courses: an imbalance that is also obvious in the relation between theoretical instruction and opportunities of practical training. Students tend to think that most theoretical aspects of history teaching – as far as they exist at all – are too far removed from practical classroom reality. Consequently, most theories of learning and teaching are not as useful as they could be for practical work in the classroom.

This implies that a problem which affects all social sciences today has been neglected in the training of history teachers: the problem of creating and maintaining an equilibrium and a stable link between theory and practice. Our criticism of the lack of practical concerns in the education of history teachers does not refer only to the insufficient opportunities for students to gather practical classroom experience. It is more fundamental than that and is also directed at the imbalance between theory and practice in academic, general educational and sometimes even subject didactics.

This leads us to the seventh set of questions regarding ITT: What can be done to improve the balance between theoretical and practical experience in initial training for history teachers? What can be done to develop training courses into a “reflective practice” of history teaching?

These questions apply to various aspects of ITT: curriculum development; the theoretical conception of training courses; encouraging interdisciplinary teamwork among teachers and trainers; creating more opportunities of supervised practical training in schools. All in all, we need to find ways of integrating theory and reflection more closely with students’ personal experience of classroom practice.

Reflection upon the training situation

The different fields of training for history teacher trainees have been described above. Trainees should acquire the best qualifications to be well-prepared for their future work as teachers. But what about the trainers? The growing complexity of the learning process holds a number of challenges for teacher trainers as well.

Trainers are expected to evaluate the learning process in training courses on a permanent basis. They are also supposed to possess the necessary qualifications to provide students with extensive academic and didactic competencies. But where do they acquire their own qualifications? Besides, many historians and even didacticians are not used to co-operating in

their courses. Team teaching as an alternative structure of teaching is not an integral part of academic courses. Can we imagine, for example – and can we also implement (!) – training models where historians from university, didacticians/pedagogues *and* school-teachers work together closely in teams?

If, at the beginning of the 21st century, we aim at building societies where people are much more able and willing to co-operate than today, we need to educate coming generations to try and realise this aim. Therefore, teaching and especially teacher training is among the most important professions to prepare the ground for social and cultural change.

It is also quite obvious that a professional profile for history teachers, as outlined under point 4, requires extensive competencies on the part of teacher trainers especially in the areas which were defined as the professional profile there. It is important to stress that a model of “permanent learning” also entails the need for the trainers themselves to continue their own training on a permanent basis, for example by acquiring additional didactic skills outside university through courses in group dynamics or group pedagogy, organisational consulting and similar training programmes.

This leads us to the **eighth** set of questions regarding ITT: What can be done to assist teacher trainers in giving thought to and examining their work? What can be done to create more opportunities for university teachers and trainers themselves to develop and improve their own didactic qualifications? What can be done to institutionalise these training programmes at universities or other teacher training institutions?

These eight sets of questions indicate the path we might take in the initial training for future history teachers.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we might say that a modern model of initial teacher training for history teachers has to provide solutions for the following challenges:

- to relate the objectives as well as the model of training to the macro-social development of societies;
- to establish an adequate system of meta-reflection with respect both to the training of history teachers and to history teaching in the classroom;
- to improve the structures of co-operation between all institutions involved in teacher training;
- to clearly formulate a professional profile for future history teachers which may serve as a guideline for training programmes;
- to create a learning environment which offers opportunities for interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork;
- to maintain a fruitful balance between academic and professional competencies in the training process;
- to develop didactic theory in close connection with practical experience;
- to foster reflection among, and to create training opportunities for, the trainers themselves.

Most of the training models which served as the basis for these key questions require extensive content-oriented and organisational co-ordination on the part of the trainers. The value of such efforts of co-ordination is still widely underestimated by training institutions. Nevertheless, we firmly believe that an up-to-date curriculum for the education and training of teachers will certainly benefit from such forms of (interdisciplinary) co-operation. Every step into this direction would definitely improve the quality of teacher training. It would contribute to the conveyance of specialised contents as well as to the social integration of individual courses, so that both the academic and the job-related aspects of the courses would profit.

Ultimately, this would mean that we have reached a new level of quality in initial training for history teachers – and it would also serve as a small contribution towards developing a more democratic understanding of education.

Structures, standards and job prospects with
regard to initial training for history teachers: general
results of the comparative study

Alois Ecker

Organisation and methodology of the study

The idea for this comparative study emerged as a result of the activities of the Council of Europe's Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) on the reform of history teaching in countries in democratic transition.¹³ Living in the centre of Europe and looking at the rapid process of reform in history and history teaching in eastern and south-east Europe from a western European perspective, I became interested in a systematic comparison of the structures of teacher training which apply to those students who will be the history teachers of Europe's next generation of pupils. The field of teacher training is rather broad and heterogeneous, so it appeared logical to concentrate on one specific area first. The obvious choice was the initial training for history teachers: an area of teacher training which is also one of my main fields of activity.

The idea became more concrete at the first expert meeting for the CDCC project on "Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the 20th century", and I started to get into contact with the contributors to the study. The Austrian authorities agreed to grant substantial support to the study, and the project group adopted the study. In early 1998 a research group was constituted at the Institute of Economic and Social History at the University of Vienna.

As described in the introduction we had chosen a particular form of research for our investigations which is still rather new in the field of educational research:¹⁴ the combination of standardised questionnaires followed by expert discussions in two seminars and by corresponding working groups. We came to appreciate this form of organisational research as it can also be regarded as a particular form of intervention into the education systems concerned. Our questions provoked further investigation on a national and institutional level. In-depth discussions at two seminars and additional research on special topics in five working groups between April 1998 (Vienna) and June 1999 (Prague) revealed a number of crucial problems which we had not been aware of at first. With these two seminars we started to realise one of the original aims of this project: to establish an international platform for the systematic discussion and investigation of important issues and problems concerning initial training for history teachers and, thus, to develop a new quality of reflection upon the relevant needs in teacher training.

Our research was based on a twofold approach.

The first was based upon an evaluation of all available initial training (ITT) data. These were collected systematically in each country by the respective contributors with the help of two questionnaires (see below) and by using the databases of the national ministries of education. They were then forwarded to and compiled by the Vienna research group, which also compared the collected data with data from the European education database Eurydice, the Unesco "World database on education" and the OECD studies "Education at a glance".

The second approach was based upon in-depth expert discussions on qualitative aspects of the subject at the two seminars; five group networks which worked on relevant problems of the field for more than one year; the permanent exchange of information; and a final expert meeting.

13. "The reform of history teaching in schools in European countries in democratic transition", CDCC seminar report. Graz (Austria), 27 November-1 December 1994, Council of Europe.

14. See also: Schratz, Michael and Walker, Rob (1995) *Research as social change. New opportunities for qualitative research*, London: Routledge; Schratz, Michael, Iby, Manfred and Radnitzky, Edwin (2000) *Qualitätsentwicklung. Verfahren, Methoden, Instrumente*, Weinheim u. Basel: Beltz

Contributors to the study were asked to write a country report on the relevant structures of ITT. They were asked to describe – by answering a number of open questions – the structures of ITT as seen from the perspective of the education system in their country. These reports as well as additional presentations were discussed at the first seminar in Vienna.¹⁵

The Vienna seminar had several organisational objectives:

- to gain an overview of the relevant structures and standards in the ITT of history teachers through a systematic discussion of the country reports and the presentations given at the seminar;
- to obtain a differentiated picture on relevant issues in the field which might then be investigated more closely in all participating countries with the help of a detailed questionnaire;
- to identify crucial problems in the field of ITT and to establish smaller working groups to deal with these topics in networks over the next months.

Two fields of research emerged at the Vienna seminar. The first field was that of collecting structural data on ITT. This work was co-ordinated by the Vienna research group and the main aims were to:

- to draft the new questionnaire on the basis of the information gathered from the country reports and in the discussions at the seminar;
- to send out the questionnaire to all contributors and to assist with its completion;
- to collect and evaluate data;
- to collect additional information on various questions from European education databases, and to compare this information with that obtained from the questionnaire;
- to systemise the collected data.

The second field concerned the qualitative approach to crucial problems of ITT. This was the field of the working groups, whose tasks were to collect information and examples on the topic they had chosen for further discussion and investigation by networking among the group members; and to prepare a report for the next expert seminar in Prague.

Each working group had one or two co-ordinators who were responsible for stimulating the discussion of the topic chosen by the group. Five groups were established at the Vienna seminar, dealing with: ITT models, entrance requirements, selection and evaluation of students; institutional links, partnership models; fostering academic and practical competencies; initial training in multicultural societies; and training the trainers.

Originally, the group co-ordinators were supposed to meet in the autumn of 1998 to fine-tune research activities and to prepare a draft programme for the second seminar. Owing to financial restrictions this meeting had to be cancelled, which led to considerable problems of co-ordination; however, thanks to e-mail and additional personal commitment at all levels, we managed to overcome these difficulties.

15. “Initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe”; Vienna, op.cit.

The second seminar in Prague¹⁶ was generously organised by the Czech Ministry of Education. Its main functions were to:

- present the first results of the Vienna research group which had systemised and evaluated the data from the questionnaires and compared them with additional information obtained from European education databases;
- discuss the results with all participants and to identify additional issues to be further investigated with the help of a new questionnaire;
- present and discuss the reports of the group networks and to prepare the final reports on that work to be included in the study;
- develop recommendations and guidelines concerning initial training for history teachers for teacher trainers, teacher training institutions, ministries of education and the Council of Europe.

The Prague seminar offered the opportunity to get an overview of the collected data and to fine tune the results.

After the Prague seminar, the Vienna group drafted a second questionnaire for more in-depth information on some areas and then prepared the preliminary versions of the country overviews. These were sent out to both the contributors of the study and the ministries of education, or the representatives of the Council of Europe's Education Committee, respectively, asking for additional comments, corrections and/or additional information and updating of data. The comparison of the data collected from these reports formed the basis of the comparative approach in the first part of this study. After Prague, the group co-ordinators started to work on the articles which now form the second part of the study. All texts were discussed at an editorial meeting in Vienna in 1999, and the fine tuning and editorial work finally began in spring 2000.

For a general classification of education data we refer to the OECD's revised International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97),¹⁷ which was adopted by the Unesco General Conference in 1997 as well as by Eurydice, the European database on education.

Aims and central questions of this comparative study

This is a pilot study. It is the first comparative study on the structures of initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe: The states are: Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain and the United Kingdom (England and Wales).

16. "Initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe", Prague, op.cit.

17. OECD (1999) "Classifying educational programmes". Manual for ISCED-97 Implementation in OECD countries. 1999 Edition, Paris.

The general aims of this comparative study are to:

- provide information and foster networking to put initial training for history teachers on a more professional level;
- offer information on the relevant structures and standards of initial training for history teachers in 13 member states of the Council of Europe;
- provide database and background information on ITT to encourage an empirically based discussion of and reflection on the relevant problems in the Council of Europe, intergovernmental educational institutions, non-governmental organisations and ministries of education;
- provide training institutions and teacher trainers with systematic information about curricula and standards in ITT;
- provide trainers and the trainers of trainers with information about professional profiles and/or other national and international standards of their job;
- offer information about current trends and problems in ITT, and
- put forward recommendations and guidelines regarding ITT to the Council of Europe, ministries of education and teacher training institutions.

As described above, we developed two questionnaires to collect relevant data on ITT in the participating countries. The fields concerned were:

- ITT structures:
 - ITT models: concurrent, consecutive, modular
 - length of studies
 - conditions of assessment and graduation
 - the content of curricula
 - the relation between academic and professional training
 - the relation between theoretical and practical training
- the concepts and/or theoretical background of training structures:
 - the professional profile of history teachers
 - qualified teacher status
 - the relation between general and professional training
 - teamwork and project-oriented training
 - the content of subject didactics for history
- institutions:
 - universities, pedagogical universities
 - colleges, pedagogical academies
 - other teacher training institutes
 - addresses and contacts

- trainers:
 - types of teacher trainers
 - qualifications
 - training opportunities
 - in-service training for trainers
- the relation between ITT and history teaching in secondary schools:
 - institutional links, partnership models
 - forms of practical training
 - the contents of ITT curricula compared with school curricula: similarities and differences
- structures of history teaching in secondary schools:
 - lessons per week
 - relation between political, social, economic and cultural history
 - relation between local, national, European and World history
 - expected changes in history teaching
- the job situation of history teachers:
 - feminisation
 - pupils-per-teacher ratio
 - age distribution
 - salaries
 - job opportunities for young teachers
 - necessity of taking on a second or third job to earn enough money

The focus of interest

As this study mainly deals with history teachers, it might be expected to describe the situation of history teachers in secondary school classrooms or the experience of pupils who are taught history at school. However, this is not the case – and we are very much aware of that. We think that studies which are concerned with this first level of observation and reflection – that is history teaching in the classroom – are, indeed, highly important (especially if they are based on the systematic empirical observation and collection of data). Still, we decided to focus on the second level of observation and reflection – that is, teacher training. History teaching in the classroom has been investigated comprehensively before,¹⁸ while this has not been the case with teacher training.

18. See Angvik, Magne and von Borries, Bodo (eds) (1997). *Youth and history. Comparative European survey on historical consciousness and political attitudes among adolescents* (two volumes). Hamburg: Körber-Stiftung; Van der Leeuw-Roord, Joke (ed.) (1998a) and *The state of history education in Europe. Challenges and implications of the "Youth and History" survey*. Hamburg: Körber-Stiftung.

Our study, therefore, includes the structures and standards that apply to the initial training of students who want to become history teachers as well as to the trainers who train them and the institutions where they are trained. We also take an in-depth look at the third level of observation and reflection, that is, the training of the trainers.

As concerns initial training for history teachers, the study focuses on two social fields of investigation: first, the organisational dimension of ITT as a relevant factor in training, covering training institutions and the structures of training, and second, the personnel dimension of ITT, that is fostering historical and didactic competencies, knowledge and skills and training for future history teachers, and dealing with the training and qualification of the trainers.

We may relate these two fields to the general dimension of innovation in school. On the one hand, we were interested in issues of organisational development, or the development of structures of communication and co-ordination in ITT. On the other hand, we looked at concepts specifically aimed at the personnel, such as the development of qualifications, knowledge and skills in the “social subjects”, and at the actors involved in this social system: the trainers and the students.

As regards the *organisational dimension*, we were interested in the following questions:

- What are the organisational standards in ITT?
- What are the standards of communication and co-operation in and among training institutions?
- What are the standards of communication and teamwork within training structures and training models?

On a more normative level and in the context of current efforts to put history teaching on a more professional basis, the question we sought to answer was: Do training structures and learning environments provide opportunities to acquire and improve the key competencies which student teachers need to develop in order to be successful as (future) history teachers?

These questions are also connected to the institutional dimension of teacher training. We think that this dimension actually exerts the biggest influence on future forms of teacher behaviour. Therefore, we might even claim that institutional rules form the “hidden standards” of initial teacher training.

As regards the people involved in ITT, we were interested in the following questions:

- What are the standards of personal training during initial teacher training?
- Is there a professional profile for history teachers which may serve as a basis for planning and designing training courses?
- Which academic and didactic competencies do trainees have to acquire during their studies?
- Which opportunities are provided in training to foster complex analytic and reflective learning processes?

- Are structures of learning organised in a way that allows trainees to relate theoretical concepts to their individual practical experience?
- Which assumptions of historical consciousness and historical thinking form the basis of training concepts?
- Which methods of dealing with the past should future history teachers be able to apply when teaching history in the classroom?
- Which standards exist for the trainers themselves? Is there a professional profile for trainers?

Another field of interest concerned the job opportunities for those who are trained to become history teachers:

Where will they work?

What will they have to teach?

How much will they earn?

What prestige does their job hold?

Which demands will they have to face in the future?

We know that this pilot study can only give preliminary answers. Future research, hopefully, will provide additional data and deeper insights into the field. For the time being, we hope that the categories that we propose will be of interest also to those working in the field. We will now describe some of the central findings of our studies.

Results

Organisational structures of ITT – general information

Institutions

Here, we refer to the European database on education, Eurydice. The Eurydice database gives information on 11 of the 13 countries covered by our study. In addition to current¹⁹ Eurydice data, we also included data from Albania and the Russian Federation in our comparison. The introduction of a chapter on teachers and their training in the latest Eurydice edition states that:

In the European Union and EFTA/EEA [European Free Trade Association/European economic area] countries today, training for teachers working in primary and secondary schools is provided at tertiary education level, either in universities or in non-university tertiary education institutions. University-level training is becoming the norm at higher levels of education. ... In the pre-accession countries, the initial training of primary and secondary school teachers is also mainly organised within tertiary education, with the possibility of university-level training.²⁰

19. The editorial deadline of this study was October 2000.

20. Eurydice /European Commission (2000). Key data on education in Europe 99/2000, Brussels, Luxemburg, p. 123; also see <http://eurydice.org>

In our study we concentrated on the training of history teachers in lower and upper secondary schools of both types of education (general and vocational), and we found that, concerning teaching at lower secondary school, ITT takes place at university or pedagogical university in most countries, with the exception of a few countries where ITT also takes place at other training institutions. This is the case in: Austria: pedagogical academies; Hungary: teacher training colleges; Norway: colleges of higher education; Portugal: polytechnics.

The degrees students obtain at these last four institutions entitle them to teach history only in (some)²¹ lower secondary general or lower secondary vocational²² schools. However, reforms are being discussed to establish an overall educational structure which is equivalent and comparable to university studies²³ and which will also cover the above-mentioned types of training institutions.

We also found that in teaching at upper secondary school, ITT is provided at university or pedagogical university in all countries.

Thus, most teacher trainees who want to become “full history teachers” (that is qualified to teach both at lower and upper secondary school) are trained at university or pedagogical university today.

Over the past ten years we have seen a tendency to establish ITT at the tertiary level. Therefore, what we have just said does not necessarily mean that most history teachers who work at school today actually hold a university degree or diploma. Only those who are under 30 years are (almost) certain to have a university degree.

[See appendix IV, tab. I]

We noticed that universities provide ITT in all countries. Besides, pedagogical universities (Netherlands, Russian Federation), teacher training colleges (Spain, Hungary, Norway, UK) or pedagogical academies (Austria), teacher seminars (Estonia), university institutes for teacher training (IUFMs) (France) or Polytechnic institutes (Portugal) are involved in initial training for history teachers. Furthermore, we must not forget the (secondary) schools which provide practical training in almost all countries.

Requirements regarding the organisation of ITT are laid down both by the state and the training institutions themselves. This is the case in all countries. The ministries of education develop or approve the legal framework for the organisation of ITT, but the institutions are – more or less – autonomous in developing their specific organisational structures as well as their curricula. Owing to this autonomy, ITT structures at universities usually differ much more from each other – even within a single country – than those at teacher training colleges, where decision-taking tends to be more centralised. In Czech Republic, Estonia and the Russian Federation, associations of history teachers also exert a certain influence on ITT requirements. Working groups for process management have a similar function in the Netherlands.

21. Austria: with the certificate from a *Pädagogische Akademie* (Pedagogical Academy), history teachers are entitled to teach only at *Hauptschule* (the less prestigious form of lower secondary school).

22. Hungary

23. Austria: reforms aim at reorganising *Pädagogische Akademien* into pedagogical universities within the next seven years.

At university, ITT is usually provided either by a faculty of history (Bulgaria, Estonia, Russian Federation), by a faculty of history and philology (Albania), or by one or several institutes or departments of history (Austria, Czech Republic) that form part of a larger faculty of philosophy, of education (Czech Republic) or of the arts (Czech Republic) or of a faculty of human sciences (Austria, France). Different faculties/institutes are in charge of the organisation of teacher training and/or provide special courses of ITT, for example a faculty/institute of pedagogy (Austria, Bulgaria) and/or a faculty/institute of psychology (Austria, Bulgaria).

These data already show that the organisational structure of ITT is rather heterogeneous – or, as one of our contributors said, “there is no centralised system”, neither in a single country nor on a bi-national or multinational level.

Length of studies

The average length of study to become a full history teacher, qualified to teach at lower and upper secondary school, is four to five years, including academic and professional/practical training.

The minimum length of studies is three years. Minimum-length studies entitle graduates to teach only at lower secondary school. This is the case with pedagogical academies in Austria, history studies at a faculty of art or faculty of education in the Czech Republic, and studies at a faculty of education in the Russian Federation, with studies in the last two countries ending at Bachelor of Arts level.

The maximum length is five and one-half years (Austria) to six years (France, Spain, UK – 3rd grade), all examples including at least one year²⁴ of practical training after graduation from university.

As for history teachers who are entitled to work in an extended form of compulsory school,²⁵ (Austria: *Gymnasium*; Bulgaria: *gymnasia*; Czech Republic: *gymnázium*; France: *college/lycée*; Netherlands: pre-university education; Russian Federation: complete secondary school) or in upper secondary school, the length of studies for teacher trainees has not changed much over the last decades because these studies had been organised at university level, or in close connection with university studies, even before. Studies for admission to teach at lower secondary level, on the other hand, have become longer.

24. In Spain, students have to take a teacher training course (minimum length: 300 hours) after graduating from university. In France, students who succeed in the open competition for the Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire (CAPES) are admitted to one year of professional training at an Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres (IUFM).

25. The ISCED classification distinguishes between lower (ISCED 2) and upper secondary education (ISCED 3), the former starting around the age of 10, the latter starting at the age of 14 or 15 and ending at 18 or 19. In reality, secondary school structures differ quite substantially, especially in the organisation of education between the ages of 10 (Austria, Hungary), 11 (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, France, UK) or 12 (Netherlands) and the ages of 14 (Austria, Albania, UK) 15 (Austria, France, Russian Federation) or 16 (Hungary, Netherlands). Some countries have a system of basic/comprehensive education which starts at the age of 6 or 7 and ends at 15 (Spain, Estonia, Portugal, Russian Federation) or 16 (Netherlands). Compulsory full-time education lasts until either 14 (Albania) 15 (Austria, Czech Republic, Spain, Estonia, France, Portugal, Russian Federation) or 16 (Bulgaria, Hungary, Netherlands, Norway, UK). For more information please see Eurydice (2000) Key data, p.17.

The extension of tertiary-level training to include history teachers who will teach at lower secondary schools is still rather new. The respective organisational reforms date back to the late 1960s (Austria), the 1970s (UK), the late 1980s (France) or the 1990s (Spain, Estonia, Netherlands, Russian Federation).²⁶ Further research in the field might explore the reasons of this development.

Naturally, there are several factors which have been involved here. The prolongation of the period of teacher education may be interpreted as a sign that the challenges in teaching generally have increased over the last decades and that one solution chosen by policy-makers in education was to extend the respective courses of study. Another question to ask is why universities and/or pedagogical universities were deemed adequate structures of teacher training? Was it because the university training model was more attractive? Or because university representatives were more successful in lobbying than the representatives of pedagogical colleges? Or was it because universities still have the status of being institutions of 'higher education' and, thus, enjoy more prestige so that choosing them seemed to be the adequate answer to new problems in teacher training? Each of these aspects played a certain role, but another factor of general importance in teacher education is also worth mentioning.

Focusing, above all, on subject-based studies, the university model of education was considered an interesting option for teacher education in the growing discussion on the professionalisation of teacher training. It was considered important that teachers of younger pupils (between 10 and 14) also receive their training at a certain distance from the classroom experience at secondary level. With its systematic theoretical orientation, tertiary education at university seemed well-suited to foster the systematic, analytic and reflective competencies of teacher trainees and to introduce them to complex theoretical models to help them analyse and explain their social experience in general and their school experience in particular. The argument is convincing – yet future empirical research still has to prove whether teacher training at university actually fulfils these expectations. This leads us to the next category.

Training models

The Eurydice indicators distinguish between two main models of initial teacher training:

The professional and practical training of teachers is provided either at the same time as their general course (the concurrent model) or following the general course, for instance at post-graduate level (the consecutive model). ... In most EU and EFTA/EEA countries, the concurrent model is adopted for training primary level teachers. Conversely, the consecutive model characterises the training of secondary level teachers. In the pre-accession countries, the concurrent model is the most common whatever the level of education.²⁷

26. Anweiler, Oskar et al. (1996) *Bildungssysteme*, pp.75.

27. Eurydice (2000) *Key data*, p.123.

Regarding ITT for history teachers, the distribution in our sample was as follows:

- concurrent: six countries (almost half of our sample) have only concurrent models (Albania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Norway, Russian Federation);
- concurrent and consecutive: another four countries have both forms (Austria, Estonia, Netherlands, Portugal);
- consecutive: the remaining three countries have only consecutive models (Spain, France, UK).

[See appendix IV, map A]

The concurrent model normally prevails in institutions which prepare trainees for teaching at lower secondary school, while the consecutive model is dominant in institutions which prepare trainees for teaching at lower and upper secondary level.

A brief look at the regional distribution of the two types of training shows a predominance of consecutive models in western and central European countries, while the concurrent model is more common in eastern European countries. On the surface, thus, our findings correspond to the data in Eurydice.

However, in contrast to Eurydice, our numerical overview gives the impression that there is a dominant trend towards concurrent models also in those countries where ITT takes place mostly at university. This would imply that academic training and professional and/or practical training take place in a more or less integrated form. Yet when we analysed the curricula, we noticed that some of the concurrent forms are still based on consecutive models. There is very little professional or practical training during the general course. This is the case in almost all university models. Contrary to these, curricula at pedagogical universities or teacher training colleges are normally closer to the concurrent model:

The relation between academic and professional/practical training

We also looked at the relation between academic courses, courses of general pedagogy, courses of special didactics and practical training during the period of university studies.²⁸

There are slight differences between the individual countries, but in most cases academic courses make up between 70% and 80% of all courses in this period. The highest share of academic courses in all courses is 95% (Spain: universities),²⁹ the lowest share is approximately 60% (France: IUFM).³⁰

In most countries, 0% to 20% are devoted to *courses of general didactics*; the average share is approximately 10% (0% in Spain: universities; 20% in Hungary: universities).

28. Not including post-graduate practical training.

29. Followed by one year of practical training at school.

30. In Portugal, a reform that became effective in 1998 allows universities to establish closer co-operation with secondary schools, so that students may be supervised in university seminars during their fifth year (= practical training at school).

Between 5% and 20% of all courses are dedicated to subject didactics of history (*Fachdidaktik*) (5% in Spain: universities; 20% in France: IUFM).

From 0% to 10% are devoted to practical training (0% in Spain: universities,³¹ 10% in Austria: universities, and France:

[See appendix IV, map B]

University studies are followed by a longer period of post-graduate training in some countries (Austria, Spain, Estonia, France, Netherlands, Portugal, UK), especially in those countries where consecutive models prevail. Post-graduate forms of training are usually organised in close co-operation with teacher training institutes and schools (France, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain UK) or they take place at school (Austria, Spain, Estonia).³² With the exception of the French model, these forms of training are not – or not closely – linked with preceding training courses at university.

Generally, we might say that the *consecutive structure* is still quite often the dominant structure behind the concurrent model. However, there have been recent initiatives in some countries (Albania, Austria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Norway, Russian Federation) to increase the share of practical and/or professional training already in university studies and to establish the concurrent model at university, too.

As concerns the training concept of the consecutive model, it is based – as far as we know – on the assumption that students first need to be trained in academic history courses to learn historical facts by heart and/or to familiarise themselves with historians' tools before they start to think about or deal with problems of teaching history. This study is not the right place for a detailed discussion of this attitude, but didacticians and psychologists of all theoretical orientations have long proved that the logic of learning is not as simple as that (see the contribution by Drosneva and Strotzka).

Case study: the Russian Federation on academic, didactic and practical courses at universities and pedagogical universities

As shown in the diagrams below, pedagogical universities do not necessarily provide more practical training. In the Russian Federation, the percentage of academic courses is higher at universities than at pedagogical universities. On the other hand, pedagogical universities in the Russian Federation place more emphasis on general didactics and subject didactics, while universities offer more opportunities of practical training in laboratories (8%) and schools (3%).

Comparing what has been said about the consecutive structure at university with the structure of ITT at teacher training colleges, we get a different picture:

The concurrent model prevails:

- academic courses make up a much smaller share of studies, between 25% (Spain) and 60% (Hungary) of all courses;
- courses of general pedagogy make up between 20% (Austria, Hungary) and 30% (Spain);

31. For universities in Spain see footnote above.

32. In most countries these history teacher trainees receive a lower salary (approx. half of the salary a full-time teacher usually earns) during this period of practical training at school.

- subject didactics makes up between 10% (Hungary) and 25% (Austria);
- practical training makes up between 10% (Hungary) and 25% (Austria, Spain).

However, the quantitative factors discussed above can be misleading, since the relation between two, three or four factors in education does not necessarily prove the *quality of training*. To get a better insight into the qualitative aspects of ITT we have to look at the concrete conditions of teaching as well as at teachers' competencies and at possible ways of establishing complex training structures (for example the potential to integrate different levels of a learning process – the cognitive as well as the affective level), and we have to explore forms of co-ordination and co-operation within and among training courses.

Institutional co-operation, institutional links, partnership models

As we have outlined above, the training structures in ITT are rather heterogeneous both on the national level and, sometimes, also on the level of the training institutions themselves. Academic courses and courses of subject didactics and general pedagogics often do not seem to be very well co-ordinated. Still, the question of institutional co-operation concerns a number of different levels.

It would also be interesting to explore the structures of co-ordination between political, strategic and administrative units in ITT on a regional or national level: for example the forms of co-operation between representatives of the political and the administrative system, or the co-operation between ministries of education and universities/faculties or the forms of co-operation between various faculties and institutes involved in a concrete training programme.

As far as we know, all these questions have never been systematically investigated with respect to ITT even in a single country, so it would have required a tremendous effort to initiate a serious comparative study on this topic on an international level. Nevertheless, we are convinced that these questions will have to be tackled very soon to realise effective and professional structures in teacher education. At the moment we can merely assume – considering our own experience with training institutions and the information we obtained in the discussions at the two seminars – that there are many “missing links” in the co-ordination between the political, strategic and administrative units which play a role in ITT. Educational policy makers, heads of administrative units as well as heads of teacher training institutions very often cannot rely on sufficient and/or effective structures for institutional co-operation, nor do they always find themselves encouraged to develop such structures. All these missing links put those involved under a lot of stress in their day-to-day work. Misinformation, misunderstanding and, consequently, mistrust or resignation drain them of their energy, making it hard for them to remain productive and creative in organisational management.

Our study, therefore, focuses on a particular sector of organisational co-operation – the links between institutions which are responsible for general courses and those which are responsible for practical training. What we found is that there is very little co-operation between different institutions involved in ITT training programmes. Generally, there is very little co-operation between universities as bodies of academic and pedagogical/didactical training and schools as bodies of practical training.

We received information only about a few models where institutional co-operation is established by contracts between institutions. This is the case with partnership models in England, with the organisation of practical training at IUFMs in France and with the co-operation between universities and secondary schools concerning practical training in Bulgaria.

The second form of partnership model which we found is contracts between a training institution and an individual expert, for example an advisory teacher in a secondary school who also trains students in their practical stage. These forms of contracts exist with partnership models in the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the process-oriented model in Austria (for more information, see the contribution by Christa Donnermair).

It will probably not come as a surprise to most readers that even within individual institutions there is a lack of effective co-operation and co-ordination between the institutes or departments involved in ITT. Regarding themselves primarily as places of research, university units pay little attention to what is happening in training courses. Besides, there is still little awareness of the fact that inter-institutional co-operation is a key factor in improving the quality of learning and teaching at universities.

Interdisciplinary co-operation, team teaching and teamwork among trainers

What has been said for the quality of inter-institutional co-operation also applies to inter-personal co-operation. The quality of training courses will improve if there is effective co-ordination at different levels of the trainers' work. As long as there is no explicit co-ordination and planning on the trainer level, it will be hard to achieve a co-ordinated learning process on the students' side. This factor is important with respect to both the contents to be taught and the social competencies to be acquired. Contents which are not explicitly related to each other by the trainers will also remain isolated and not reflected in the work of the students. As long as they are not reflected upon and productively dealt with in the learning process, conflicts in the group – conflicts between teachers and students as well as conflicts among students, as insignificant as they might be – will impede learners in developing the necessary social competencies.

Even today, co-ordination between trainers remains rather abstract. This co-ordination is formally based on the structure of curricula and syllabuses. But which trainer is really interested in what is going on in other courses – as long as there is no institutionalised need to take an interest? Who really knows what her or his colleague teaches in another history seminar? Which historian knows the contents of the psychologist's course, and which didactician knows those of the archaeologist's course?

In fact, one finding of both the questionnaires and the discussions at the two seminars was that there is still little interdisciplinary co-operation between different subjects and their representatives.

One question with respect to universities was whether academic courses are co-ordinated with courses of general didactics and subject didactics and/or with practical courses. The result was that:

- courses are always separated in six countries (Albania, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Russia Federation, UK);
- courses are mostly separated in Bulgaria;

- courses are partly co-ordinated in the other six countries (Austria, Spain, France, Norway, Netherlands, Portugal), but this co-ordination rarely covers more than a fifth of all courses.

[See appendix IV, map C]

It comes as no surprise that there is very little co-ordination of training courses between academic and professional training in institutions where the consecutive model prevails. Interdisciplinary co-operation on a broader basis hardly exists at universities. The main argument against it is that it costs more money so that options for its practical realisation are limited. While this is certainly true, it must also be taken into account that there is a lot of pressure on university teachers to engage in productive, successful research activities, while there is considerably less support for their teaching activities. In our opinion, this seems to be the most dominant cause of the lack of interdisciplinary co-operation in ITT. A second factor – which may sound paradoxical, but which is linked to the first point – is that until recently, universities (especially in the human sciences like history, languages, etc.) have attached more importance to the individual specialisation of their members than to teamwork and co-operation.

Generally, we may say that interdisciplinary co-operation is still underdeveloped in teacher training at universities. University teachers set a bad example with respect to teamwork and team teaching. If we relate these facts to the recommendations of educational institutions which describe the needs for teacher education in the 21st century,³³ and in particular the importance of teamwork as one of the future key competencies, the question arises where students are trained to acquire and use these key competencies.

Teacher trainees do not get a lot of opportunities for group work, either. We asked for the share of individual studies, group work, project work and other forms of learning in the entire period of university studies, and we found that in most countries, individual studies take up between 80% and 90% of the entire time, in others 5% to 10% of studies are organised as group work, and the remaining 5% to 10% are organised as project work.³⁴

This might suggest that the concurrent model offers more support for interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork. While we agree with this assumption in principle, we also found that there is no guarantee for a realisation of interdisciplinary co-operation within the concurrent model in concrete situations. We rarely heard about courses where experts from different disciplines work together as a team, for example historians, psychologists and didacticians working together in a course of subject didactics. Judging from the information obtained in the expert discussions, there is still much room for improvement in the co-ordination between academic, didactic and practical training at both pedagogical universities and teacher training colleges.

We would like to conclude this chapter by quoting from the OECD study on “teachers for tomorrow’s schools”³⁵ which expresses the opinion that innovation for tomorrow’s schools will largely depend:

on what teachers do collectively and how they are permitted to develop their schools, separately and across systems. It also depends on whether they can define a new type of professionalism ... which ... most importantly ... will require: ... “Organisational

33. See “Teachers for tomorrow’s schools”, op. cit. pp. 25-39.

34. Less time is devoted to individual studies in two countries (Albania and Netherlands).

35. “Teachers for tomorrow’s schools”, op.cit. p.38

competence and collaboration” – among other competencies as “Expertise”, “Pedagogical know-how”, “Understanding of technology”, “Flexibility”, “Mobility” and “Openness”.

As regards organisational competence, the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation maintains that teacher professionalism can no longer be seen simply as an individualised competence, but rather must incorporate the ability to function as part of a “learning organisation” and that the ability to learn from and to teach other teachers is perhaps the most important aspect of this attribute.

Future history teachers also need to be prepared to develop adequate organisational competencies. Therefore, we need to ask which opportunities existing ITT curricula offer in this respect.

Initial training as a starting point in history teachers’ careers

The first part of this overview of the results of our comparative study was devoted to the organisational structures of ITT and their possible implications on the standards regarding the competencies and skills of future history teachers. The second part provides basic demographic data about the clients of teacher training, the reputation of the job and about graduates’ current and future job-opportunities, and then discusses the main standards in training curricula.

Who are the students?

We did not always receive exact data on the proportion of male to female history students/graduates trained or training to work as teachers. However, we did find it a clear trend that even today, more than half of all history teachers in lower and upper secondary schools are women, and the number of female history teachers will continue to rise. In general, the last century was marked by an increasing feminisation in the profession of teaching,³⁶ and this trend has not stopped yet. History teaching is no exception to this trend. The last five years have seen an increasing feminisation regarding history teacher trainees and graduates.³⁷

This trend towards feminisation continues in 10 countries, Albania, Austria, Czech Republic, United Kingdom, France, Hungary, Netherlands, Norway, Spain and Portugal. A deviating tendency was observed only in Bulgaria and Estonia, where the percentage of female teachers in lower and upper secondary schools is already rather high by comparison (over 70% in Bulgaria, approximately 80% in Estonia).³⁸ We did not receive any data from Russian Federation, but we were told that the percentage of female teachers in Russian secondary general schools was 84% in 1994,³⁹ and all our collaborators agreed that it was still on the rise. In general, the percentage of female history teachers is higher at lower secondary school. In terms of regional distribution, the percentage of female history teachers is higher in eastern and south-east European countries than in western European countries.

36. Bölling, Rainer (1983) *Lehrer*, pp.10; Ecker, Alois (1995) *Frauenarbeit*, pp.162.

37. In 1998, more than 65% of Austrian history graduates trained to work as teachers were women. In Albania, from the total number of graduates in history teaching, only one fourth were male: there were 60 male and 191 female students.

38. Eurydice 2000, p.135; we obtained the same results for Albanian teachers (see country reports).

39. Anweiler, Oskar et al. (1996) *Bildungssysteme*, p. 186.

What are the implications of this trend on the teaching of history? This is an important question. The changing paradigms in historiography have clearly shown that, for centuries, history has predominantly been the history of men, neglecting the role and the place of women in history. As we will show below, political history still prevails in school curricula, and this means that the history of men continues to dominate textbooks and, presumably, lessons.

What are female history teachers going to do with men's history? How will they present it? Can female children identify with a history of men? Will there be enough information provided for the classroom to go beyond men's history and also address women's history and gender history? Are teacher trainers sufficiently aware of the fact that the majority of the students they are training to become history teachers are women? Is gender even a relevant issue in ITT, or should teacher trainers ignore it?

These are just a few potential questions to be discussed at future trainers' seminars.

The reputation of history teaching as a profession

It has been argued by a number of authors that the feminisation of a profession is accompanied by a decreasing reputation of the job in society – and, quite often, also by a relative decrease in salary. Our data are not entirely clear in this respect so we cannot substantiate this assumption as such, but we did note one general trend. The reputation of studying “history teaching” at university is lower, in general, than the reputation of studying “history” (research). The reputation of history (research) is higher in former communist countries than in western European countries, excepting France.

We also learned that neither history nor history teaching are studies with a particularly impressive reputation at the moment. Studies currently considered highly prestigious are, for example, computer sciences, genetics, mathematics (France), law, economics, finance (Hungary), or mathematics, medicine and science-related subjects (Netherlands), while teachers training in general and classical philology (ancient Greek and Latin) and teacher training in general belong to those studies with the lowest reputation in all three countries.

[See appendix IV, map D]

What do history teachers earn?

It is no great surprise that history teaching is not among the best-paid jobs in Europe. History teachers' salaries – at both lower and upper secondary school – are “above the average” income (in relation to the per capita GDP)⁴⁰ in four of our survey countries (Austria, Spain, Netherlands, Portugal). In two countries (France, UK), the salaries of history teachers fall into the “middle class”⁴¹ range. Teachers' salaries in Norway are below average. However, the

40. See Eurydice (2000), pp.136. The GDP is an indicator of the general standard of living in a country. For this survey we have used the Eurydice indicators which illustrate the financial position of teachers in relation to the average standard of living in their countries. The respective figures were obtained by “dividing the gross annual salary (minimum and maximum) in national currency by the per capita GDP (at current prices in national currency) of the country concerned ... Gross annual salary is defined as the amount paid by the employer in the year – including all bonuses, increases and allowances such as those for cost of living, end of year (if applicable), holiday pay, etc. – less the employer's social security and pension contributions. This salary does not include any other financial benefits in respect of additional functions, further qualifications or specific responsibilities.”

41. Salaries were classified as “above average” when teachers' “minimum salaries” were above 100% and “maximum salaries” above 150% in relation to the per capita GDP. The “middle class” category applied to those

situation of history teachers in eastern and south-east Europe is rather different. Generally, history teachers are regarded as middle-class wage-earners there, too, but this is primarily a social category which is not necessarily related to their actual income – in three countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary) the financial situation of young teachers forces them to take on a second or third job to earn an additional income⁴² and maintain even a minimum standard of living; in the remaining three countries (Albania, Bulgaria, Russian Federation) this problem also affects older teachers.

In western Europe there is quite a big difference in salary between teachers who are at the beginning of their career and those who are already at the end of theirs. In some countries (Portugal, Austria, Spain) the maximum salary is twice as high (or even higher) than the minimum salary. Seniority is also a major determinant of teachers' salaries in eastern Europe, especially in Estonia and Hungary. In many countries there are also marked differences in salary between teachers at lower secondary school and those at upper secondary school. These differences are not necessarily related to different qualifications, but rather to the status of the respective type of school (for example in Austria: Hauptschule or Gymnasium).

When do graduates start to teach history?

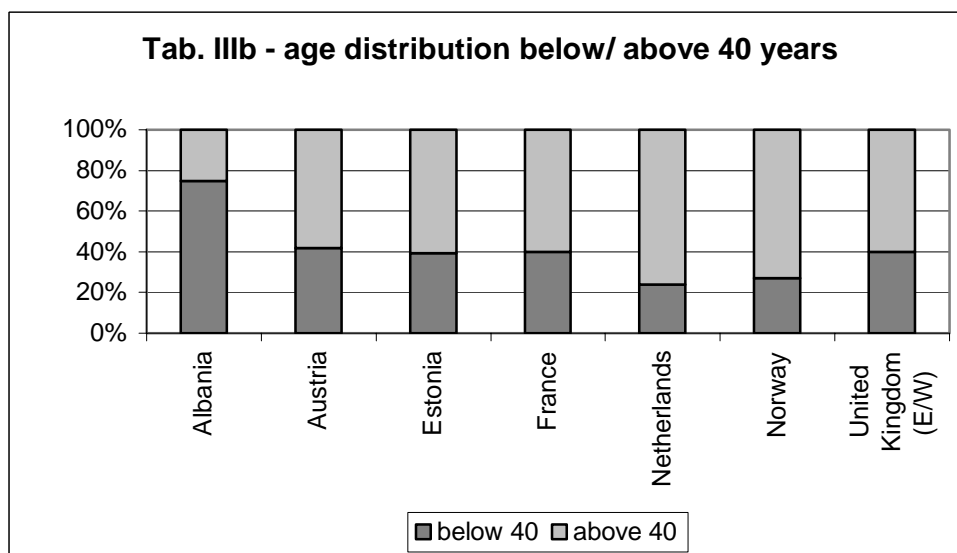
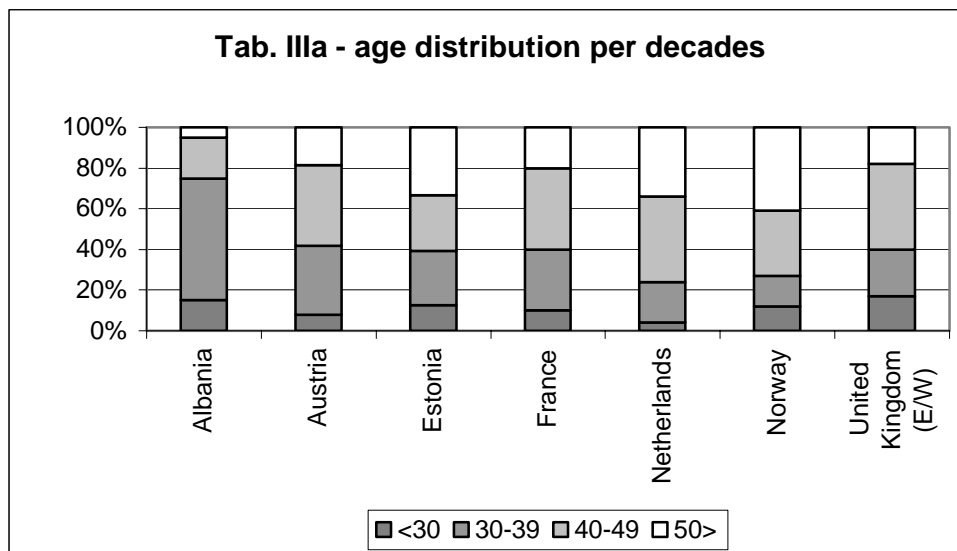
The expected income might be a significant factor for young people's decision to become teachers, but it is certainly not the only reason. We have already identified reputation as another important factor. Future job opportunities are a further key factor. However, the job situation differs considerably from one country to another.

In Portugal, teachers are very well paid, graduates have to wait for six to ten years to get a job. A shortage of jobs was also observed in Austria, Spain, and Hungary, where graduates have to wait for two to four years to get employed as teachers. Bulgaria reported that jobs were currently rather scarce, while the other countries said there were enough vacancies for young teachers. But will the situation remain like this within the next five, ten or fifteen years?

This kind of information would certainly be useful for teacher trainers, since it not only affects their own job opportunities, but would also make it easier for them to define the objectives and contents of their courses and curricula. In our opinion, for example, it should certainly make a difference for teacher trainers whether their students will start to teach history only in ten years' time and not already in five years' time.

countries where teachers' "minimum salaries" were higher than 50% and "maximum salaries" between 100% and 150% in relation to the per capita GDP. Salaries were classified as "below average" when teachers' "minimum salaries" and "maximum salaries" were below 100% in relation to the per capita GDP. – "Minimum salary is the salary received by teachers ... [either in lower or in upper secondary schools, AE] ... who are starting teaching, having completed their education, initial training and trial period. Maximum salary is the salary received by teachers ... who are at the end of their career, that is, during the last year prior to retirement." See Eurydice (2000), p.137.

42. We introduced this fourth category to give a more accurate description of the financial situation of history teachers. Even though teachers may be considered to be "middle class" wage earners, they still often depend on additional incomes.

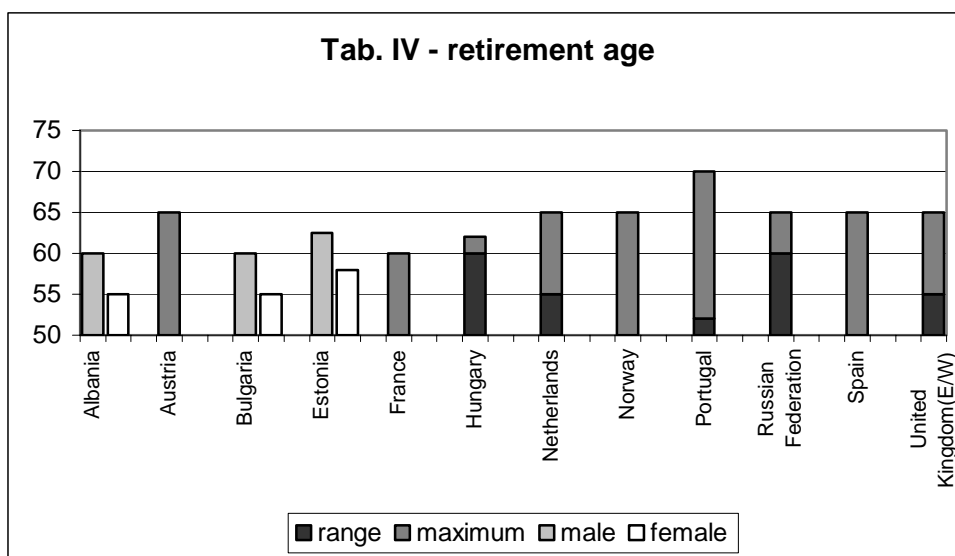


We received precise data only from seven countries, but we can generally say that the percentage of teachers over the age of 40 is rather high. According to the Eurydice study, almost half of Europe's 6 million (primary and secondary) teachers are over 40 years old. Teaching staff, except in Ireland and United Kingdom, are generally older at secondary school than at primary school, and staff tend to be older in western Europe than in eastern Europe.

The charts above show that between 15% (UK) and 40% (Norway) of history teachers are over 50 years old in all the surveyed countries except one, Albania. This means that a considerable number of teachers will retire within the next ten years. Assuming that the job conditions of history teachers – with respect to retirement age as well as contract of employment/working hours, class size, number of history lessons per week, and the form of classroom teaching by single teachers – will remain more or less the same, history teachers' prospects of finding a job are likely to improve considerably at the end of this decade.

This rather simple prognosis also applies to the second decade of the 21st century.⁴³ The second chart shows that the number of teachers over 40 years is between 60% (Austria, Estonia, France, UK) and 75% (Norway, Netherlands), the only exception again being Albania. Thus, demand for secondary-school history teachers may be expected to increase even more in that decade. This fact is of crucial importance for the following question: Which period of the 21st century are we training young history teachers for?

There is no room here for an extensive discussion of the other factors we have mentioned. The maximum retirement age of teachers is 65 years in most countries (70 years in Spain, Norway and Portugal). Considering the current debate in western Europe, the minimum retirement age – which is currently between 55 and 60 years⁴⁴ – may be expected to increase.



Even though it does not directly concern the focus of this study, we would like to point out that the two charts may also be used as an indicator of in-service training of history teachers. They show that more than 60% of history teachers in Austria, Estonia, France, Netherlands, Norway, UK underwent their initial training between the late 1960s and the early 1980s. This implies, among other things, that in most countries these teachers were trained to teach history through a narrative structure and were never exposed to pupil-centred forms of learning (for example group work) or process-oriented methods of learning and teaching (for example project work). Only those history teachers over 40 years of age who have taken courses in group pedagogy or similar courses dealing with pupil-centred methodology may be expected by educational planners to possess up-to-date knowledge and skills in these fields.

History as a school subject: the number of history lessons at school

The number of lessons per week is another important factor regarding job opportunities and also indicates the importance of history in the interplay with other school subjects.

43. This is true assuming that teaching conditions and the structures of school organisation will largely remain the same (which cannot generally be expected, of course) for example the working hours of history teachers, the size of classes, the number of history lessons per week, the traditional form of classroom-teaching by single teachers, and the same age retirement age for teachers.

44. One of the lowest retirement ages is that of Albania, with 60 years for male and 55 years for female teachers.

Since our study focuses on history teaching in secondary education we do not have detailed information about history teaching at primary school. We know that in some countries like Austria, Bulgaria, Estonia, the Netherlands, Portugal, and UK history is gradually introduced in the third or fourth year of primary school together with general information on the social structures of the pupils' local area. Teachers in primary education are usually not specially trained to teach history.

There are different types of history lessons at secondary school in the 13 countries of our survey. History is taught either as a single subject, or in combination with geography (Spain, France, Portugal), as an integrated subject (Austria, Netherlands) or as a comprehensive subject, such as under the umbrella of the subject "social sciences" (Hungary, Norway). Thus, what we can offer here is an overview and some examples of our findings regarding general secondary schools.

History is a compulsory subject in lower secondary education in most countries; it starts at the age of 10 or 11 years and is taught two hours per week on average. In Spain and France history is traditionally taught in combination with geography: three hours at lower secondary school and three to four hours at upper secondary school for both subjects, or approximately one and a half or two hours for history. Portugal has the same combination with geography in grades 5 and 6, while history is taught as a single subject (three hours per week) in grades 7 to 9.⁴⁵ In grades 10 to 12, those pupils who choose humanist studies may even take four history lessons per week.

Owing to the increasing autonomy of schools in lower secondary general education, schools may choose to offer either one, two or three lessons per week. This is the case in Austria (1-3), Estonia (1-2) and the Netherlands (1-2). Pupils in the UK also study history as a subject in Key Stage 3 (grades 5 to 8), but there it remains up to the school to fix the number of history lessons. To our regret we noticed that flexibility in the timetable in general leads to fewer hours for the subject history in school.

Pupils in upper secondary general education usually have 2 (Austria, Spain, France) or two and a half hours (Hungary) of history per week.⁴⁶ In some countries it is either two or three hours, depending on the respective grade (Albania, Bulgaria, Estonia, Netherlands, Russian Federation). History is not a compulsory subject in upper secondary education everywhere. In the Netherlands and the UK it is optional, and in the former it is taught in the wider context of social studies, where pupils are partly free to define their own focus of interest.

An alarming decrease is reported in the number of history lessons at upper secondary vocational school. Depending on the type of vocational school, history is limited to one, two, or three years, with a maximum of two hours per week.

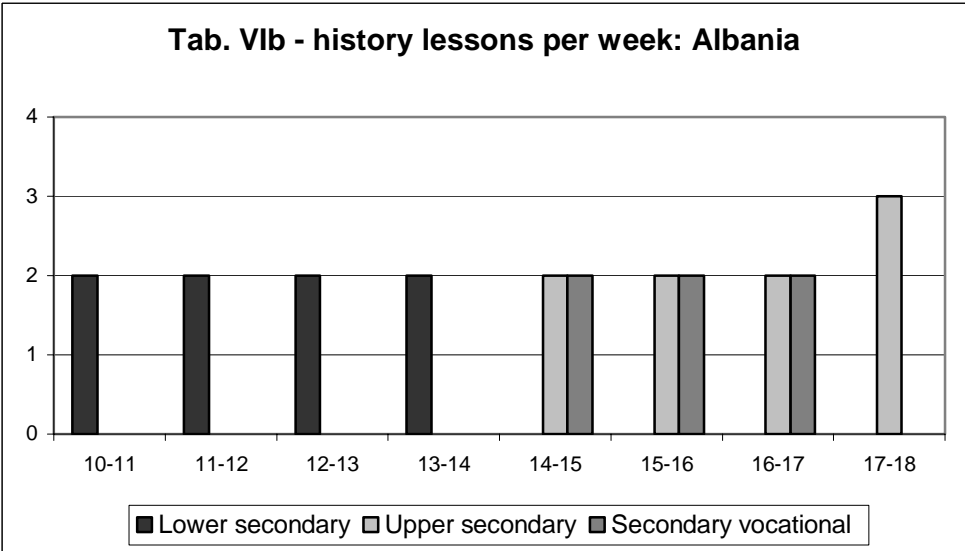
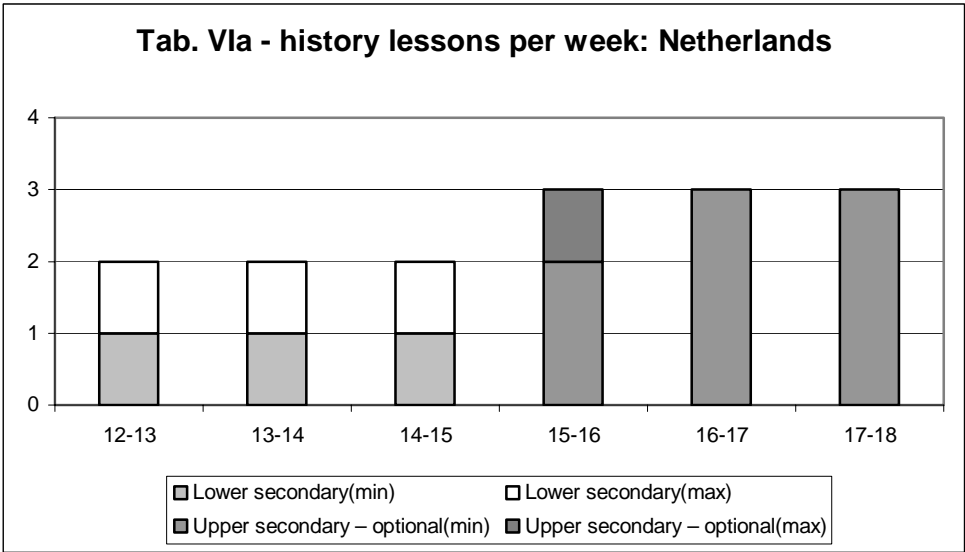
We heard from several countries that the time allocated to history at secondary school is decreasing also in general education.⁴⁷ If the number of history lessons per week continues to fall, as is currently the case in some western European countries (Austria, Norway, Portugal), job opportunities for graduates in history teaching will not improve despite the fact that many

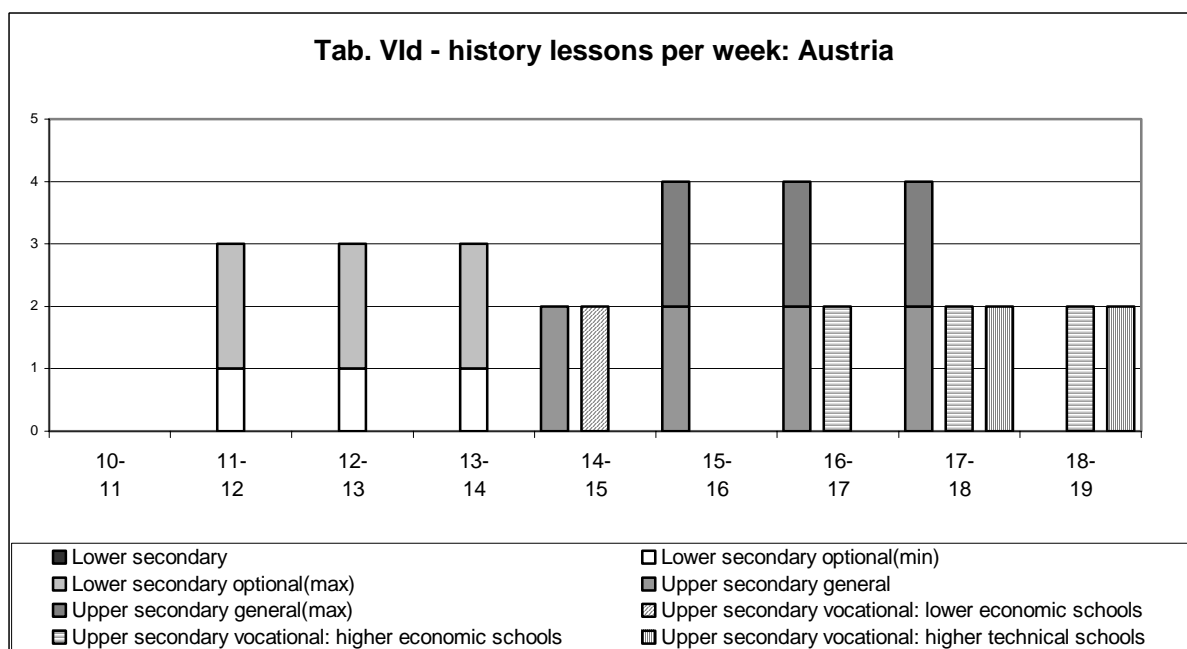
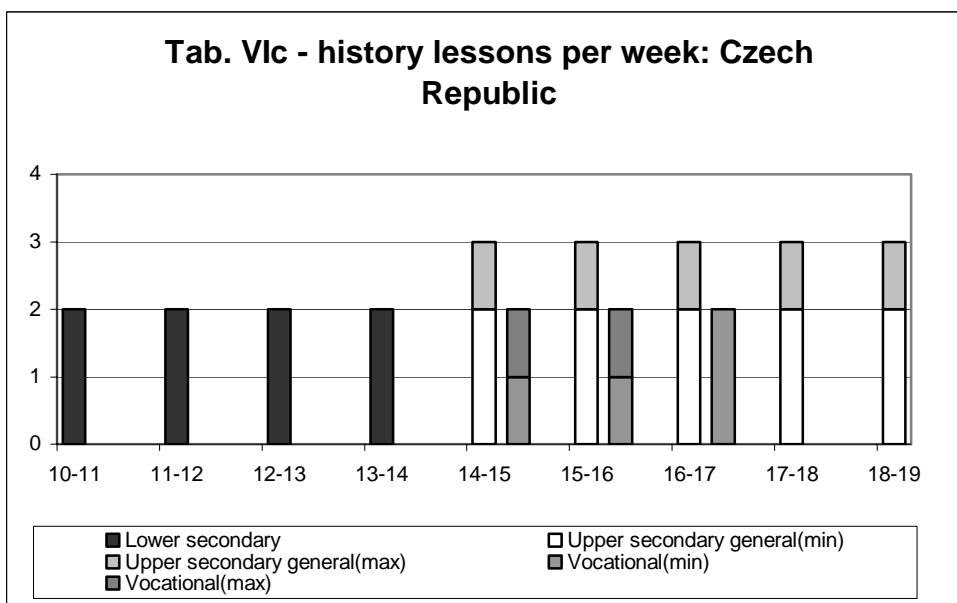
45. This number will decrease with the start of the new curriculum in 2000-01.

46. See exception of Portugal above.

47. With the exception of the Russian Federation where a reform for lower secondary schools plans to add two hours per week for history.

older teachers are going to retire soon. This issue is closely related to another question: Is history a compulsory subject, or is it an optional subject within a wider framework of “social studies” or “humanities”, for example?





Albania is a typical example of a system with a fixed number of history lessons throughout school curricula. Curricula are prescribed by the Ministry of Education. Schools have no autonomy regarding curricula and no influence on the number of lessons per week. Thus, history teachers find themselves in a stable situation and do not have the need to adapt to any special focus of interest of a particular school. Bulgaria, Spain, France, Hungary and Portugal do not give individual schools a free choice of lessons, either. To a certain extent this also reflects the degree of centralisation in the respective school system.

In the Czech Republic, the number of history lessons in the curricula of upper secondary schools is becoming increasingly flexible. Schools may allocate two or three hours per week to history. The same applies to secondary schools in the Russian Federation. Both countries also offer a rather small number of history lessons in vocational schools, where only 1 hour of history is taught in grades 10 and 11. In Portugal, schools have gained some autonomy regarding the number of weekly hours to sets of disciplines as well.

As regards history teaching in upper secondary vocational schools, the same shortage of history lessons is reported by Austria. Higher economic schools have a flexible framework of five to eight hours covering grades 10, 11, and 12, but most schools allocate a total of 3x2 hours to history. Higher technical schools only allocate 2x2 hours to history teaching.

School autonomy also offers flexibility for lower secondary general education in the country. Theoretically, schools might devote up to 3 hours per week to history, but they usually choose to allocate fewer hours to history and more hours to foreign languages or to information and communication technologies.

In the Netherlands and in Estonia, the number of history lessons in lower secondary education also varies between one and two hours. While in Estonia history is a compulsory subject in its own right, in the Netherlands it is only compulsory in grades 5-8 (ages 9 to 14/15) and is always combined with civics. In upper secondary school, history is optional and is currently chosen by less than 50% of pupils. The percentage is higher only in pre-university education (VWO), where about 50% of pupils opt for history.⁴⁸ The trend in the Netherlands is towards integrating history with subjects like geography or social sciences at lower secondary level, too. This is also the case in Norway, where history forms part of the subject “social studies” which includes history, geography, sociology, and similar issues such as human rights education.

Expected changes in history

We also asked whether any changes were to be expected for history as a school subject in secondary education within the next four or five years. Six countries (Spain, Estonia, France, Hungary, Norway, Portugal) reported that no changes were expected. This normally indicates that curricula were already reformed in the second half of the 1990s. Most of the other seven countries (Austria, Albania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Netherlands, Russian Federation, UK) plan to reform the history curricula of lower, upper general and upper vocational schools. The Russian Federation intends to reform curricula in lower secondary education: as a single phenomena, this reform is expected to add two hours per week to the history curriculum. The Czech Republic plans a reform designed to combine history with social subjects, which is in line with the above-mentioned tendency. Estonia intends to implement another reform in three years' time. In Portugal, programmes are supposed to be replaced by curricular guidelines which support the development skills.

Above we gave some principal socio-economic information on history teachers and related it to factors of school organisation such as the timetable for history, changes in school curricula, or the relevance of school autonomy. This allowed us to show whether and to what extent it is, or will be, an attractive option to become a history teacher in one of these countries. These indicators offer a first overview of the social situation of history teachers and their reputation and provide information on future job opportunities for trainees in the field.

Summing up, we may say that, generally, the reputation of history teaching is not the best compared to that of other jobs for graduates from tertiary education. No significant improvement is to be expected, either. However, demand for history teachers is certain to

48. See the country report for the Netherlands in the present study.

grow in some countries, which may well have a positive effect on the job's reputation. In any case, this is an important factor for those concerned with organising initial training for history teachers. It would certainly be necessary to obtain more detailed data for each individual country to allow more exact forecasts, but in general we may say that job prospects for history teachers will gradually improve. This should be given adequate consideration in the planning and organisation of ITT in the near future.

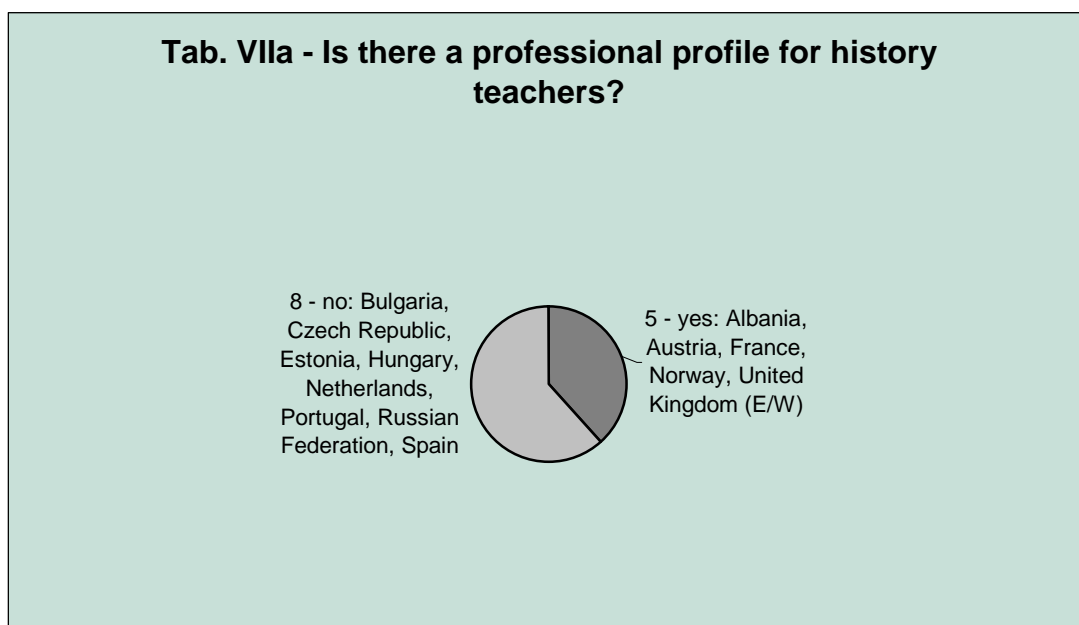
Standards in initial training for history teachers

The professional profile of history teachers and the qualified teacher status

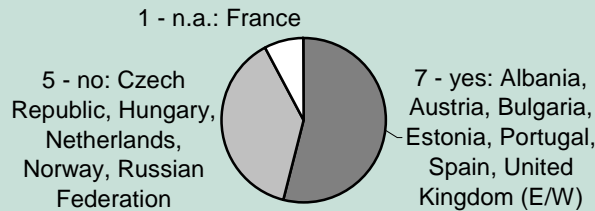
If we relate our findings about ITT structures to the planning of training, we are taken back to a key question raised in the introductory part: namely that of systematic reflection upon the training situation. Therefore, we first wanted to know whether there is any systematic planning of and approach to initial training for history teachers in the countries concerned. As stated in the introductory part we will take the professional profile of history teachers as an indicator of such reflective planning in ITT institutions.

We asked about such profiles in our questionnaire and found that 5 of the 13 countries (Austria, Albania, France, Norway, UK) do have professional profiles and 8 do not. However, two countries (Hungary, Netherlands) are currently discussing the issue, and several institutions in the Russian Federation have developed professional profiles within the framework of university autonomy. In Spain, universities do not have professional profiles for history teachers, but teacher training colleges do.

Four countries (Bulgaria, Spain, Estonia, Portugal) which do not have any concrete professional profiles for history teachers have defined conditions of a "qualified teacher status" (QTS). This may also be regarded as an important measure towards establishing standards for a job profile. Qualified teacher status entitles a person to teach in state-funded schools. Thus, there is definitely a trend towards establishing standards for the job of teaching history at secondary school, but these standards are still very much under discussion.



Tab. VIIb - Is there a qualified teacher status?



As shown above, universities are relatively autonomous in defining the curricula for ITT. In most countries this also gives them the right to develop individual professional profiles. However, most universities and other training institutions would not have developed such profiles if there had not been any central requirements to do so from their ministries of education. Even though ministries usually do not determine explicitly what history teachers should be able to do, they define what should be done in curriculum development by creating the corresponding legal framework. Together with the exchange of information between training institutions on a national level this leads to similarities in the definition of professional profiles in individual countries. Thus, we can offer examples of and illustrate general trends in the approach to professional profiles for history teacher.

A professional profile requires competencies on both levels: the level of content/knowledge and the level of skills. Both academic and didactic competencies are necessary. The profiles of France, the UK, and Austria show the different kinds of approach to these profiles.

France has a dual system of standards. These are either prescribed and supervised by the Ministry of Education and/or the general inspectorate, or developed and executed by the IUFM, that is, the training institution itself. According to the recommendations of the Ministry of Education, the profile for young teachers of history and geography⁴⁹ comprises the following five sections.⁵⁰

49. In France students study both subjects together.

50. Source: Ministère de l'Éducation nationale. Inspection générale de l'Éducation nationale. Groupe Histoire et Géographie, Compétences attendues des professeurs d'histoire et géographie nouvellement formés. Paris, octobre 1994, pp.1.

Competencies of newly trained history teachers (France) as recommended by the French Ministry of Education

1. Academic competencies:

Teachers should have a comprehensive general knowledge of the subject and a profound knowledge of central aspects and key issues of history and should be able to use this knowledge to link it with less important aspects of the subject. They should be familiar with the methodology of information and documentation: knowledge of the methods, concepts and central notions of history; the history of the subject; epistemology and theory; knowledge and skills in handling historical tools.

2. Planning and organising lessons:

Teachers should: have a precise knowledge of the curricula and schedules of training classes as well as a general knowledge of the curricula of all types of schools; develop a well-balanced syllabus for the school year that takes into account all the requirements of the curriculum; maintain a balance in increasing pupils' knowledge and developing their skills; be able to reflect upon the aims and objectives of history, and to precisely define the aims and central problems of each lesson.

3. Directing classes and monitoring pupils' work:

Teachers should: have sufficient authority to direct pupils' behaviour and work in class; construct each lesson on the basis of specified objectives and clearly defined problems; be able to recognise the needs and expectations of the class; use material, methods, and media in a simple, but effective way; conduct lessons, regardless of the chosen method, in a clear style and finish them with simple, synthesising summaries: monitor the compilation of exercise books and the quality of their language; be able to evaluate their own teaching; and practise different forms of evaluating pupils' work in class.

4. Teaching at school:

Teachers should: be actively involved in the subject group of colleagues (vertical coherence), contribute to the group and ask for its assistance, if necessary; be actively involved in the group of classroom colleagues (transversal coherence); have a good knowledge of the rules in class and in the school building.

5. Further training and self-evaluation:

Teachers should: be able to evaluate and critically analyse their professional experience; have a subject-oriented interest in a continuing evaluation and improvement of their academic competencies through in-service training; be able, as regards didactic competencies, to look for support through the joint reflection with colleagues or other partners at school (supervision).

As is obvious from this overview, the French standards for history teachers form a challenging profile that includes academic and didactic competencies, that is, high subject knowledge combined with knowledge of methods and concepts of history as a science. In addition the profile puts even more emphasis on professional competencies: competencies in directing and monitoring pupils' behaviour and learning progress as well as pupil-centred forms of directing, analysing, and evaluating the learning process in class. History teachers have to precisely follow curricula, that is, a centrally prescribed subject plan, but they also have to take into account the concrete conditions of a specific class. This may cause a certain conflict with central guidelines which sometimes oblige or force history teachers to adapt their courses to a general national plan that does not necessarily meet the actual learning needs of a specific group of pupils. On the other hand, this is a problem that history teachers are probably faced with in all 13 countries of our survey.

The French concept of classroom teaching seems to be based on a rather systemic approach to history teaching, since the professional profile clearly differentiates between the competencies necessary to deal with the class as a social body and those needed to manage the process of individual learning. The systemic perception of the class as a social body in its own right is still not very common in the didactic theory and practice of the surveyed countries. More than the others, the French model also stresses the need and the ability of history teachers to co-operate with their colleagues and superiors and to ensure support from this group in terms of additional information and reflection. Thus, the French concept of history teaching is not just a matter of classroom organisation, but of co-ordination and co-operation between colleagues within the school as well.

Professional training in the United Kingdom starts at post-graduate level: all intending secondary history teachers have to hold a history degree before embarking on training in partnerships.⁵¹ This type of training is entirely concerned with pedagogical issues and not with history “content” as such. Intending teachers’ studies in history as an academic discipline may be very diverse: from broad-based courses that include ancient, Medieval and modern history, to courses that are quite specialised in a particular period or region, or both.

As regards the standards of one-year (postgraduate) ITT,⁵² the United Kingdom represents a rather centralised system. All ITT courses have to comply with the criteria laid down by the national government through the Teacher Training Agency. Every course has to fulfil fixed requirements, and every trainee teacher has to achieve certain “standards” before acquiring the “qualified teacher status”. Besides these centrally prescribed standards, individual partnerships⁵³ may impose additional requirements and award their own qualifications such as the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) which is held by the vast majority of newly-qualified history teachers. Partnerships, in other words, may define their own approach to training, so that there is no uniform ITT curriculum in the United Kingdom.

ITT aims to equip history teachers with the knowledge, skills and understanding to teach their subject confidently and accurately within the age range 11 to 18, and at the same time to nurture their personal attributes and develop intellectual and managerial skills to enable them to operate as effective professionals. The training is almost entirely pedagogic and practical. All trainees have to work towards the achievement of the nationally prescribed standards in:

- knowledge and understanding;
- planning, teaching and classroom management;
- monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability;
- other professional requirements.

51. ITT in the UK is based on partnerships, usually between a higher education institution and a number of schools. In most cases, the institution plays the leading role in the partnership. At universities ITT is usually the responsibility of a department of education or a school of teacher education/teaching studies.

52. For university graduates with a degree in history.

53. ITT in the UK is based on partnerships, usually between a higher education institution and a number of schools. In most cases, the institution plays the leading role in the partnership. At universities ITT is usually the responsibility of a department of education or a school of teacher education/teaching studies.

The professional profile of history teachers (UK) as recommended by MMU/ Didsbury School of Education⁵⁴

A. Teaching Competencies

Planning and Preparing

- a) Setting appropriate aims, objectives, statements of learning outcomes.
- b) Ability to plan coherent, progressive sequences of work.

Assessment

- a) Ability to monitor and assess pupils' progress and achievement.
- b) Ability to record and report achievement.
- c) Ability to respond to assessment data in planning future teaching.

Classroom Management and Organisation

- a) Ability to maintain an orderly learning environment.
- b) Ability to organise provision for learning.

Providing for Individual Differences

- a) Ability to match methods and materials to the ability of the pupils.
- b) Ability to demonstrate concern for equal opportunities.
- c) Ability to take account of pupils with special needs including the able and gifted.

Classroom Interaction

- a) Use of a variety of teaching styles, techniques, equipment.
- b) Appropriate and varied questioning techniques.
- c) Use of appropriate language, communication skills.
- d) Ability to motivate pupils and maintain pace.

Subject Competence a) Suitability of objectives (see 1a above)

- b) Knowledge and skills.
- c) Ability to assess (see 2 above).

Context and Awareness

- a) Awareness of ethos of school or college.
- b) Ability to relate to staff and pupils.
- c) Perception in evaluation.
- d) Flexibility.

54. MMU, Didsbury School of Education: Description of the PGCE programme 1997/98, pp.21.

B. Subject competencies for history:

Understanding of the aims of the teaching and learning of history and the subject's place in the secondary curriculum.

Demonstrate familiarity with the history content of the prescribed study units for KS3.⁵⁵

Knowledge and understanding of the significance of the study of key concepts in history, i.e.: chronology, causation, change and continuity, similarity and difference (Key Elements 1 and 2) and an awareness of pupils' most common misconceptions of these concepts.

Ability to understand the significance of interpretations in history (Key Element 3).

Knowledge and understanding of the range of sources and skills in the use of evidence including the use of sources for enquiry.

Understanding the principles and problems of assessment at Key Stage 3 and 4 and at 'A' Level, including the monitoring, assessment, recording and reporting of pupils' progress and attainment in history.

Knowledge and understanding of the aims of the GCSE history syllabuses, the assessment objectives; the usual examination format and history in humanities examinations.

Ability to understand the implementation of the GCSE in terms of schemes of work and coursework.

Knowledge and understanding of the range of teaching methods best suited to the abilities and interests of secondary pupils, including the use of IT as appropriate.

Ability to identify the possible learning difficulties presented by the study of history and to adopt appropriate strategies to help to overcome such difficulties. This will include identifying the needs of pupils with specific learning difficulties and the needs of pupils not yet fluent in English.

Ability to understand how pupils who are able in history may be identified and the reasons for choosing work which is appropriate for the able pupil.

Understanding of the role which local history and fieldwork can play in developing pupils' understanding of and interest in history.

Ability to understand the varied role of language in the teaching and learning of history, including the organisation and communication of history (Key Element 5) and the role of extended writing.

Ability to understand how the teaching of history can contribute to the promotion of equal opportunities across the curriculum.

Knowledge and understanding of the contribution to the cross-curricular elements of the National Curriculum and of the opportunities to contribute to pupils' personal, spiritual, moral, social and cultural development. [...]

Knowledge and understanding of the sources of information and recurrent developments in history and history teaching.

Ability to reflect on one's developing competence as a teacher of history.

55. Key Stage 3 is equivalent to grades 5 to 8 / age 11 to 14.

The teaching competence which should be acquired by trainees during this one year of training is regarded as “an holistic set of criteria which will require continual upgrading and development through the course.”⁵⁶ According to the MMU programme “it is only at the time that the examination board decision is taken that it can be said that you [the trainee] have achieved competence”⁵⁷ As we will see below this approach to “assessing” teaching competence differs from the Austrian model, where students themselves are encouraged to reflect upon the progress in their teaching competence and to discuss this progress with advisory teachers and didacticians. Although we agree to the concept of continual upgrading of teaching competence we would advocate a more active involvement of students in the process of developing self-reflection upon their teaching competence. A systemic approach to teaching, classroom management, and classroom interaction is also requested in the English example.

As concerns didactic and practical competencies we also notice a differentiated profile. Regarding the understanding of the aims of the teaching and learning of history, other “key concepts of history” refer to a multiperspective approach to history teaching: the “understanding and explaining differing interpretations; developing a range of skills using a variety of evidence; developing enquiry and communication skills involving historical evidence; ... history’s contribution to a pupil’s language development”.⁵⁸ It might be interesting to ask history didacticians from other countries whether they also intend to contribute to the pupil’s language development by training and teaching history teachers. Language problems play an important role in multicultural societies: a fact that is underlined also by one of the next aims in the profile.

This example shows that the *understanding* of history is considered a crucial factor of ITT in England. Trainees should be able not only to present historical information, but to teach pupils to acquire historical knowledge. History teachers are also encouraged to contribute to pupils’ personal, spiritual, moral, social, and cultural development: History is defined much more as a subject that forms pupils’ personality rather than a subject that is merely designed to impart specialised knowledge. History seems to be regarded very much as a medium to foster pupils’ sense of identity and their social and cultural role.

Compared with the two countries discussed above, Austria has a relatively decentralised system of teacher training. The Ministry of Education defines the legal framework, but teacher training institutions (at least those at university level) are invited to develop job profiles and curricula in accordance with their specific local and institutional conditions. A professional profile has recently been established together with the new ITT curricula at Austrian universities.⁵⁹ As in France and the United Kingdom, this profile includes both academic and didactic competencies.

56. MMU, op.cit., p.11.

57..Ibid.

58.MMU, op cit. p.19

59. The current reform of curricula is still in progress and will be completed in 2002.

The professional profile of history teachers (Austria) as recommended by the University of Vienna⁶⁰

Principles

History teachers should: be highly flexible and self-organised and have a high level of personal responsibility; be able to critically select information, to co-operate, and to handle conflicts constructively; be aware of the necessity of continual further training and improvement of their competencies ...

ITT aims at developing academic and didactic competencies together with the development of self-reflecting, social, communicative, and organisational competencies ...

General didactic qualifications

As far as the organisation of classroom teaching is concerned, history teachers should be able to create a variety of dynamic learning structures which foster pupils' self-determination and self-organisation. Besides, they should be able to: present information in an easily comprehensible way, making use of the relevant media available;

- create a stimulating learning environment that is rich in content and will produce a lasting effect;
- monitor, foster, direct, analyse, and evaluate processes of learning, communication, and work;
- identify and assess pupils' learning capacity and development potential;
- try to create a good balance between pupils' self-reflection and their self-esteem;
- critically evaluate and assess all (teaching) concepts that are suggested to them;
- take a constructive position regarding the circumstances of their actions;
- reflect upon their own actions on a theoretical basis.

As regards co-operation with their colleagues, history teachers should be able to: work in an interdisciplinary setting; offer professional support and advice to their colleagues; direct working processes in the teaching team; develop school profiles; examine and assess their own development ...

Subject competencies include:

- thinking in historical categories;
- a wide general knowledge as well as a profound specialised knowledge of history, taking into account all cultural, political, social, economic, and other aspects which foster the understanding of different cultures, both past and present;
- the ability to encourage critical and communicative learning processes that raise pupils' political awareness and take into account various theories and findings of political, social, and cultural studies;
- abilities and skills in applying methods and techniques of historical theory that correspond to the latest findings of historical research;
- a readiness to engage in the permanent development of specialised didactic competencies with regard to current debates on history didactics;
- flexibility in applying the acquired knowledge, methods, and competencies of the subject or field;
- an analytical, systematic, and reflective application of relevant subject knowledge and skills, and a critical approach to historical sources, the findings of historical studies, and current information;

60. University of Vienna (2000) Lehramtsstudienkommission, Qualifikationsprofil für Absolventinnen und Absolventen des Lehramtsstudiums 'Geschichte und Sozialkunde' (Sekundarstufe I und II), Vienna, October 2000, pp. 2

- the ability to synthesise and present the findings of historical research;
- the competence to develop and foster a multi-perspective perception of historical situations and processes: raising pupils' awareness of the manifold causes of historical events and the broad range of potential interpretations; and the systematic practice of synchronic and diachronic ways of perception;
- interdisciplinary thinking and work styles; the ability to facilitate an understanding of the interrelation between cultural, political, economic, social, and ecological developments;
- a choice of contents that is oriented towards the present and takes into account pupils' situation and everyday experience: the ability to link knowledge of local history with overall historical developments;
- choosing and handling topics in a critical, problem-oriented way designed to foster pupils' sense of identity;
- intercultural thinking and acting: e.g., developing a differentiated perception of the past by discussing the 'other' that is different in both space and time; an understanding of the historical development of foreign cultures;
- self-reflection: acting out, and maintaining a certain distance towards, one's role in the teaching situation; handling (institutional) power in a transparent way; dealing with conflicts constructively; recognising pupils' emotions in a differentiated way, separating them from one's own emotional reactions, and handling the emotional dimension of teaching in a sensitive and creative way;
- social and communicative competence: process-oriented thinking and work styles; developing and implementing experience-based learning processes; the ability to initiate, foster, direct, monitor, analyse, and reflect upon learning processes;
- planning and preparation: a basic knowledge of the theories of learning and developmental psychology and of the didactic appropriateness of specific media, especially regarding the critical application of information technologies; wide-ranging experience in the use of all currently relevant techniques and media; the knowledge and creative realisation of curricular provisions;
- organisational analysis: the necessary analytical competence to adequately assess opportunities of co-operation within the organisation with colleagues, superiors, and parents; the ability to plan and implement interdisciplinary or international forms co-operation, projects, and partnerships.

Compared with the two other profiles, the Austrian example puts more emphasis on the development of the personnel, such as self-reflection, social and communicative skills of the trainees. Students are encouraged to develop their individual plan of studies within a variety of possibilities in both, general and professional courses. As regards the development of history teachers' *academic competencies* and its underlying philosophy and rationale, the Austrian profile is very similar to those of France and the UK. It is considered crucial for students of history to acquire a profound knowledge not only of political history, but also of social, economic, and cultural history, enabling them to link the political, economic, social, and cultural developments in the historical period under discussion. They should be able to handle factual and methodological knowledge in a flexible way, and they should be willing to cross borders between academic disciplines. They should be able to relate historical topics to the present situation of pupils and to choose and discuss historical subjects in a critical, problem-oriented way that fosters pupils' sense of identity. They should also be able to introduce a multi-perspective approach in the teaching of history and to deal with historical developments in a multicultural dimension.

With regard to *didactic qualifications* the situation of history teaching at Austrian universities is understood, following the theories of social dynamics and social systems, not only as a problem of how to select the right historical content or how to choose the right teaching methods and media, but as a special social and communicative event. When history teachers interact with their pupils in the classroom, they – together with the pupils – form the special social system of “history teaching”. Therefore, history teachers also need to be qualified to lead, manage, and reflect upon social processes in the learning group.

This is why history teachers also have to develop competencies of self-reflection. They should be able to act out social roles in a differentiated way and to maintain a certain distance towards their own role in the teaching situation. They should handle (institutional) power in a transparent way and deal with conflicts in class constructively. Since pupils also learn through identification and imitation, teachers should be able to recognise transference from pupils, to separate it from their own reaction of counter-transference and, if possible, to arrive at a functional interpretation of that reaction in the context of the historical topic taught in the classroom.

Similarly, students should be given the chance to develop *social and communicative competencies*: process-oriented thinking and work styles; competencies in developing and implementing experience-oriented learning processes; and the ability to direct, analyse, and reflect upon processes going on within the learning group in relation to the historical topic under discussion.⁶¹ In order to manage these processes history students should acquire adequate *planning and preparation skills*: a basic knowledge of the theories of learning and developmental psychology and of the appropriateness and application of different media; a profound procedural knowledge in applying different teaching methods (such as lectures, group work, role play, project work) and media. Finally, trainees need *skills in organisational analysis* in order to deal with colleagues, superiors, and parents. They need analytic skills enabling them to remain realistic about the possibilities of co-operation within their organisation, and they should be able to plan and implement interdisciplinary co-operation and project work.

ITT at Austrian universities aims at training history teachers who do not simply present facts about a particular historical topic, but who are able to communicate its relevance to the social dynamics of the learning environment. They should be able to choose from a range of teaching methods, taking into account pedagogical considerations, and to respond to the social, cognitive, and age-related situation of the learning group as well as to the realities of school life in a flexible manner.

In conclusion we may say that all three profiles tend to attach equal weight to promoting academic as well as didactic competencies while occasionally there seems to be more emphasis on didactic qualifications rather than on academic ones. Future history teachers will be regarded as managers of learning processes rather than as mere presenters of historical information. It is considered their task to teach pupils to obtain and to critically select

61. Teaching history, in this sense, does not mean primarily that the teacher tells the pupils about a certain historical event or process, but that the pupils themselves are encouraged to reconstruct historical situations and to apply critical historical methods to historical events. It also means that they learn to identify their own, personal (local, regional, social) place in history. In such a process of learning, the teacher's primary task is not in presenting historical information and judgement, but in preparing, managing, and co-ordinating the learning process.

historical information themselves and to guide them in their historical research work. We also noticed that professional profiles are based on the idea of history teachers with a high competency of self-reflection that enables them to examine the learning process in a very differentiated way. Finally, the profiles stress the need for continual further training during the entire teaching career, already taking into account the necessity of lifelong learning.

However, looking at the data shown above about the imbalance between academic and professional training in current ITT) we have to say that there seems to be quite a wide gap between the ideal professional profile for history teachers and its realisation in the concrete training situation. Therefore, we consider it one of the central objectives of ITT in the next decade to reduce this gap and to encourage the realisation of the well-planned objectives laid down in the new profiles for history teachers.

General structures and concepts of history teaching

When prospective history teachers come to university or teacher training college they already have a broader knowledge of history and a certain conception of history that influences the implicit structure of their perception and selection of information about the past. As teacher trainers we should know about these conceptions because they form the hidden structure of our students' historical consciousness. There is not enough room here to discuss the problems of historical consciousness in its various forms.⁶² What we can do here is describe some general characteristics of school curricula and compare them with the curricula in ITT. As most of our students finished secondary school in the late 1990s we may assume that the history lessons they had at school will be structured in much the same way as we have analysed here.

Analysing the history curricula of secondary schools in the countries concerned will certainly require even more detailed information than we can offer in this first overview. Some more information has been included in the country reports. In this summary we will first present some structural characteristics of secondary-school curricula and then compare them with curricula in ITT.

Is history taught as a single subject? As pointed out above (see chapter: lessons per week) there are actually four forms of history in secondary-school curricula:

- history is taught as a single subject. This is the case in Bulgaria (see next item), Czech Republic, Estonia, Portugal (to some extent in grade 7 and higher), Russian Federation and the UK (Key stages 1 and 2);
- history is taught in a fixed combination with geography. This has been a long tradition in the Romance language countries, Spain, France, Portugal (grades 5 and 6), but is also the case in Albania and, to some extent, in Bulgaria (taught in grade 4 with geography, one hour per week for each subject);

62. See Angvik, Magne, and von Borries, Bodo (eds) (1997) *Youth and history. A comparative European survey on historical consciousness and political attitudes among adolescents*. (two volumes) Hamburg: Körber-Stiftung, 1997.

- history is taught as an integrated subject, that is, “history and social studies” (Austria), or “history and civics” (Netherlands)
- history is taught under the umbrella of a broader subject, such as “man and society” (Hungary) or “social studies” (Norway), or together with “civics” (at some schools in the UK at Key Stage 3). A new curriculum is under discussion in Bulgaria, and will probably be called “history and civilisation”.

This brief overview already shows that there are different forms of dealing with historical information and knowledge at secondary school. Let us take a look at the concepts of history which are behind the curricula taught in secondary schools. To a certain degree, the four structures correspond to different concepts of dealing with the past (though this is not necessarily so in all cases). While the tendencies analysed are found in all curricula, the main emphasis in the presentation and construction of history differs considerably from country to country.

The first concept places more emphasis on political and cultural history, whereas the latter takes a more traditional approach, focusing on the history of architecture and the arts. The positivist concept of historicism that concentrates especially on the development and changes of political power, including the construction of the respective “nation” in its relation to “the world” and its “cultural contributions to the eternal heritage of mankind” still seems to be the dominant idea behind this curricular structure. This approach has come to the fore again in eastern and south-eastern European countries since the downfall of communist regimes, but also continues to play an important role in western Europe.

The second concept has its origins in the idea of a national history that shaped the national state. Its central message concerns the heroic development of the nation’s *political power* in time and space. This idea can be found in every curriculum, but the emphasis that is placed on it differs considerably. Colonialist and imperialist traditions seem to have played a bigger role in the development of this concept in some countries; the combination with geography is evidence of the imperialistic concept that stood behind this structure of history teaching which also dates back to the late 19th century. Today, more attention is usually given to encouraging pupils’ analytic and critical skills through teaching combined forms of history and geography, aiming at enabling them “to make informed judgements about the economic, political, social and environmental issues of everyday life.”⁶³

Man and society, the central question of every sociological theory of the 20th century, forms the background of the third concept of history, where aspects of social and economic history are added to, included in, or integrated into traditional political history. This approach favours problem-oriented and thematic ways of dealing with the past; these would also require a new methodological approach to history teaching which is not yet sufficiently developed and supported. The question also arises why this concept prevails in countries such as Austria or the Netherlands, which have lost much of their political influence in the 20th century.

The fourth concept is based on the idea of forming citizens through integrating history into the wider context of the organisational development of societies, covering aspects of civics, the history of law and institutions, the development and organisation of political structures, institutions of the state and civil society. This form, too, may be applied either to legitimise

63. Shennan, Margret (1991) *Teaching about Europe*, Cassell Education, London, p.58.

the political powers of the day or, on the contrary, to critically analyse and discuss the evolution and changes of political and societal structures. The idea of developing communicative, critical skills through civics education prevails in the normative texts of curricula. However, the examples mentioned in the curricula suggests that forming “good citizens”⁶⁴ and “true patriots” is still the most important objective of this concept.

Which historical topics are students expected to know? Secondary school curricula in comparison with ITT curricula

National history

National history and the construction of national identity through history remain the predominant issues in all concepts, regardless of all differences and variations. The development of the academic discipline of history in the second half of the 20th century, which may be regarded as a counter-movement to national concepts of history, has certainly had its reverberations in school curricula, but in most of the countries these new tendencies are only an appendix to the national approach to the subject. In spite of the scientific debates and alternative conceptions and aspects (such as economic, social, or new cultural history or the history of everyday life; problem-centred and theme-centred approaches) it is considered the predominant task of history as a school subject to familiarise the next generation with the history of the national state and to devote a large part of history lessons to legitimising it.⁶⁵

We also looked at the relation between local, national, European, and world history in school curricula as well as in ITT curricula. The data we received are approximate data, but they do show a distinct tendency. Only few countries reported that national history takes up less than 20% of all lessons; generally, between 40% (Albania, France) and 50% (Czech Republic, Hungary, Russian Federation) of lessons are devoted to national history. The percentage is even higher (65% in Bulgaria and the UK) at lower secondary school, where national history generally forms an important part of school curricula. In the majority of countries school curricula attach more weight to national history than ITT curricula.

The following are some examples.

Lower secondary pupils in England (Key Stage 3, that is, age 11-14) mostly study the history of (Great) Britain, as stipulated by the national curriculum. They are taught about the changes in the economy, society, culture, and political structure of Britain from the early Middle Ages to the 20th century.⁶⁶

Four study units are designed to be taught in sequence:

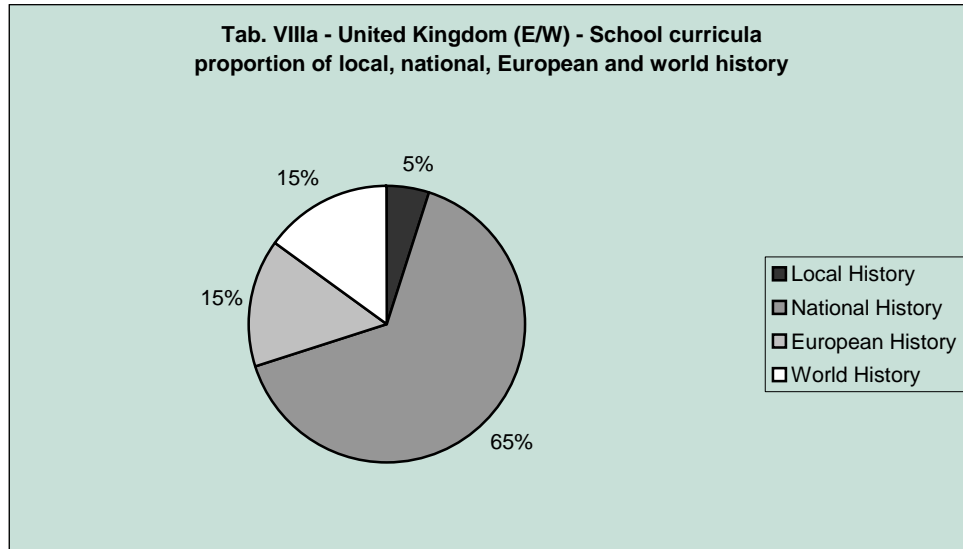
- “Medieval realm: Britain 1066–1500”;
- “The making of the United Kingdom: crowns, parliaments and peoples 1500–1750”;

64. “L’histoire et la géographie aident à la construction du citoyen”, which refers to being a citizen who is able to “agir dans le monde en personne libre et responsable”. In “L’histoire et la géographie au collège, programmes de 1996”, Centre national de documentation pédagogique, February 1996, Paris, p.41.

65. “History, as knowledge of the past, is one of the most important bases of national and European identity, being the collective memory of society.” In: Ministry of Education (1998) The national core curriculum, Budapest, p.96.

66. Yvonne Sinclair, Marc McLaughlin, answers to questionnaire 1, p.2.

- “Britain 1750–ca. 1900”: “An overview of some of the main events, personalities and developments in the period and, in particular, how world-wide expansion, industrialisation and political developments combined to shape modern Britain.”⁶⁷
- “The world in the 20th century”.



The other three study units are:

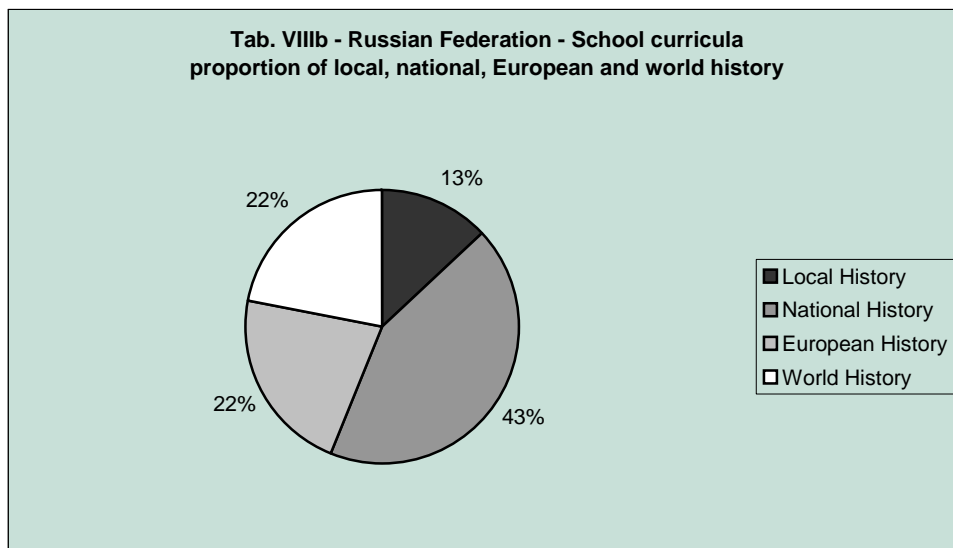
- “An era or turning point in European history/society before 1914”;
- “A past non-European society”;
- “Across the Key Stage: opportunities to study aspects of the past in outline, in depth and through local context; aspects of the histories of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales; history from a variety of perspectives: political, economic, technological/scientific, social, religious, cultural and aesthetic”.

In the key elements, which should be closely related to and developed through the study units, it is also recommended “to develop overviews of the main events and changes both within and across periods, by making links between the content in different study units and between local, British, European and world history.”⁶⁸ As these key elements are recommendations for methods of dealing with historical information they will certainly encourage different forms of historical thinking; but the impression remains that historical information, analysis, and interpretation focuses on British (national) history.

As mentioned above, the United Kingdom is not the only country to stress the importance of national history. While secondary history curricula in the Russian Federation show a different relation between local/regional, national, European and world history, the major share of lessons is also devoted to national history. It is also characteristic of both countries that “world history” is regarded predominantly from the national or (in the case of the Russian Federation) the “international” perspective, which suggests that, to a certain extent, world history is regarded as part of the “extended” history of a powerful nation state.

67. Key Stage 3 programme of study.

68. Sinclair, McLaughlin, p.4.

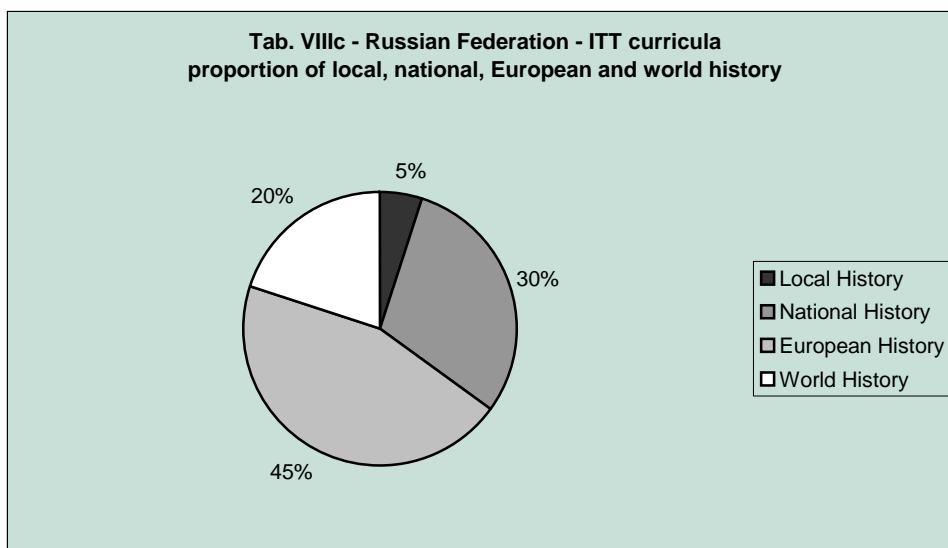


The last curriculum reform in the 1990s introduced two chronological cycles instead of the former linear chronological structure into Russia's secondary history curriculum:⁶⁹ a basic cycle at lower secondary school (grades 5 to 9) and an extended cycle at upper secondary school (grades 10 and 11). The curricula of both cycles contain clear recommendations regarding the number of lessons devoted to national and to world history; these are taught more or less separately, usually with two different textbooks: one for national and one for world history. In addition to the primary topics curricula, especially in the second cycle, also recommend topics such as: the history of civilisations, states, and nations; natural and social conditions of life; the foundations and values of historical societies; society – power – individuality. The proportions indicated in the above chart are not strictly prescribed, but recommended.⁷⁰

As concerns Russia we also have to take into account that the notion of “local” and/or “regional” history refers to the history of either the republics (such as Dagestan or Tatarstan) or autonomous regions, or to one of the ethnic groups within the Russian Federation. The national curriculum, which was approved and published by the Ministry of Education in 1999, is a basic curriculum. Educational authorities in the various regions or republics may prescribe additional topics and provide additional materials concerning regional and local aspects of history (up to a maximum extent of 15% of the overall time allocated to history). Thus, the above-indicated share of 13% for local/regional history represents the average of this optional part and gives an idea of what is taught at secondary school in different regions of the Russian Federation.

69. Ludmila Alexashkina, (2000) “The development of history curricula for secondary schools in the Russian Federation”, in: Beiträge zur historischen Sozialkunde, Transitional Russia, p.46.

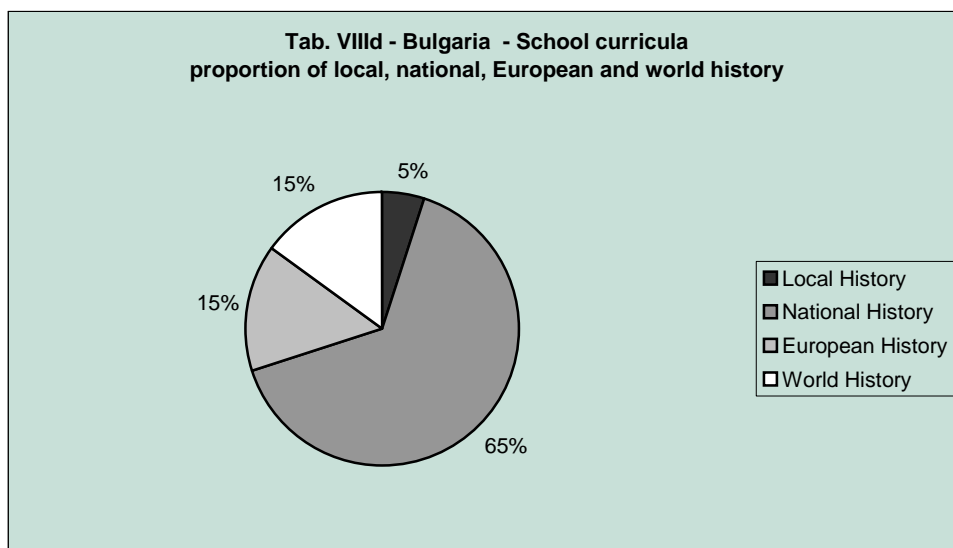
70. Ludmila Alexashkina, answers to questionnaire 1, pp.2.



A systematic description of history teaching in the Russian Federation still faces the problem that there are at least two aspects of “national” history: “Russian history” as centrally recommended by the Ministry of Education, and the so-called “regional” history, which is, in fact, also written (and, presumably, taught) as a “national” history (of Tatarstan, etc.) in most cases. The syllabuses for the latter are developed by regional teacher training institutions and recommended by regional authorities, ministries or departments of education.

However, if we look at the proportion of local/regional, national, European, and world history in ITT studies, we notice that regional history does not play a big role there (5%) and that more attention is given to European (45%) and world history (20%). This tendency can be observed in most of the countries and may be regarded as indicative of the attitude that developing a national identity is a crucial task of (primary and) secondary education, whereas ITT students are expected to already have developed a national consciousness so that more emphasis can be placed on international, European, and global perspectives on history. Furthermore, we may assume that in some regions of the Russian Federation European and world history form a counterweight to what is regarded as Russian centralism, so that Russian national history is not recommended as strongly as in the (centrally decreed) school curriculum.

In Bulgaria, our third example, the relation between local/regional, national, European and world history in the school curriculum is the same as in the UK, but the structure of teaching is different. Bulgarian history prevails as a topic in grades 5, 6 and 11: from the 15th century to the liberation in 1878 (grade 5), from the liberation to the present (grade 6), and from the very beginnings until today (grade 11). In grades 7 to 10 pupils follow a chronological cycle that begins with prehistory and ends with contemporary history. This cycle also includes Bulgarian history, but places more emphasis on the Mediterranean civilisation, the history of the Balkans, European and American history, and European and world history.



The proportion of national history is also quite high in Czech school curricula (50%) and in Albania (40% plus 10% local). Here, we also note another phenomenon of national history – more emphasis is placed on national history in the context of contemporary history. Developments in the last decades are very often described in relation to national events or world history. What is missing, for example, is a history of the relations with neighbouring countries as well as a more systematic description of the European dimension in history.

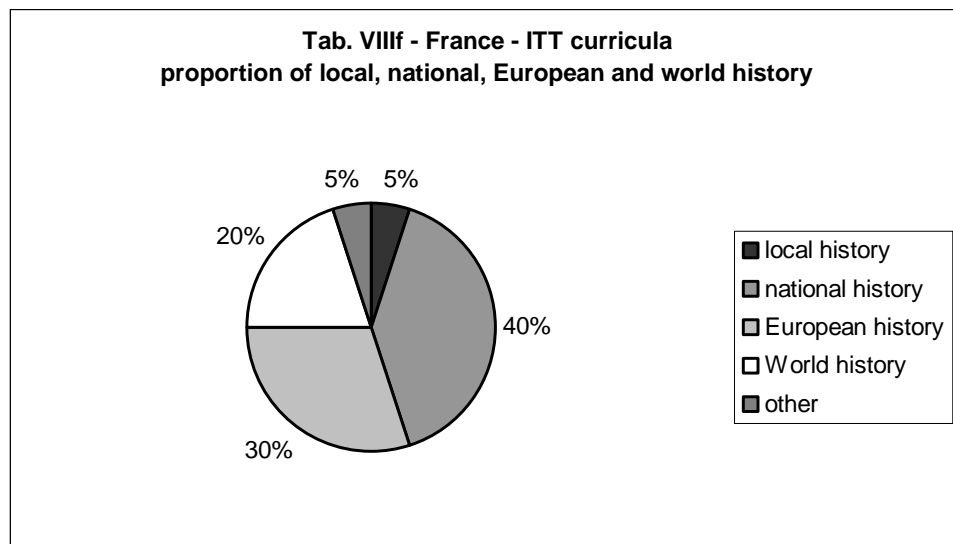
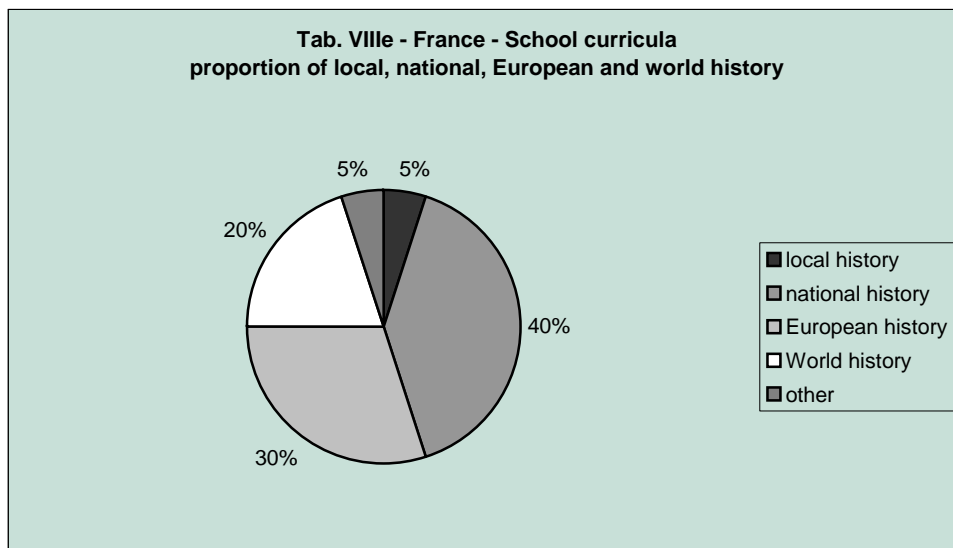
In all these cases the proportion of national history is higher in secondary school curricula than in ITT curricula. This is not the case in France and Hungary, for example, where the share allocated to national history is the same in secondary school curricula and in ITT curricula.

This first overview is designed to provide an incentive for a further, more profound analysis of national history in the context of history curricula. Comparing the contents of school curricula and exploring the objectives behind the special focus on national history will be an important area for further research.

Returning to the question raised at the beginning of this chapter we may say that students starting their university studies already learned to accept that national history plays a predominant role in dealing with the past when they still were pupils themselves. If history teacher trainers want to arrive at a more critical, analytic, and reflective way of dealing with the past in ITT training courses, they need to counteract students' experience and make them reflect on it, for example by means of experience-oriented forms of training (role play), analysing the contents of textbooks or curricula, and presenting new concepts in history teaching.

European and world history

In all the countries surveyed here, European and world history form a counterpart to local and national history. This is also expressed by the proportion of lessons allocated to both groups: in more than half of the countries approximately 50% of history lessons are devoted to local and national history, while the other half is devoted to European and world history. France is a good example of such an even balance in both school and ITT curricula.

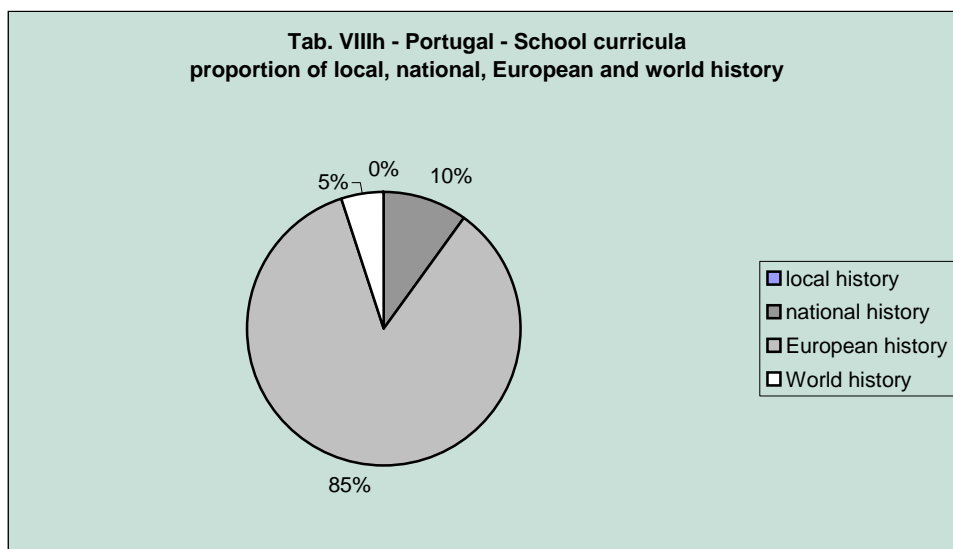
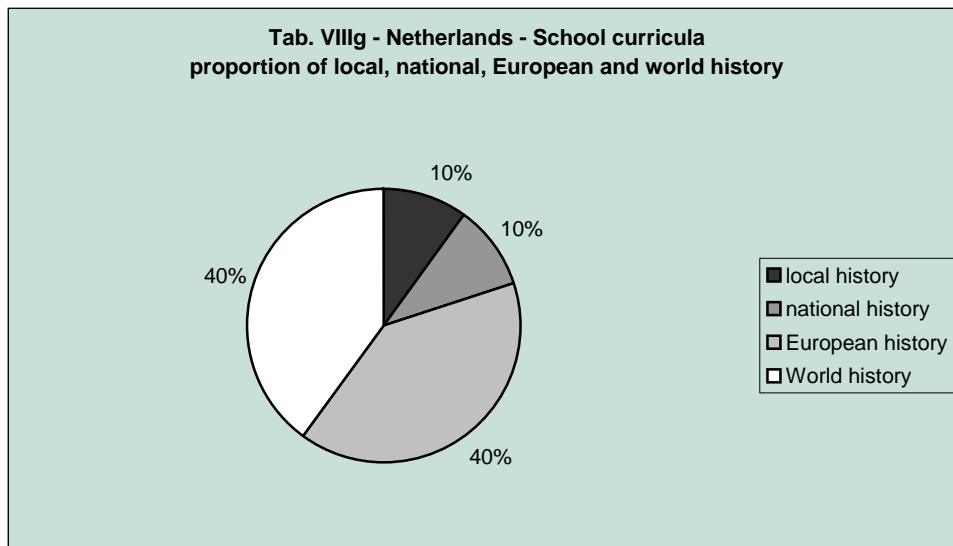


We noticed a similar balance in Hungary (school curricula : 55% devoted to local and national history, 45% to European and world history; ITT curricula: 50% : 50%) and in the Russian Federation (school curricula: 55% : 45%; ITT curricula 52% : 48%), although local history plays a bigger role there (see above). The same holds true for school curricula in Albania (50% : 50%), Norway (50% : 50%) and Spain (52% : 48%).

Nevertheless, there are greater differences between school curricula and ITT curricula regarding these percentages. As stated above, local and national history are more important in the *school curriculum*, while European and world history play a bigger role in academic teacher training. Bulgaria and the UK are striking examples of this tendency. – On the other hand, we noted that in countries like Austria (25% : 75%), Estonia (35% : 65%⁷¹), the Netherlands (20% : 80 %) and Portugal (10% : 90%) European and world history are obviously much more important than national history – especially in the school curriculum.

71. In the Estonian school curriculum, 10% was devoted to “other”, that is “archaeology, archival science, etc.”. In terms of content these courses can be related either to local/national or to European/world history; therefore, in this very simple relation, we decided to give 5% to each group.

Since we had less opportunity to closely examine the details of curriculum contents, we can only mention these particular facts without being able to give satisfactory explanations. We did notice, however, that such a distribution of lessons tends to be more frequent in countries which – in geographical terms – are not among the biggest countries of our sample. The question might be raised whether it is a general tendency for smaller countries to give more room to European and world history.



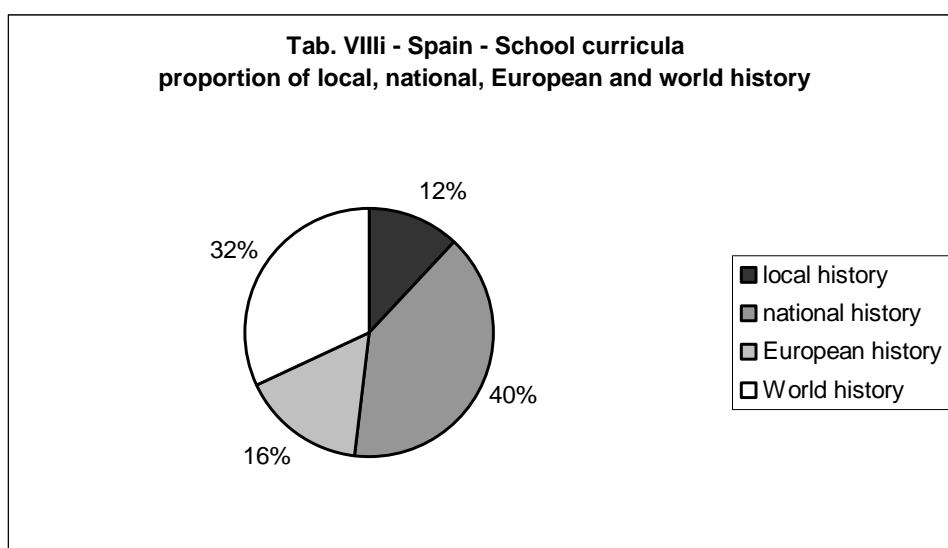
If our observations can be generalised, we have to explore the specific motives of curriculum developers : Why did they move the focus from national history to European and world history? What are the motives for giving more room to a certain area of interest? Are curriculum developers in smaller countries more motivated to identify with bigger entities and, thus, to create new and different opportunities of identification also for the assumed audience, the pupils? If so, this would certainly not be the only explanation for the percentages we have noted. We have to focus more on the specific development of these nation states and their historiography during the 20th century to find the real motives for these changes. For the Netherlands and for Portugal, for example, we would also have to ask to what history they actually attribute the history of former colonies: is it still part of national history, like in the British example, or is it attributed to world history? – Contrary to the example of England, which we have discussed before, in the Netherlands and in Portugal we

noticed a tendency to attribute former colonial and imperialistic history either to European or to world history. Thus, we may assume a new conception of history in the respective nation state which is no longer closely linked to colonial and/or imperialistic objectives.

As regards the proportion of local/national history and European/world history in the *ITT curriculum*, we also noticed a more even balance in the larger part of our sample. Contrary to what has been said about the school curriculum, Portugal places more emphasis on local and national history in ITT studies. – Countries which pay considerably more attention to European and/or to world history in the ITT curricula are once again Austria (31% local/national : 69% European and world history), Estonia (30% to 70%), the Netherlands, but also Albania, the Czech Republic (35% to 65%), the Russian Federation (35% to 65%), and Spain (31% to 69%).

Our categories were too broad to provide a detailed analysis of curriculum contents. We know that it is difficult for the readers to get an idea of what is understood as “local”, “national”, “European” or “world history” as long as we describe only proportions. Therefore, we would like to take *Spain* as a fourth example to describe the possible contents behind these notions:

In the Spanish school curriculum “*local and/or regional history*” mainly refers to the history of provinces, autonomous regions, or the islands. Therefore, there is a greater focus there on the history of Andalusia, Galicia, the Basque Country, the Canary Islands, etc. By focusing on this form of regional history the school curriculum also allows for *multicultural approaches*: In Andalusia, the curriculum in lower secondary school also includes lessons on “general features defining Islamic art and its evolution in Andalusia: significant manifestations of customs, traditions and lifestyles” or on “the culture of Al-Andalus: re-conquest and re-population in Andalusia”. In the curriculum for upper secondary school, the syllabus in the Basque country also includes lessons on “the abolition of the privileges in the Basque Country in the 19th century”, “the Basque Countries during the dictatorship of Franco” or on “the post-war years, industrial growth and socio-cultural problems”. For the Canary Islands the curriculum in upper secondary school includes lessons on “the plurality of people and cultures in the Iberian sphere”, “the colonisation of the Canary Islands in its double perspective of colonist and colony” and “the process of cultural transfer”.



“*European history*” in the Spanish school curriculum is mainly defined in geographical terms as the history of the nation states on the European continent. Notions like “prehistory and the ancient age” were attributed to “national history”, as far as the actual Spanish territory was

concerned. Where the Spanish territory was not (or not particularly) concerned, these notions were attributed to European history. – The former conception of Spanish history seemed to distinguish only between two categories: national history and world history. Therefore, there are still difficulties in clearly attributing certain historical topics to European history. Topics such as “the period of world conflict”, “the world since 1945”, or “problems and perspectives of the modern world” were attributed to the category “European history”, although we would probably expect them to form part of world history.

“*World history*” in the Spanish school curriculum is also defined in geographical terms as the history of the world outside the European continent. Thus, topics such as “prehistory”, “ancient history”, or “medieval societies” were also attributed to this category if they were related to regions outside the European continent. – On the other hand, it was less easy for our Spanish colleagues to attribute the “history of Latin America” to world history. This part, therefore, formed a separate category in their description of curriculum’s content. As this was the only country to do so, we nevertheless decided to follow the geographical logic and to include “Latin America” in world history. However, in the Spanish conception, the history of Latin America is situated between national history and world history: this becomes evident in topics such as “hegemony and decadence of the Spanish monarchy: the colonisation of America and its independence from Spain in the 19th century”; “1898 and the loss of the colonies” or “Spain in the world: Latin America”.

In the Spanish school curriculum, “world history” is a category which also includes thematic aspects of history, such as “the industrial revolution”, “the economic depression”, “economic imbalances”, “political ideas and human rights”, or “technology and social change”.

It is one of the central ideas of historiography in the late 19th century that history develops in time and space. Thus, readers will not be surprised to find this conception still serving as the basic structure of school curricula and ITT curricula today. Since we began our description by citing the percentage of lessons devoted to categories of “space” in the curricula, we will now have to explore how “time” is constructed in teaching and training conceptions.

Chronology

As stated above, chronological cycles form a principle of organisation in the secondary school curricula of the UK (Key Stage 3), the Russian Federation and Bulgaria. But these are not the only countries to organise historical information along chronological lines. Albania has two chronological cycles from grades 5 to 7 and grades 9 to 11, each of them followed by a year devoted to national history (grades 8 and 12). Austria and Czech Republic have two cycles, first from grades 5/6 to 8 and then from grades 9 to 12, each of them covering local, national, European, and world history. This first cycle from grades 5 to 9 is also found in Spain and Estonia. Upper secondary school in Spain also starts with a second cycle in the first two years, followed by one year of art history in grade 11 and one year of contemporary history in grade 12. Norway has a longer first cycle (grades 5 to 10) followed by a two-year cycle (grades 11 and 12). Portugal even has three cycles, the first one in grades 5 and 6, the second one in grades 7 to 9, and the last one in grades 10 to 12. However, in the third cycle (starting with medieval history in grade 10) more emphasis is placed on social and economic history, for example the dynamics of world economy, and on material civilisation and changes of mentality and culture.

The French curriculum also prescribes a chronological cycle (“cycle central”) from grades 6 to 9 that starts with Antiquity, discusses European history from the Middle Ages to the end of the 19th century and finally devotes one year to the 20th century. Before and after this cycle

the curriculum leaves more room for national history, but also for theme-centred forms and problem-oriented learning in history. What is new about the French curriculum is that – despite the cliché that France puts more emphasis on national history – the curriculum recommends dedicating this central cycle “to provide insight into the gradual development of the European cultural heritage without neglecting other cultures as well.”⁷²

Hungary and the Netherlands seem to be the only two countries which do not recommend a strict chronological cycle. A core curriculum prescribes a certain number of “fields of study” or attainment targets which have to be reached at the end of the school year or of the period when history is taught (for example in Hungary after grade 8 and grade 10). Yet the two curricula differ considerably as regards their contents.

In the Netherlands attainment targets are divided into five areas which have to be addressed in every attainment target: approaches and skills; economic and social history and society; governments and politics; culture and thinking; and civics/ politics.

In Hungary, attainment targets fall into three categories: minimum competency, knowledge and skills. The examples provided in the core curriculum follow a chronological scheme, starting with prehistoric societies and ending with contemporary history (Hungary after the second world war; the Kádár regime). Minimum competencies are formulated in a very similar manner to the minimum facts pupils should know, such as, for example, the main events of the revolution of 23 October 1956.

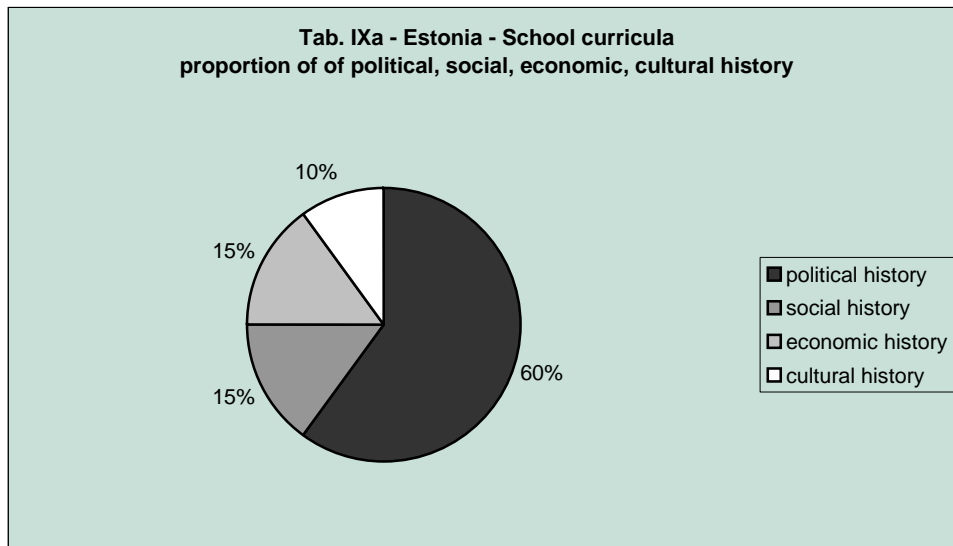
Chronology remains the predominant structure in the curricula as regards the presentation of the historical category of “time” in curricular structures. A general discussion of the conceptions of “time”, theme-centred diachronic or synchronic approaches to history, process-oriented approaches to the past, concepts like the individual and/or the collective memory, cultural heritage, cyclic conceptions in history, or the concept of “longue durée” are rarely encouraged. As regards the future conception of history teaching in the 21st century, we can only raise the question whether it would not be worthwhile for pluralistic societies to pay more attention to complex historical theories of time and space.

Thematic aspects of history: the proportions of political, social, economic and cultural history in school and ITT curricula

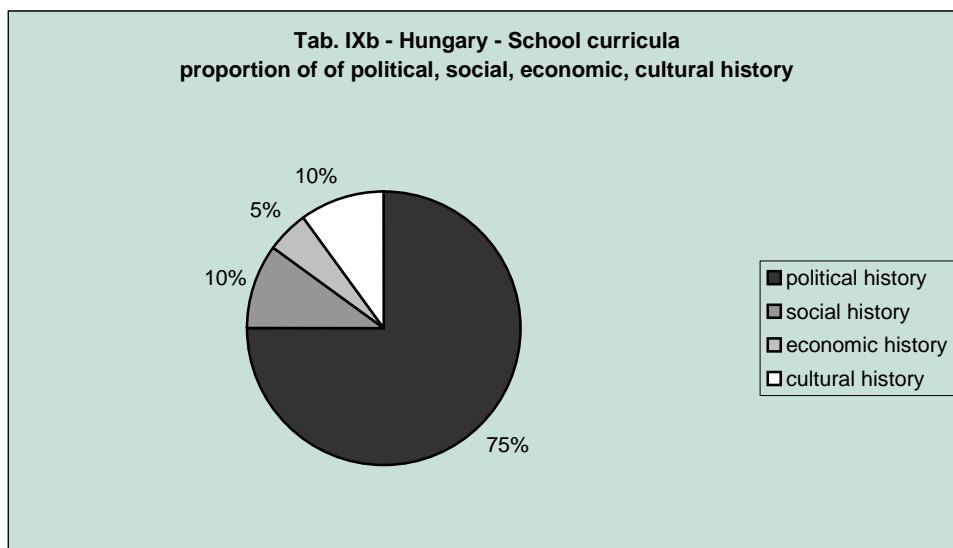
There are certainly many ways to categorise thematic aspects in history. For this first approach to the structures of curriculum contents we looked at the classical categories: political, social, economic and cultural history.

It comes as no surprise that *political history* is the predominant aspect of history in secondary schools as well as in academic training courses. The triad “national history, political history, chronology” still defines the three main pillars of history teaching and training in the 13 European countries surveyed. In secondary schools, political history normally accounts for 40% (Austria, Netherlands, United Kingdom) to 60% (Albania, Estonia, Spain) of all lessons. The Czech Republic and the Russian Federation are in between, both with 50%. Only three countries devote less time to political aspects (Portugal: 17%, Bulgaria and France: 30%).

72. “... on peut tenter une première approche de l’histoire de l’humanité, qui, sans négliger les autres cultures, est essentiellement organisée autour de la lente constitution du patrimoine culturel européen.” In: “L’histoire et la géographie au collège, programmes de 6^{ème}” (1996), Centre national de documentation pédagogique, février 1996, Paris, p.42.



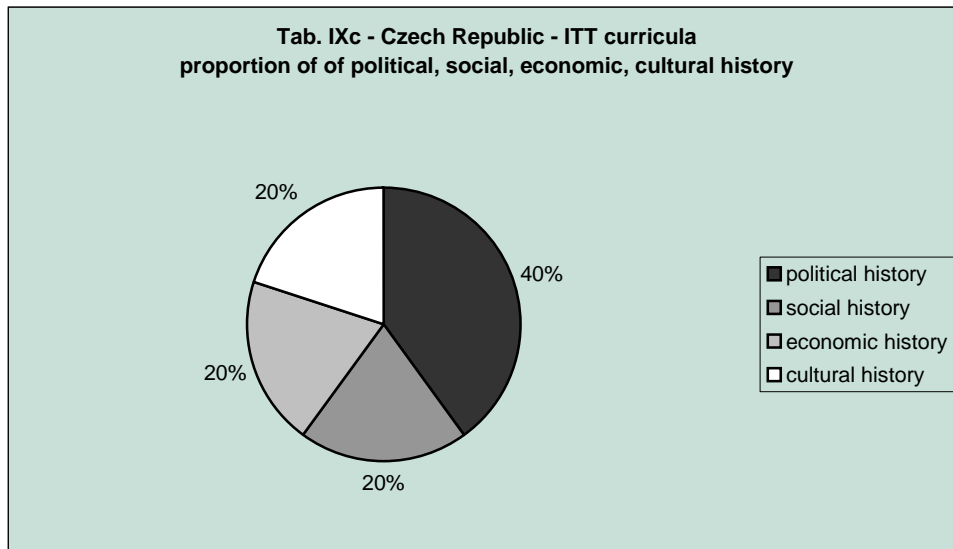
We heard from Hungary that 75% of lessons and academic courses are devoted to political history. This may come as a surprise since we also noted that civic education and social studies are integrated in the Hungarian school curriculum.



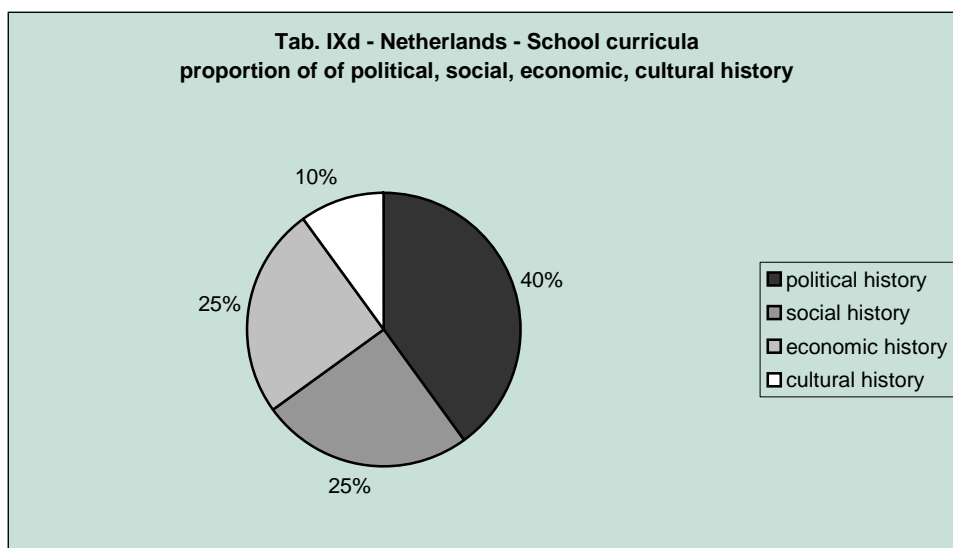
ITT curricula do not differ significantly from what we have heard about secondary schools. As mentioned above, we find approximately the same percentages in school and university curricula in Albania, Bulgaria, France and Hungary. Thus, (national) political history is also the main issue in academic training courses. Austria, the Czech Republic and Spain report that political history plays a smaller role at universities, but as we know that universities have the autonomy to develop their own curricula and students normally have several options and can choose from a variety of courses, this only indicates a tendency in the selection of themes and aspects for university courses. Nevertheless, if we take the whole sample, we notice a slight tendency to give more emphasis to social, economic and/or cultural aspects of history at university.

We also investigated the topics which are understood as “political” in both institutions. The answers mainly cover the classical understanding of political history. To cite our Czech colleague, “political history teaching focuses in particular on the historical development of the nation (...) and the turning points in European and world history. In lower secondary schools

the pupils should acquire a basic understanding of political developments and a fundamental knowledge of chronology. The same compulsory history courses are repeated in secondary schools, but more issues are added and these should be taught more profoundly. ... Political history is the part that is predominantly taught at all Czech faculties. We do not have precise figures as no research has been made in this field, but comparing the study programmes of different universities and faculties it is obvious that the percentage of political history could reach 40 and even more than 50 percent.⁷³



As regards *social history*, we were informed that 10% (Hungary, Spain), 15% (Albania, Austria, Estonia), 20% (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Russian Federation) and 25% (France, Netherlands, UK) of the history lessons in secondary schools are devoted to this subject. In Portugal, more than 30% of all lessons are devoted to social history. Again, the proportions do not differ significantly at universities, only Austria cites 27% for academic training courses.



Concerning the topics which are attributed to social history, we obtained a rather differentiated picture: development and change of societies, social institutions and social conflicts are regarded as topics of social history in all the countries we surveyed. Other topics

73. Homerová, Marie, answers to questionnaire 1, pp. 3, 19.

concern “women in history”, the history of minorities, the history of human rights, as well as the holocaust (e.g. in the Czech Republic). – The Spanish school curriculum also includes complex and interdisciplinary approaches to social developments, such as “space and political power: diversity of societies and cultures”, “imperialism and social movements”, “processes of de-colonisation in Asia and Africa.”, “population growth and the Third World” or “technology and social change”. Other innovative topics can be found in Austrian, Dutch, or English curricula. Portuguese curricula, for example, feature topics such as “domain and feudalism: evolution of the structures of dependency and power in European society from 9th to 13th century”, “urban phenomena and social dynamics in the late Middle Ages” or “change and social tension: industrialisation and bourgeois society in the 19th and early 20th century”. – Austrian and English curricula also promote topics related to social and cultural studies and historical anthropology, such as “the history of childhood, youth and family”, “the history of everyday life”, “the conditions of working-class people”, or topics of historical demography like “the demographic revolution in the late 19th century”.

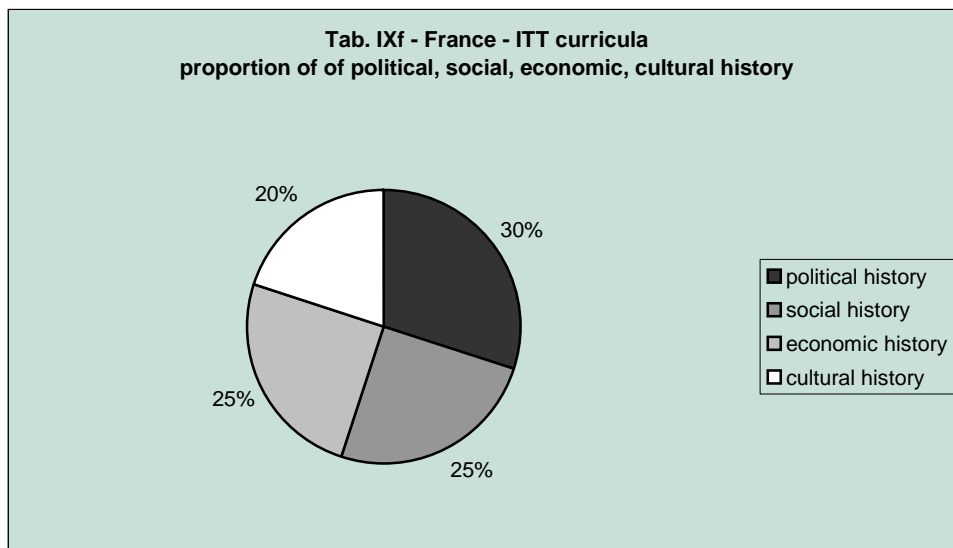
We also have to take into account that in several countries topics relating to social history are not, or not necessarily, taught in history lessons, but form part of subjects such as “social studies” or “civics”. These subjects may be separated from “history” as a school subject, as is the case in Albania, the Russian Federation and Spain, or be partly integrated under the heading of a broader subject, such as “social sciences” (Hungary, Norway).

Economic history does not show as heterogeneous a picture as social history. In general, we only heard about a few classic topics of economic history which are required to be taught in school, like “the industrial revolution”, “the economic depression”, and “colonialism and imperialism”. However, we were not able to do a more in-depth analysis to explore whether the emphasis in teaching about these topics is on social aspects or rather on economic theories and developments. We only learned from Portugal that “the operating concepts of the curriculum are derived from economic history and include: time (short, long, cyclic), levels of analysis (event, conjuncture and structure), change (rupture, crisis and revolution).”⁷⁴ This conception explains why we find issues such as “The dynamics of world economy in the 17th and 18th centuries: from Amsterdam to London” in the Portuguese curriculum of grade 11.

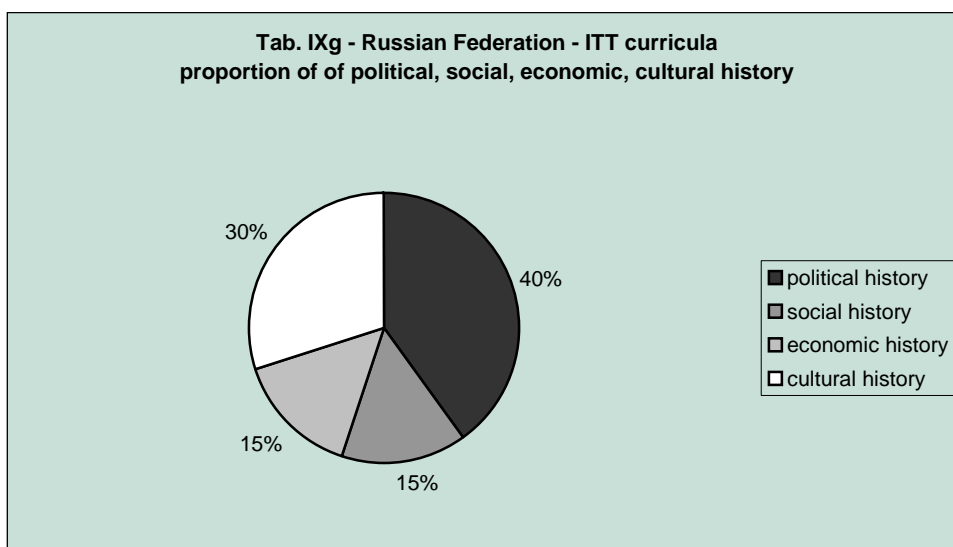
If we add aspects of economic history to aspects of social history and examine the share of lessons allocated to both we find a larger number of countries where social and economic history is represented with about 30% (Austria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Russian Federation, Spain) and a smaller group with 50% (France, Netherlands, UK).

We also learned that, especially as concerns social and economic history, there is still a lack of professional literature and training as well as a lack of adequate textbooks and teaching material.

74. De Bivar Black, Luisa, Answers to questionnaire 1, p. 3.



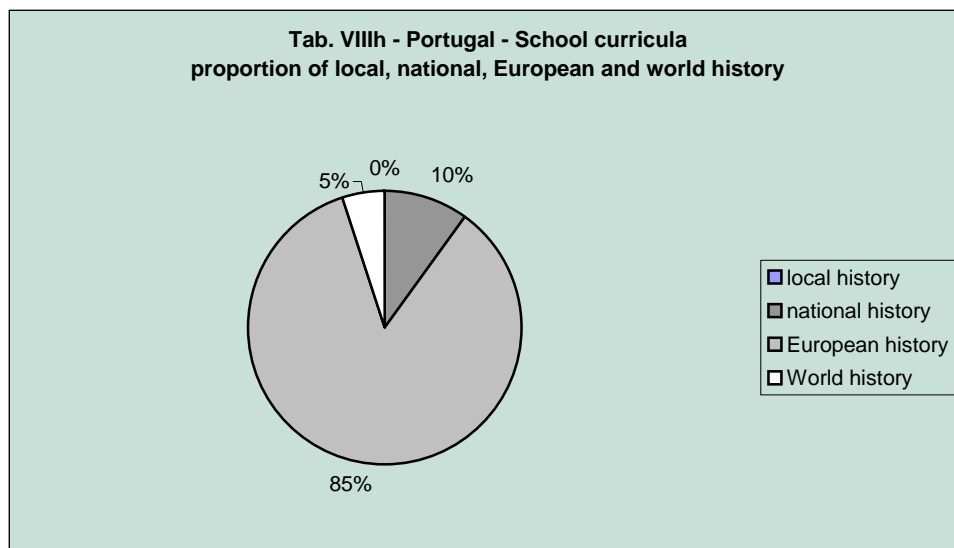
As regards *cultural history*, the picture is once again rather heterogeneous. We can distinguish two main approaches to cultural history. The first includes the history of arts, architecture, philosophy, human sciences and religion, while the second one refers to new topics of cultural studies like the history of everyday life, material culture and/or the history of mentalities. The Spanish curricula may serve as an example for the first group with topics such as “art as an expression of humanity in time and space”, “artistic styles: historic evolution and spatial diversity”, or “continuations and changes in contemporary art”. Besides history, there is even a separate school subject – “cultural studies” – in the Spanish curriculum for both lower and upper secondary education. We were also told that there is such a subject in the Russian Federation where it is taught 2 hours per week from grade 5 to 8.



One aspect which may be closely related to this special interest in cultural history was again reported by our Czech colleague: “Cultural history is frequently taught, especially in the so-called humanist⁷⁵ gymnasium. As opposed to political history, Czech history teachers are well educated in this field as they were able to study cultural history more intensively under the previous regime than, for example social or economic history. Therefore, additional special lessons are very often offered in many schools.” This type of cultural history seems closely

75. Classical secondary school emphasising the study of Latin and Greek

related to the origins of the modern structure of the ‘humanistic gymnasium’ as it has developed since the first half of the 19th century. We know that the conception of this type of school was closely linked to a certain conception of bourgeois life and culture of the 19th century. It might be interesting to explore why, in the countries of Eastern Europe in particular, this conception of cultural history is still (or again) attractive at the beginning of the 21st century.



The second conception of cultural history prevails in some Western European countries. The Portuguese school curriculum, for example, stipulates lessons on “material civilisation and mentality” in the context of 16th-century Renaissance and Reformation (grade 11) or about “changes in the mentality and culture from the beginning until the middle of the 20th century: the crisis of traditional values: ruptures in thought and art: the diffusion of mass culture”. (grade 12).

Before concluding this overview on the structures of curriculum contents, we would like to emphasise once again that this study can only be regarded as a first and rather incomplete survey of the structures of history teaching in European countries. We hope that there will be future comparative studies which will specifically address these very challenging questions.

Models of initial training for history teachers

Julieta Savova

Summary

This article is devoted to models of initial training for history teachers and to selection procedures, addressing questions such as: What are the main models of initial training for history teachers? Where does it take place? What are the most common selection procedures for history teachers? This article also analyses the structures of teacher training and discusses emerging new trends.⁷⁶

Selection procedures and realities are another issue: selection strategies that are developed and/or adopted, their significance and value in the context of existing national systems of teacher training, and their relevance to these training systems and future job requirements. Selection procedures are discussed in the context of existing selection policies and their institutional or national framework, where both centralisation and decentralisation patterns can be observed.

The article outlines the main structures of initial teacher training (ITT) programmes for history teachers and how they are linked with the length of the programmes. It describes the "two sides" of initial training for history teachers and discusses important new trends and issues. Interesting examples of ITT for history teachers from various countries are presented and their strengths and weaknesses analysed.

Our comparative study shows that there is a variety of common trends and similarities even though the traditions and specific conditions of the countries concerned are quite different. The study also offers insights into these differences, enabling readers to compare the situations in various countries and form their own opinions about teacher training and its perspectives in a European context.

Models of initial training: where does ITT take place?

All 13 European countries involved in this comparative study have an extensive and quite diversified system of institutions with responsibilities related to teacher training, including the training of history teachers for secondary schools. Both long-standing traditions and new educational needs have a significant influence on institutional developments.

University remains the main institutional structure responsible for ITT for history teachers. All countries rely on this basic structure in teacher education. However, there are differences regarding:

- the involvement of faculties/departments – which faculties and departments are involved in teacher training for history teachers;
- the degree of autonomy – what extent of autonomy do these structures have, whether internal or external university structures (departments, institutes, colleges, and other teacher training institutions);

76. My special thanks go to the members of the working group on “Models of ITT – Entrance requirements” who contributed to this article: Petrit Nathanaili (Albania) and Gisèle Dessieux (France), ” Vilmas Vass (Hungary) and Gregorio Gonzales Roldan (Spain).

- the status of universities – state (public) or private;
- organisational issues – when and where is teacher training/professional training introduced;
- the respective ITT models – consecutive, concurrent, or modular.

Despite the differences between the countries concerned in terms of organisation or content, the stability of teacher training and the relevant institutions has generally been preserved, especially at university level.

Bulgaria is among those countries where ITT (for lower and upper secondary level) takes place only at public universities. History is also taught at some private universities, but these do not necessarily train history teachers. Faculties of history and faculties of pedagogy are usually responsible for ITT. Following new amendments to the law on higher education and subsequent changes in the requirements regarding professional staff, some universities such as South-west University (SWU) have restructured individual faculties. An integrated Faculty of Law and History has now been established at SWU, for instance, but the major responsibility for the training of history teachers still lies with the Department of History and the Department of Pedagogy. History teachers for secondary school are trained at various universities all over the country.

Portugal enjoys the same structural stability. Universities, both state and private ones, are the only institutions where history teachers for secondary school are trained. Seven state and three private universities are concerned with the training of history teachers.

Recently introduced legislative changes in Portugal stipulate that teacher training for teachers in compulsory education (until grade 9) is to be offered in all 22 administrative districts, with polytechnic institutes being mainly responsible for training the targeted group of teachers. These changes do not affect the training of history teachers for secondary school (after grade 9), which remains university-based.

Universities are also the main institutions for teacher training in the Czech Republic. Teacher training for history teachers takes place at the country's nine pedagogical faculties and five faculties of philosophy; the faculties of philosophy are also responsible for the training of professional historians. Prospective history teachers and professional historians receive the same kind of basic training until the last two years, when professional training for history teachers is introduced. It is interesting to note the specific regional distribution of the faculties where history teachers are trained: nine faculties of education correspond to the nine regions in the country.

In Albania ITT takes place only at university. The Ministry of Education holds a wide range of responsibilities with regard to teacher training and monitors and controls teacher training programmes. The training of history teachers used to be the responsibility of higher pedagogical institutes until all of them were restructured into universities in 1991.

The country's four universities concerned with history teacher training are public. The faculties mainly involved in teacher training for history teachers are faculties of history and philology which provide different teacher qualifications, depending on the respective university. In contrast to the other surveyed countries, professional training for history teachers is provided by the same faculties, but many similarities with the other countries may be found on the department level. Teacher training for history teachers, like that for all other

teachers, is university-based, even though it is governed by central guidelines and close monitoring.

In Norway, responsibility for the training of history teachers is shared by universities and colleges of higher education. The Royal Ministry of Education and Church Affairs plays a significant role in ITT. The University of Trondheim is a good example of the Norwegian situation. Both departments – the Department of History and the Department of Teacher Training – are involved in teacher training for history teachers. Recent innovations (1992) were based on the implementation of a model of co-operation between several departments, including those mentioned above. Contents of teacher training courses were updated to meet the needs of future teachers, and organisational patterns of teacher training courses were reviewed and adapted to new demands, but on a structural level the relationship between the university and the departments concerned remained relatively unchanged.

Hungary also falls into the pattern described above. It also has a “dual system” of teacher training which may be compared, to a certain extent, with the Austrian system. History teachers for upper secondary school are trained at university, while teachers for primary school (grades 1 to 6) or middle school (lower secondary: grades 5 to 8) are trained at teacher training colleges or other colleges.

Systematic educational reforms were undertaken in all countries undergoing democratic transition in the last decade. These reforms include the restructuring of education systems and teacher training institutions. The restructuring of systems of teacher training and the creation of new training environments are proof of the clear professional and political will to improve the quality of training. As a result, a separate structure called pedagogical university was established in some countries, while in others so-called institutes of semi-higher education were reformed and restructured into university faculties or teacher training colleges.

Pedagogical universities are mainly concerned with the training of teachers, including history teachers, for different educational levels. Some of these pedagogical universities are relatively new institutions.

A typical example is the Russian Federation, where former teacher training institutes were reformed, and so-called pedagogical universities were established. This was due, among other reasons, to the fact that teacher training institutes had a reputation of being heavily steeped in ideology and of using out-dated methods. However, not all pedagogical universities are newly-established institutions.

In the Netherlands, history teacher training is offered both by pedagogical universities and “classical” universities. The introduction of pedagogical universities was not related to the reasons mentioned above. It is merely the result of new educational developments and the ensuing transformation of colleges of higher education into pedagogical universities that began in 1999. The basic internal structures concerned with teacher training are teacher training departments and faculties of arts.

Prospective history teachers at pedagogical university study four years for a “second grade” qualification that entitles them to teach the 12-15 age group. “First grade” qualification is granted to students or graduates of “classical” universities who express the intention to become teachers and are entitled to take an additional year in order to become qualified history teachers. Teacher training colleges at university level offer students training in one subject. This is a distinctive feature of the Dutch model.

In Estonia both classical universities and pedagogical universities are involved in teacher training: Tartu University, the Tartu Teacher Seminary and Tallinn Pedagogical University (which started history teacher training in 1998).

One of the strengths of pedagogical universities is that they attribute greater attention to teacher training issues. Thanks to their closer links and affiliations with schools they can also offer practical teacher training in a school environment. This is because their basic mission is to meet teacher training requirements, while classical universities sometimes seem to consider matters of teacher training, especially the professional training of future teachers, as a minor issue. However, the lower reputation of pedagogical universities as compared to that of classical universities is certainly one of their weaknesses.

In Austria, history teachers for lower and upper secondary school are trained at university. All of the five universities are public and cover the country's needs. Nevertheless, Austria represents a very specific case, as teachers for one type of lower secondary school (*Hauptschule*) are trained at pedagogical academies. These are independent structures representing both the public sector (eight public academies) and the private sector (five private academies). Teacher training at pedagogical academies is shorter (three years) and more practice-oriented than at university and is marked by an explicit emphasis on pedagogical aspects. Austria is also one of the countries (such as Norway, Netherlands, Russian Federation, Estonia) with a “dual system” of teacher training. The basic weakness of this dual system is the institutional separation and alienation between different forms of training which affects the quality of teacher training and the status attributed to teaching as a profession.

In France teacher training is university-based and takes place at the *Instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres* (IUFMs). There are 28 IUFMs across the country. They are autonomous structures within the universities and provide teacher training for those university students who have already opted for a teaching career. IUFMs offer professional training during the last two years of studies, when academic, pedagogical and practical components are introduced. Although universities and IUFMs enjoy a certain autonomy, the French model of teacher training is still largely based on a centralised approach.

Spain is another example of university-based training for history teachers. Professional training is introduced by the Institute for Educational Science (ISE), a structure within the university, and usually takes place during the last year of study. Universities are largely autonomous, decisions on teacher training matters are university-based, and the whole system is marked by a high level of decentralisation. But teacher training also depends, to a certain extent, on the situation in the labour market. The Ministry of Labour announces teaching vacancies, and each region then decides on the number of teachers needed.

In England, university remains the main institution responsible for teacher training, since a university degree is a prerequisite for all teachers at secondary school. However, professional teacher training is provided in a separate one-year programme, of which only a small part is university-based. Most teacher training takes place at secondary school level under the partnership model between institutions of higher education (universities, colleges of higher education) and secondary schools. In view of the strong ties between universities and schools, this model of teacher training for history teachers may be classified as an explicitly school-centred one, even though both sides – universities and schools – are involved in training.

Major trends

New trends were observed in the restructuring of teacher training institutions. Owing to different reasons, pedagogical universities were established as teacher training institutions in some countries (Netherlands, Russian Federation) or are currently being established (Austria). This creates new opportunities for harmonising teacher training institutions across Europe and for laying the foundation for common European teacher training standards to ensure a high quality of training and to encourage the mobility of teachers.

Some countries have a dual system of ITT for history teachers, where teacher training for history teachers is provided at both levels: university and pedagogical academy (Austria), university and training college (Norway, Hungary), university and polytechnic (Portugal). Typically, history teachers for upper secondary school are trained at university, while the training of history teachers for lower secondary school as well as for primary and basic school takes place at college.

The network of institutions offering ITT for history teachers on both national and European level is becoming increasingly diversified. On the one hand, this may be seen as a trend towards democratising systems of ITT for history teachers and adapting them to the current needs of teacher training. On the other hand, it shows that a competitive environment for history teacher training is emerging which will, hopefully, contribute to raising the overall quality of training. This is underlined by the fact that teacher training for history teachers is provided not only by public, but also by private institutions (universities and colleges).

A growing autonomy of educational institutions concerned with teacher training for history teachers was observed in all countries. However, the evaluation of institutional autonomy is ambivalent.

Key issues and problems

The coherence of the ITT system for history teachers

There still seem to be some problems regarding the coherence among institutions within ITT networks. Austria, for example, reported a certain degree of separation and isolation between institutions in the “dual system” (universities/pedagogical academies).

Other countries (Czech Republic, Portugal) noted great differences in the status of faculties and departments involved in ITT for history teachers, which affects both the public and the professional perception of the quality of ITT provided by these training structures. This clearly shows that the prestige of training institutions has an impact on expectations regarding the reliability of teacher training.

As concerns academic training, in particular, expectations are higher towards, and greater prestige is attributed to, university education as compared to other training structures. However, this does not apply to all countries or to the entire field of teacher training. A number of countries (Czech Republic, Portugal, Netherlands, etc.) report that university priorities are not necessarily related to teacher training. In fact, the aims and objectives of “classical” universities and pedagogical universities and those of other training institutions are not the same. This also refers to the priorities of the individual institutions. In the given circumstances, these priorities may lead to teacher training issues being neglected, or they may depend on financial considerations.

The autonomy of teacher training institutions

The study shows that autonomy, especially at university level, is seen ambivalently. Some countries (Hungary, Czech Republic, and ect.) report that autonomy does not always lead to positive results. Institutional self-isolation, the adoption of different criteria by different institutions, and failure to reach the relevant teacher training standards are the most frequent negative effects of existing practices of autonomy.

Selection procedures in ITT

The majority of participating countries apply selection procedures at different stages of ITT for history teachers. A general requirement in all training systems is that candidates must be secondary school graduates, regardless of the respective graduation practice (compulsory or non-compulsory examinations).

Few countries (Austria, Estonia, Portugal) do not apply specified selection procedures for candidates for history teacher training.

In most countries (Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Russian Federation, Czech Republic, etc.) future history teachers undergo selection procedures at the start of their university studies, while other countries apply these procedures either at the beginning or at the end of professional training. In France, selection is applied at the beginning of teacher training, and in Spain it happens twice: first upon entrance into university and then at the end of professional training.

Our comparative study clearly shows that all countries have general policies of applicant selection, but these take a variety of forms. Even those countries which do not have any special selection procedures (Austria, Estonia, Portugal) pursue a general policy regarding the admission of history students.

To give a better understanding of the distinctive features of the selection systems currently applied in the various countries, I shall list a number of examples describing the main specifics of these systems.

Examples

The most typical form of selection procedure is selection upon entrance into university. Bulgaria uses such a model of general selection. All applicants for history, regardless of their career objectives, have to take a uniform written examination on history. They may apply for many different specialities, not only for history. The entrance exam is taken on a competitive basis. Although its content is based on the history curriculum of secondary school, with special consideration of Bulgarian history, universities are autonomous in deciding on the specific questions and areas included. All questions and areas covered by the exam are announced and published in advance. Candidates have five hours to write the test; results are publicly announced about seven to ten days afterwards. Universities have their own rules to determine which applicants are successful, but usually cumulative scores are formed by adding the doubled scores from the history exam to the candidates' secondary school marks in history and Bulgarian (at least this is the practice at Sofia University, Bulgaria's oldest and largest university).

Based on their cumulative scores, candidates are ranked according to the number of places announced to be open at a particular university in a particular year. This latter decision is not taken by the universities themselves, but by the Ministry of Education and Science, and is determined primarily by the available financial means and by policies of higher education rather than by the universities' requests for places.

History students may also be admitted on a merit basis under special agreements between universities and the secondary schools affiliated to them. Students who come from such schools and achieve the best results in the national history competition are entitled to enrol at university without taking an entrance examination in history.

General selection at the level of university entrance takes place in countries such as the Czech Republic, Hungary, Albania, etc. However, despite their similar selection approach these countries also differ from each other in a variety of ways.

In Albania, the general entrance examination consists of two parts which require knowledge of different contents and fields. The first part of the written exam is based on the secondary school curricula of science and mathematics, while the second part requires candidates to demonstrate their knowledge of history (Albanian history and world history). Although universities are considered autonomous institutions, the Ministry of Education tightly monitors selection procedures and controls the process of candidate selection.

In Hungary, both forms for selection – written and oral examinations – are applied, but more importance is attached to the written examination. The weighting between the written and the oral form is 70%:30%, but the test only covers historical knowledge, not analytical skills. That is why the selection procedure includes an essay as well. It forms the basis for assessing applicants' analytical skills in the field of history.

Applicants for history (the practice is similar in other subjects) are ranked according to the results of both their university/college entrance examinations and their secondary school graduation exams. One graduation exam must be taken in a prescribed subject (literature, history, foreign language, mother tongue), while the other one may be chosen freely. Candidates are ranked on the basis of cumulative results.

However, experts in history teacher training in Albania as well as in Hungary claim that there is no sufficient link between school examinations and university examinations. General selection is still applied to all candidates, not only history candidates.

Spain has adopted a “mixed selection policy”. Owing to decentralisation, all universities determine their own selection requirements and procedures, but there is clear link between entrance examinations and training. Spanish practice tends to recognise the results from school-leaving examinations at secondary school level and allows scores from university entrance examinations to be added to them. The selection of history teachers takes place at the end of teacher training, which lasts one year and is related to the Institute for Educational Science, which forms part of the university. Selection is based on candidates' academic knowledge of history (at entrance level) and on their didactical knowledge and competencies (at the end of teacher training).

This may imply the conclusion that selection practices in countries where the target group of applicants for history teacher training is clearly identified, are quite different from those practices where general selection takes place at university entrance level. However, we also have to take into account that the second stage of selection (French and Spanish models) is also determined by professional requirements.

France is a country where centralisation and decentralisation regarding university admission and teacher training are integrated in a unique way. Selection takes place first upon entrance into university (general selection) and then at the beginning of professional training for history teachers. There is also a final stage of selection when graduates from teacher training programme are awarded the title “qualified teacher”.

Generally, there are two ways of university entrance: after the *baccalauréat* examinations at secondary school, which are recognised by universities, or by taking university entrance examinations. During the first stage of their studies, all history students receive the same kind of training. Those who want to become history teachers and successfully pass the relevant recruitment exams then enter the professional stage of training. Here, academic knowledge of history is combined with pedagogical, didactical, methodological, and practical competencies. This two-year training takes place at an IUFM and is specially designed to prepare future history teachers for their chosen profession. To join a programme of history teacher training, applicants have to take recruitment examinations. The number of teaching vacancies in the country is publicly announced each year, and students have to pass highly competitive exams to obtain a teaching post. Although IUFMs enjoy a considerable degree of autonomy, the contents of recruitment examinations are determined centrally in order to grant equal opportunities to all candidates and to ensure standard requirements on a national level. At the beginning of professional training, applicants’ knowledge of history and geography and their skills in working with historical sources are tested. Candidates also have to take an oral exam on cultural history. At the end of professional training, they have to defend their thesis, and their views on pedagogical issues are examined. Finally, they are awarded the title “qualified teacher”. However, this stage of selection predominantly serves the requirements of the teaching profession.

Major trends

A significant number of countries pursue a general selection policy, but do not have any specific selection process for candidates for history teacher training (Albania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Russian Federation). Responsibility for selection procedures and decisions mostly lies with the universities themselves. This applies to countries with stable selection procedures as well as to those with changing selection patterns as a result of structural transition.

Selection policies generally tend to focus on an academic knowledge of history, attaching relatively little importance to other skills and competencies. In those countries where selection is entirely based on university entrance examinations, the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession are not reflected in the selection procedures at all.

In the majority of countries (with the exception of Austria and France) universities do not recognise the results of graduation examinations at secondary school, even in those cases where these examinations are uniform national tests. Universities adopt their own selection procedures which, again, are not linked in any way to the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession.

Selection takes a variety of forms, with written examinations being by far the most frequent one. Different weight is attached to different forms of selection. In those countries where selection procedures exist, the admission of applicants is entirely, or partially, based on examination results.

Selection procedures vary according to the individual countries' traditions with regard to issues such as: institutional/state selection policies, the stage of ITT, and so forth. Only few countries (France and, to some extent, Spain) have adopted a two-stage approach where the second stage of selection takes into account both the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession.

The study also showed that some countries (Austria, Estonia, Netherlands, Portugal) do not apply any special selection procedures.

Key issues and problems

The relevance of selection policies and procedures to the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession is one of the key issues of our study. In the majority of countries, selection takes place at the level of university entrance. It is linked neither to the requirements of teacher training nor to the needs of the teaching profession. General selection policies do not offer the chance to identify the best-suited candidates and to admit them to teacher training programmes for history teachers. This is a major disadvantage of this type of selection policy.

With regard to the content of selection procedures, they mostly focus on an academic knowledge of history, which may even raise doubts about selection results. A proper balance in the contents of selection procedures has yet to be found.

This problem of quality/inequality in teacher training for history teachers still seems unresolved in the majority of countries. Institutional autonomy (at whatever level) may lead to unequal opportunities for history teacher candidates or may cause selection quality to decrease. This need not necessarily be the case, but some countries have already pointed out this risk (Hungary). Finding a favourable balance between centralisation and decentralisation policies continues to be a vital issue.

Frequent models of ITT

All countries participating in this study have adopted either the concurrent, the consecutive, or both models. The modular model is only found in very few countries: the United Kingdom (Open University) and the Netherlands (now starting on an experimental level), but interest in this model is rising.

Before describing the countries' various practices and models of history teacher training, I should like to comment on some important orientations in the ITT curriculum which depend on the status of history in the school curriculum.

In some cases, the curriculum of history teacher training is structured in such a way as to provide future history teachers with knowledge and competencies from the “pure” field of history, preparing them to teach only this subject. In other cases, the curriculum is designed to prepare trainees for teaching integrated subjects which also include history (for example social studies). Social studies cover a wide area comprising history, geography, civics, the humanities, sociology, and so forth. This is a specific characteristic of Norway and the Netherlands, but it does not apply to the curricula of all training institutions. Even these two countries differ in their approach to curriculum structure. The Dutch experience tends to integrate history, geography, civics and social sciences into one subject: humanities, or social studies. Integrated subject history and civics is introduced in the curriculum for lower secondary school. However, in the Dutch case teachers are trained in only one subject. This is quite different from the orientation of training in the other countries.

Norway, which has the same comprehensive subject of “social studies”, puts more emphasis on history, geography and sociology. Additional considerations are concerned with areas such as human rights, education, ethics. and sociology.

Combinations of subjects that future history teachers are trained in vary considerably. In most countries, the predominant combination in the curriculum for history teachers is history and geography, so that graduates are qualified to teach both subjects. This also applies to Bulgaria, but the country has now also introduced integrated training in combinations such as history/literature and history/foreign languages.

The present study clearly shows that most countries aim at offering history training in combination with training in another subject or area.

Examples

France has a very distinctive model of initial training for history teachers. In fact, it is a uniform training model for teachers for all types of schools. It is a predominantly consecutive model, with some variations.

Since 1991, all teachers receive their professional training at an IUMF. As mentioned above, an IUFM is a state-run educational institution within a university and enjoys legal and financial autonomy. The network of IUFMs covers the country’s 28 regions, and their number corresponds with the number of universities and academies. Training for history teachers takes at least four years. Initial training for history teachers is based on three years of university studies leading to a *licence* or Bachelor's degree. Equivalent qualifications or diplomas are also accepted.

Holders of an *agrégation* (four years of university study/maîtrise plus competitive exam) form another group of future history teachers.

A third option is open to students who have already completed at least two years of university training. In their third year of academic training they start their first year of teacher training, which is mainly devoted to pre-professional training and the preparation for competitive examinations and is dominated by practice and supervision of trainees.

All applicants for teacher training programmes in France are, in fact, applicants for teaching vacancies, the number of which is announced nationally. To qualify for these programmes applicants have to pass a recruitment competition.

An essential part of the initial training for history teachers is introduced in the second year which is devoted to theoretical and practical training. Compulsory modules like pedagogy, psychology, didactics of history (methodology of history teaching), and so forth, are offered together with elective modules such as teaching skills, foreign language history teaching, adolescent psychology. This second year also includes four to six hours of teaching per week. All teaching activities are supervised by teacher trainers (IUMF members), inspectors, and advisory teachers. Students become qualified teachers upon successful completion of theoretical training (module training), practical training, and a thesis.

England and Wales share a common approach to teacher training for history teachers at secondary school level and have also adopted the consecutive model. Its framework (structures, contents, requirements) is increasingly determined by central authorities (government and the State Teacher Training Agency) and becomes the framework of prescribed standards for teacher training. The most distinctive feature here is the partnership between universities, other institutions of higher education, and schools. In contrast to France, there is no special selection. The history teacher training programme lasts one year (PGCE programme). The proportion between university-based and school-based training should be 40%:60% on average.

Manchester Metropolitan University (MMU), for example, offers the following training programme for history teachers.

The programme profile comprises 20 subject-based competencies to be acquired by future history teachers. These fall into five main groups: subject application in the classroom (planning, monitoring, assessing); pupils' learning needs and expectations of history as a subject; internalising the aims and objectives of history teaching; teaching concepts and skills; history curricula at secondary school level.

The organisation of history teacher training depends on the structure of the school year. Students spend 24 weeks at secondary school where they teach history under the supervision of a school mentor. The school mentor works together with the university tutor who is also responsible for the quality of training.

Student teachers perform all duties of "real" history teachers (observation, monitoring, writing, planning, teaching, assessment), learning how to be an efficient secondary school teacher of history.

The university-based part of training mainly focuses on students' reflections on subject and teaching competencies and also aims at making them efficient history teachers. There is close co-operation and teamwork among university representatives, school teachers, and student teachers.

Student teachers have to accomplish three special assignments devoted to effective teaching and learning of history in the classroom; language in the classroom; and planning, teaching, monitoring and assessing pupils' progress and performance against attainment targets. All three assignments should take into account the relevant literature in the field as well as reflections on school-based training.

The evaluation of student teachers takes place on a formal level as well as on an informal one, both at university and at school, and involves university tutors, school supervisors, and the students themselves. After completion of the teacher training programme, graduates serve a probation year at school.

England is gathering experience also in module-based teacher training (Open University, Milton Keynes) where university-based sessions and consultations with teacher trainers are combined with a distance learning approach. Special distance-learning programmes and training packages are developed and offered to fulfil training requirements.

Modular models are being introduced in the Netherlands, too. Two of the country's seven universities (the Universities of Utrecht and Leiden) are currently testing a distance education approach. The experiment is funded by the Ministry of Education.

These models are targeted at students enrolled in post-graduate teacher training courses which last two years. They are considered part-time students because they are already employed. This employment does not necessarily have to be in (history) teaching.

These training models rely on new information technologies and the use of Internet services. Students are organised in teams of six to eight and receive their assignments by e-mail. Their reflections on their own experience within the working teams are an essential element in this model of teacher training.

Students are expected to complete their tasks and assignments within a specified period of time and to send back reports and materials to their trainers in written form. Teacher trainers comment on the results and evaluate the students' performance against specific criteria. At the moment it is still too early to assess the results of these experiments.

A further analysis of teacher training practice in the Netherlands shows that all three models of initial training for history teachers are used. The choice of model depends on a number of factors, one of them being the type of training institution. The concurrent model is applied at most pedagogical universities.

The consecutive model is typically found at universities, which provide teacher training both for university students who choose a teaching career and for university graduates. The former are offered a two-month introductory course within the post-graduate teacher training programme, while graduates take a one-year post-doctoral (PGCE) course. These courses take place at local universities: IVLOS in Utrecht and UCLO in Croningen.

The organisation of initial training for history teachers depends on the specifics of the respective institution. Pedagogical universities have four-year training programmes where theoretical training in history (a four-year history course) is combined with professional training in general pedagogy, psychology, and the methodology of teaching and learning history. In a contrast to classical universities, primary importance is attached to practical training at school level. The professional reflection of future teachers on their practical experience is considered a crucial factor in teacher training. Practical training takes up 50% of the time allocated to a teacher training programme.

Classical university students also follow a four-year programme in their chosen area, but they have to take an additional year of teacher training to acquire the status of a "first-grade" teacher. Post-graduate teacher training programmes are based on a consecutive approach. Training contents focus on history as a school subject, not as an academic discipline.

An analysis of the training of history teachers for upper secondary school also has to take into consideration a distinctive feature of the Dutch model: history and civics are a part of 50% elective programme for pupils and can be chosen as an option. The only compulsory element concerns pupils aged 15 to 16 years and deals with 20th century history and politics.

Other elements of teacher training programmes are pedagogics, the methodology of teaching and learning history, and practical training. The proportion between theoretical and practical training differs from that at pedagogical universities. Less time is allocated to practical training than to the theoretical part of professional training (about 33% compared to 50% at pedagogical universities).

Another important feature of the Dutch system is the fact that the Ministry of Education establishes general guidelines which regulate the contents and the time allocated to teacher training programmes. The ministry also funds the programmes, guaranteeing a certain level of quality. Thus, there is no common curriculum for teacher training, merely guidelines.

Together with the Central Organisation of the Institutes of Higher Education (VSNU and HBO-Raad), the Ministry of Education is also in charge of controlling and evaluating teacher training programmes, including those at teacher training colleges. The Working Group for Process Management in Teacher Education is a newly-established body affiliated to the Ministry of Education. It has drafted a “final terms of achievement” for teacher training colleges, where teachers for lower secondary school (12-15 age group) are trained.

Using their institutional autonomy, training institutions also develop their own criteria for teacher training.

The models of initial training for history teachers described above are also applied in the other surveyed countries. However, it is difficult to generalise since different models are often adopted within a particular country and even by teacher training institutions within a particular town. The Netherlands is a case where all three models are adopted, but universities take their autonomous decisions.

In the consecutive model, ITT usually starts one or two years after subject-based training (France, Spain, Portugal, UK). England has introduced a one-year post-graduate ITT programme for history teachers at secondary school, while ITT in France lasts two years. Spain has introduced a separate form of ITT, independent of a university qualification, with a minimum duration of 300 hours. Portugal has a two-year post-graduate ITT programme: the first year is devoted to theoretical training and the second year to the practical components of ITT for history teachers. In Norway ITT does not require a university or college degree; applications are filed one semester before graduation, and one year is allocated both to the theoretical and practical components of ITT. Estonia has chosen almost the same path and offers one year of ITT for holders of a Bachelor's degree or a Master's programme combined with an ITT programme.

Austria, Hungary, and the Netherlands offer different types of training for history teachers at primary and secondary school. Austria has two types of institutionalised ITT (at pedagogical academy and at university), depending on whether future teachers will teach pupils up to the age of 14 or pupils at upper secondary school. Dutch teachers who teach pupils aged 5 to 11 receive general rather than specialised training. Hungary also differentiates between the training of history teachers for primary and for secondary school.

Both Bulgaria and Spain reserve 15% to 20% of training for teacher training, but in their concrete decisions they differ considerably from each other. While Spain has adopted the consecutive model in ITT for history teachers, concentrating all teacher training courses in the final stage of the programmes, Bulgaria is used to the concurrent model and has no uniform pattern for the allocation of teacher training courses. Some universities have introduced academic ITT courses even at the very beginning of general training (in the first year), others spread ITT courses over a number of years, and in a few cases the last one or two years of training are partially dedicated to ITT.

This comparative study on the training of history teachers has provided us with new insights into the conflict between centralisation and decentralisation in education. Some countries report significant decentralisation steps in ITT (Austria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Spain), while others are taking steps towards an obvious centralisation or maintain existing traditions of central decision-taking (Albania, France, United Kingdom). England represents an interesting example of the explicit shift from a high degree of decentralisation in education towards more centralisation, assigning more responsibilities to central institutions, especially as concerns matters of teacher training.

In the majority of countries standards are developed mainly by the training institutions themselves. Only in few countries (Bulgaria, France, UK) are standards developed on a national level. Both Bulgaria and England have introduced standards for qualified teachers.

In a third group of countries, implementation of ITT models takes place in a strongly decentralised environment (Czech Republic, Hungary, Spain).

Major trends

The concurrent and consecutive models are the most frequent models in initial training for history teachers for secondary school, but implementation patterns may vary considerably from one country to another. The majority of countries in transition (Albania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Russian Federation) tend to mainly use the concurrent model, while the other countries apply the consecutive model or a combination of models (Estonia, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Portugal, UK).

The duration of ITT for history teachers depends on a number of factors, which are also influenced by national traditions and local conditions. The usual duration of the consecutive model is one to two years.

ITT for history teachers is organised and structured in different ways. Diverse patterns are applied even within individual countries and within educational structures themselves.

Various countries reported a lack of academic standards concerning ITT for history teachers, while others have national ITT standards. In most cases, standards do exist, but not necessarily on a national level.

ITT curricula for history teachers are also highly diversified. The overall extent of professional training varies from 15% (Bulgaria, Spain) to 30-40% (France). There is often an uneven relation between academic and professional training for history teachers.

Teacher training curricula for history teachers in most countries focus on training based on subject combinations. Thus, history teachers obtain more than one qualification (history/geography, history/literature; history/foreign languages) or a qualification in integrated fields (social studies, social sciences, or humanities).

Inter-institutional links with regard to teacher training have strengthened in some countries, while in others they are still rather loose or depend on financial and other factors. The last point applies especially to the relations and the co-operation between ITT institutions and schools in the countries in transition, whose economies still struggle with financial shortages and obstacles.

Major issues to be addressed

The following is a list of the major issues to be addressed:

- *the degree of centralisation/decentralisation in admission policies.* This depends on the countries' traditions and on the changes they have already introduced. A trend towards decentralisation may be observed in most countries; a shift from a relatively centralised approach to a comparatively decentralised approach in admission policies is to be noted especially in the countries in transition. Newly-introduced, or newly-amended, laws on higher education ensure the autonomy of universities and other institutions of higher education.

A crucial issue in this context is whether the purposes, aims, and contents of selection procedures are really relevant to the requirements of ITT and the needs of the profession, and how selection policies and procedures that meet these demands may be achieved. A significant number of countries pursue a policy of general, academically-oriented selection which is not, or hardly, linked to the specific functions and the professional profile of teaching. Further discussions on existing selection systems are needed to improve selection procedures and contents.

- *standards of ITT for history teachers,* taking into account national traditions and European dimensions and their close interrelation.
- *the degree of interrelation between ITT curricula and curricula of history as a school subject.* Our comparative study found a number of weaknesses caused by the predominantly academic orientation of ITT for history teachers. National studies as well as expert opinions emphasise the need to re-evaluate ITT for history teachers from this point of view.
- *further professionalisation of ITT for history teachers.* The experience of various countries and a number of positive examples in ITT (especially Vienna University's model of ITT for history teachers based on a "professional profile") suggest that no satisfactory professionalisation of ITT can be achieved without strengthening the professional and practical components of teacher training. Although the majority of countries are still not entirely happy with the professional and practical training of history teachers, they recognise that significant steps have been taken in this respect. New professional and specialised courses have been introduced, a variety of forms of practical training is being employed, and new co-operation agreements between ITT institutions and schools have been established. What is still lacking is a consistent concept of professionalisation as well as effective measures to implement it.

- *institutional networking in ITT for history teachers*. Inter-institutional relations among the partners involved (especially universities, schools, and local education administrations) are gradually expanding, but they still need to be improved before a true “partnership model” may be realised. The stability of inter-institutional relations is among the major concerns of the professionals involved in this comparative study.
- *the interrelation between initial and in-service training for history teachers based on the concept of life-long learning*.

This issue should be further elaborated in the context of the challenges facing history teachers in the 21st century.

Conclusion

It is important to note that none of the national practices described here offers exclusive advantages or disadvantages, and that there are no universally effective decisions that may be applied to all national situations. However, European integration and intensive steps toward enlarging the European Union may require a considerable re-thinking and re-conceptualisation of teacher training by creating wider frames of reference and reflection for those involved in ITT. Selecting appropriate candidates, harmonising basic requirements, improving the efficiency of training institutions, raising training quality, adopting the best-suited training models, and encouraging mobility among teachers – these will be major items on our future agenda.

Institutional links between schools
and ITT institutions

Christa Donnermair

The importance of practical training¹

Over the last few years, new official guidelines concerning initial teacher training (ITT) were adopted in many of the countries under review. One common element of these guidelines is the growing importance that is attached to practical, mostly school-based training. However, classroom experience needs to be integrated into the training process as a whole. Without adequate preparation and proper subsequent reflection it might turn into a rather fruitless and even discouraging experience for teacher trainees. The necessary interplay between theory and practice requires co-operation between different institutions and specialists. The countries surveyed differ both in the roles and tasks assigned to staff members and in the forms of co-operation that have evolved. In some countries, personal relations and the initiative of university and school teachers are more important than institutional links. In other countries, the institutional links between schools and ITT institutes or universities reflect the idea of a partnership based on clearly defined mutual obligations.

The “partnership agreements” developed in England and Wales

Today’s strong institutional links between schools and teacher training institutions in England and Wales are the result of reforms introduced in the 1990s. Requirements for ITT are laid down by the national government. A national body, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), oversees and ensures the implementation of these requirements. Training is the shared responsibility of higher education institutions (HEI) and schools. Higher education institutions are required by statute to co-operate with schools. The principles of co-operation between different HEI and schools are laid down in “partnership agreements”. Different partnerships organise and approach their courses differently, and the national requirements may be met in a variety of ways.

One example is the partnership agreement between the Manchester Metropolitan University Institute of Education (Didsbury) and schools and colleges, which covers the secondary programme of school-based initial teacher training. The training year is divided into various consecutive phases: induction, formative, consolidation, development, assessment and enrichment phases. Each phase indicates student/trainee progress and development throughout the training year. During each phase, trainees spend time both at university and at school; thus, there is a strong link between university-based and school-based programmes. Together, universities and schools have to provide opportunities for trainees to obtain the professional qualifications for the award of “qualified teacher status”. Furthermore, trainees within this partnership are required to meet other criteria in order to pass the course and obtain a post-graduate certificate in education. The notion of gradual and progressive professional development is integral to the course.

To ensure equality of trainee entitlement and experience throughout each phase of the course the responsibilities of both school-based mentors and university-based advisory teachers are clearly specified. The respective roles and responsibilities are described in detail in course handbooks. Schools are required to sign a “memorandum of agreement” with the university accepting the agreed roles and responsibilities, and the partnership model is subject to

1. The working group on links and schools and ITT institutions was composed of Marie Homerova, (Czech Republic) Svein Lorentzen (Norway), Mark McLaughlin (UK), Ineke Veldhuis-Meester (Netherlands) and Fatmiroshe Xhemali (Albania). Additional information on this topic was obtained from France, Estonia and Norway.

