Connecting past, present and future

The enhancement of the relevance of history for students

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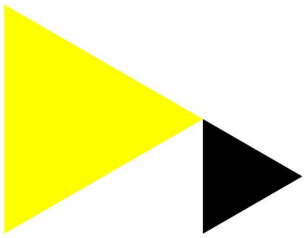

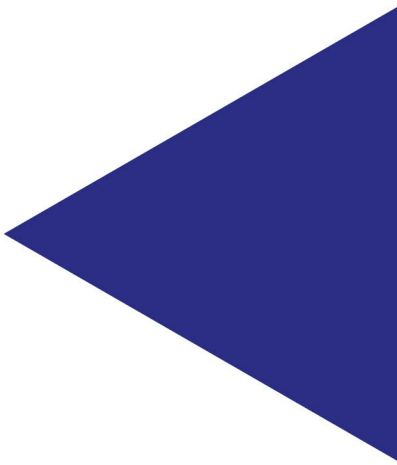

CONNECTING PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

THE ENHANCEMENT OF THE RELEVANCE OF HISTORY FOR STUDENTS

Dick van Straaten

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Students' views on the usefulness of history

Secondary school students usually have vague ideas about the purposes and benefits of studying the past and a low esteem of the usefulness of school history (e.g. Biddulph & Adey, 2003; Barton & Levstik, 2011; Harris & Reynolds, 2014; VanSledright, 1997). Typical in this regard are comments made by 11- to 14-year-old English students in a survey conducted by Haydn and Harris (2010). When asked about the usefulness of school history, most comments could be typified as 'tautological' assertions about the need to study the past (e.g. 'I think it is in the curriculum because people need to learn about it'). Another common pattern of response referred to ideas of employment in terms of history being important for pursuing a career as a history teacher or archeologist. Quite a few comments indicated that students felt lost with the question ('I can't explain', 'they don't let you know'), found history not useful ('it's just storing information that has already happened and won't help me in my future life') or gave 'trivial pursuit' reasons for studying the past ('it helps you on quiz shows and pub quizzes') (pp. 249-250). A small number of responses reflected the aims and purposes of history education as defined in curriculum standards, such as mastering historical skills or understanding present-day society. There were large variations between schools in this respect, which led Haydn and Harris to conclude that teachers should explicitly address the purposes of school history as it appeared to be a factor which explained why students were or were not able to phrase the usefulness of the subject.

Studies conducted in the Netherlands give no reason to assume that Dutch secondary school students' views on the usefulness of history deviate from those discussed above. Research carried out in the 1980s showed that 12- to 13-year-olds deemed history considerably less useful than mathematics and Dutch language (Otten & Boekaerts, 1990). A large-scale European survey in the 1990s revealed that Dutch students in the age of 14-16 agreed to a much greater extent than their European peers with the statement that history is 'dead and has nothing to do with my current life' (Angvik & Von Borries, 1997, B26). In a more recent survey, both grade 7 and grade 10 students found history significantly less useful than English language and mathematics (Wilschut, 2013).

Thus, in the past decades Dutch students' views on the usefulness of history seem to have remained unaltered. It should be noted, however, that the number of studies is limited and the available data mainly concern views of junior secondary school students. Presumably, senior students are better able to explain what history is good for, given the fact that reflective skills and epistemic believes about history tend to mature as students age and schooling progresses (King & Kitchener, 2002; Maggioni, VanSledright, & Alexander, 2009). Revealing in this respect is a letter to the editors of a Dutch newspaper written by a grade 12 pre-university (VWO) student (NRC-Handelsblad, 2016). Dutch history education, according to this student, is only concerned with 'trivial' historical events instead of dealing with historical backgrounds of urgent contemporary issues. He wrote:

> We stop at the fall of the Berlin Wall, due to the examination program. We do not look back to the past with the most recent current affairs as points of departure . . . We need to do something. We need to make more use of historical arguments in current discussions, so that we can better understand the world of today by analyzing the world of yesterday. Let history be more than a trivia festival that you only use in the TV quiz One Against Hundred.

This student is well aware of the social relevance of history and the role school history should play, but the curriculum seems to be defective in fulfilling this role. This underlines once again that it may be important to explicitly teach the purposes and benefits of school history, as Haydn and Harris (2010) already concluded from their research.

1.2 Purposes of school history in the Netherlands

Since history became a compulsory part of the school curriculum, questioning its purposes and benefits has always been an object of debate. In the Netherlands, as in other Western countries, history education in the 19th century and much of the 20th century aimed at fostering patriotism and educating loyal and responsible citizens who were able to make a useful contribution to state affairs (Wilschut, 2010). From the 1960s onwards, the focus in educational goals shifted from the nation-building perspective to the teaching and learning of methods of historical research and historical interpretation, which was a

response to the emergence of social sciences with their focus on explaining human society, putting history on the defensive and forcing historians and educators to reconsider the goals and principles of the subject. The nation-building perspective never completely disappeared, however, and even made a comeback from the 1990s onwards as a result of an alleged loss of national identity due to globalization, immigration, European unification and revolutionary developments in the field of communication (Grever, 2007; Wilschut, 2010). A strongly politically motivated debate arose about the place and function of history in society, with advocates of more national history insisting on establishing a canon with 'important' persons and events from Dutch history and opponents of more national history stating that the use of history for national identity building is completely contradictory to the essence of historical scholarship. A canon consisting of 50 historical items eventually became compulsory in primary and junior-secondary education in 2010. In the meantime, a more profound transformation in history education had taken place in 2006 through the introduction of a chronological framework of ten eras with clear-cut, easy to remember names (e.g. the 'era of hunters and farmers', the 'era of the world wars'). This framework was designed to help students to orient in time, i.e., to enable them to contextualize (new) historical subject matter and to grasp long-term political, socio-economic and cultural developments (CHMV, 2001). Intended as a time orienting tool, the framework program only defines general characteristics of the ten eras without further elaborations in terms of specific historical content all students should know (Wilschut, 2015). This evoked the criticism that students and teachers could not rely on a fixed knowledge base in preparing for the national examinations. In 2012, therefore, specifically described topics (so-called historical contexts), covering several eras and their characteristics, were added to the curriculum, containing a relatively large quantity of historical content to be memorized in a traditional manner.

All these developments in Dutch history education have resulted in a hybrid package of partly contradictory attainment targets. On the one hand, there are goals which aim to promote historical thinking and historical consciousness originating from the axioms of scholarly history. On the other hand, students have to learn a certain amount of historical subject matter, knowledge that serves either national identity building (canon) or an understanding of the past as an end in itself (the so-called historical contexts).

1.3 Past, present and future: the concept of historical consciousness

The chronological framework of ten eras and their characteristics intends to enhance historical thinking and historical consciousness (Wilschut, 2015). The concept of historical consciousness was elaborated in Germany in the 1960s and 1970s from the point of departure that there exists an interdependence between past, present and future in human thinking (Jeismann, 1988). Related to the human aptitude to think back and forth in time, historical consciousness can be characterized as the complex relationship between interpretation of the past on the one hand and the perception of reality in the present and expectations for the future on the other. Without a future perspective, studying the past is rather pointless, and without relying on past experiences, conceiving a future becomes very difficult. Historical consciousness is the cognizance that human culture exists in time: it originates, develops and faces a future. It implies the awareness that the course of human existence is not predetermined or eternally immutable. It means getting a sense of the variable and contingent nature of developments in human culture and seeing the present as an intermediate between the past and the future, realizing that human existence is an ongoing process. This sense of temporality, alterability and contingency constitutes an important distinction between history and the social sciences (Jonker, 2001). It may stimulate taking a reflective, distanced position towards things as they are, providing occasion for thinking about alternatives, which are important assets in a democratic society (Wilschut, 2012).

The work of the German philosopher of history Jörn Rüsen has been influential in the theorizing about the concept of historical consciousness. Rüsen (2017) considers historical consciousness as ‘the basic category of history didactics’ (8.1), by which he means that learning the mental operations involved in (developing) historical consciousness is essential to the teaching of history. According to Rüsen, these mental operations are not confined to the academic skills needed for the acquisition of historical knowledge. Essential is the question of historical meaning: to what end should one acquire knowledge of the past? He emphasizes the ‘orientational function’ of historical knowledge, which holds the ability to interpret experiences from the past in narratives that illuminate realities in the present and contours of the future. Historical competence, therefore, is ‘narrative competence’ (2017, 8.1). Rüsen (2017): ‘History is an event-

based, temporal coherence between the past and the present (with an eye on the future) that creates meaning and the orientation needed in daily life through narrative.' (2.2).

1.4 Making connections between past, present and future as an educational challenge

In order to conceive what it means to pursue the development of temporal orientation in secondary education, it is enlightening to distinguish between uneducated and educated historical consciousness. Human beings are by nature temporally oriented because they are endowed with a memory storing experiences on which they ground their decisions and plans for the future (Becker, 1931; Kahneman, 2011; Karlsson, 2011). This 'unschooled' historical awareness is usually confined to personal memories that do not go far back in time and pertain to personal social environments. Educated historical consciousness, on the other hand, entails a deliberate historical study of the development of the human kind worldwide over very long spans of time. This study can be very demanding and requires much more effort and sophistication than the spontaneous, 'existential' historical awareness which comes naturally (Lee, 2005; Lowenthal, 2000; Oakeshott, 1983). Rüsen (2004) speaks of 'genetic' historical consciousness as the most sophisticated way of dealing with the past. Genetic historical consciousness implies the ability to 'historicize' the present, i.e. to imagine, for example, that contemporary political, ethical or moral principles are subject to change because they exist in time. This allows an understanding of fundamentally different forms of human life in the past on their own terms. Teaching genetic historical consciousness is likely to be a complex endeavor.

With regard to the teaching and learning of history, all of this implies that students should be made familiar with ways in which knowledge of the 'historical' past (as opposed to their 'personal' past) can be employed to orientate on the present and the future. This is exactly what standards for history teaching in many western countries pursue as a means to prepare students for their future role as citizens in society (DFE, 2013; NCHS, 1996; Seixas & Morton, 2013; VGD, 2006; Wilschut, 2015). However, standards usually lack further elaborations of the kinds of connections between past, present and future that may be helpful in achieving this goal. Content descriptions in curriculum documents focus on understanding the past and learning historical thinking

skills as aims in themselves. The compilers of these documents apparently assume that learning about the past yields insights into the present and future as a matter of course, taking knowledge transfer beyond subject-specific contexts for granted without any explicit learning activities directed at achieving this aim. Research indicates, however, that in a school history context, students are not inclined to use knowledge of the past to orientate on the present and future of their own accord (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008; Mosborg, 2002; Rosenzweig, 2000; Shreiner, 2014). Therefore, the teaching of historical consciousness can be seen as an educational challenge.

1.5 Aims of this thesis

From a pedagogical point of view, two issues in the teaching of historical consciousness need to be addressed. On the one hand, there is the issue *what* to teach: what kinds of objectives can be pursued while connecting the past, the present and the future in history class? On the other hand, there is the issue of *how* to teach it: which methods can be employed for making connections between the past, the present and the future? This thesis examines both questions. It wants to provide a theoretically and empirically grounded framework which can be used for designing curricula aiming at the making of connections between the past, the present and future which are meaningful for students.

In addressing the aims and methods that align with teaching about the interdependence between the past, the present and the future, this thesis will introduce and use the concept of 'relevant history teaching'. Relevant history teaching allows students to recognize and experience what history has to do with themselves, with today's society and their general understanding of human existence. Research in the field of cognitivist learning theory, student motivation and history education (e.g. Barton, 2008; Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Novak, 2002; Pintrich, 2003), provides reasons to believe that relevant history teaching stimulates meaning making as students actively use knowledge of the past and relate it to their own lives. The second aim of this thesis is, therefore, to examine whether implementation of the aims and methods of relevant history teaching indeed affects students' views on the usefulness of history. This is an important issue, because value awareness of school subjects is an impetus for student engagement and motivation (Brophy, 1999; Eccles, 2004; Martin, 2003; Pintrich, 2003).

1.6 Research question and outline of the thesis

The central question of this thesis is:

What are the aims and methods of relevant history teaching, explicitly focusing on connections between the past, the present and the future, and how does this type of teaching affect students' appraisals of the relevance of history?

Examination of this question has yielded one theoretical and four empirical studies, the results of which are presented in chapters 2 to 6 (see also Fig. 1.1). Each of the studies addresses its own aims and questions, which are paraphrased in the following synoptic descriptions of the individual chapters of the thesis.

Chapter 2 presents a theoretical framework of relevant history teaching, encompassing aims and methods practitioners and researchers can use to design curricula that are meaningful to students. The aims were derived from three types of theoretical sources: educational philosophy on meaningful education; constructivist educational theory on meaningful learning; and historical philosophy on historical consciousness in relation to the temporal dimension of human existence. The methods were derived from various curriculum proposals and pedagogical approaches that have been described in history education literature. The framework of relevant history teaching described in this chapter is the theoretical foundation of the thesis and the point of departure for its empirical studies.

Chapter 3 reports the development and psychometric qualities of the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS), a questionnaire for measuring students' appraisals of the relevance of history. The RHMS was specifically designed for the purpose of this research in the absence of a suitable measure for gauging effects of lesson interventions in the context of relevant history teaching. Factor and reliability analyses were conducted to determine the extent to which the items of the RHMS corresponded to the relevance aims defined in chapter 2, using data collected from a sample of 1459 Dutch secondary school students aged 12 to 18. Data from this sample was also used to learn more about students' views on the relevance of history over the years and to see whether junior students hold opinions different than those held by their senior peers. The development

of the RHMS created an instrument enabling the assessment of effects of the intervention studies in this thesis. Therefore chapter 3 is one of the conditional chapters leading up to the main study described in chapter 5.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of three explorative case studies on the implementation of the methods of relevant history teaching within the boundaries of existing curricula. The purpose of these case studies was to see whether embedding these methods in regular programs is feasible without major curriculum revisions. Three indicators were used to examine this feasibility issue: the extent to which students used historical subject matter in their orientation on current affairs; teachers' experiences with the integration of the methods in their daily teaching practice; the effects of the methods on students' appraisals of the relevance of history. The case studies were conducted in two Dutch secondary schools with grade 8 to 10 students (N = 135) and their teachers (N = 4) as participants. Data were collected by means of questionnaires (including the RHMS) conducted in a pre-/post-test design, interviews and writing tasks. The explorations described in this chapter paved the way for a more profound research presented in chapter 5. Therefore, chapter 4 can also be seen as conditional to the main study described in chapter 5. The case studies made it more clear that drawing analogies between past and present would offer the best opportunities for relevant history teaching. Thus the results of the explorations described in chapter 4 guided the decisions taken in shaping the experiment described in chapter 5.

Chapter 5 draws together what has been prepared in the previous three chapters. Based on the theoretical foundation of chapter 2, employing the measurement instrument developed in chapter 3 and utilizing the lessons learnt of chapter 4, a large-scale intervention study was designed which could assess the effects of relevant history teaching. Chapter 5 reports on the effects of an intervention focusing on the teaching of analogous cases of an enduring human issue (a combination of two methods of relevant history teaching: 'historical analogies' and 'enduring human issues'). There were two experimental conditions: one in which students were actively encouraged to compare cases and to draw analogies with the present (case-comparison condition) and one in which students studied cases without making comparisons or drawing analogies with the present (separate-case condition). These conditions were created in order to elucidate whether studying similar parallel cases in the past would by itself influence students'

appraisals of the relevance of history, or whether explicit comparing activities, supported by a conceptual framework and emphatically referring to the present, would be essential to the success of this kind of history teaching. The effects in both conditions on students' appraisals of the relevance of history were measured in a quasi-experimental pre-/post-test design using the RHMS and set against the results of a non-treatment group of students who followed the usual history curriculum. Participants were grade 10 to 12 students (N = 1022) from 24 secondary schools.

Chapter 6 reports the experiences and views of students (N = 444) and teachers (N = 15) who participated in the case-comparison condition of the intervention mentioned in chapter 5. As comparing past and present cases of an enduring human issue is an innovative approach in Dutch history education, the aim was to find out whether students and teachers thought this approach is practically feasible and desirable. Besides, the qualitative data collected among students could provide more insight into the effects of the intervention next to the quantitative evaluations presented in chapter 5. Measures to collect data were interviews and closed-format questionnaires.

Chapter 7 summarizes and discusses the main outcomes of the five studies. In addition, directions for further research and practical implications of the thesis are presented.

Chapters 2 to 6 have been written as articles for peer-reviewed educational research journals, which means that they stand alone and can be read independently. Inevitably, the chapters contain some duplications, especially with regard to their introductions and theoretical frameworks, which are all about the central theme of this thesis: the aims and methods of relevant history education. The studies in chapters 2, 3 and 4 have been published in peer-reviewed journals, while the studies in chapters 5 and 6 have been submitted for publication and are under review.

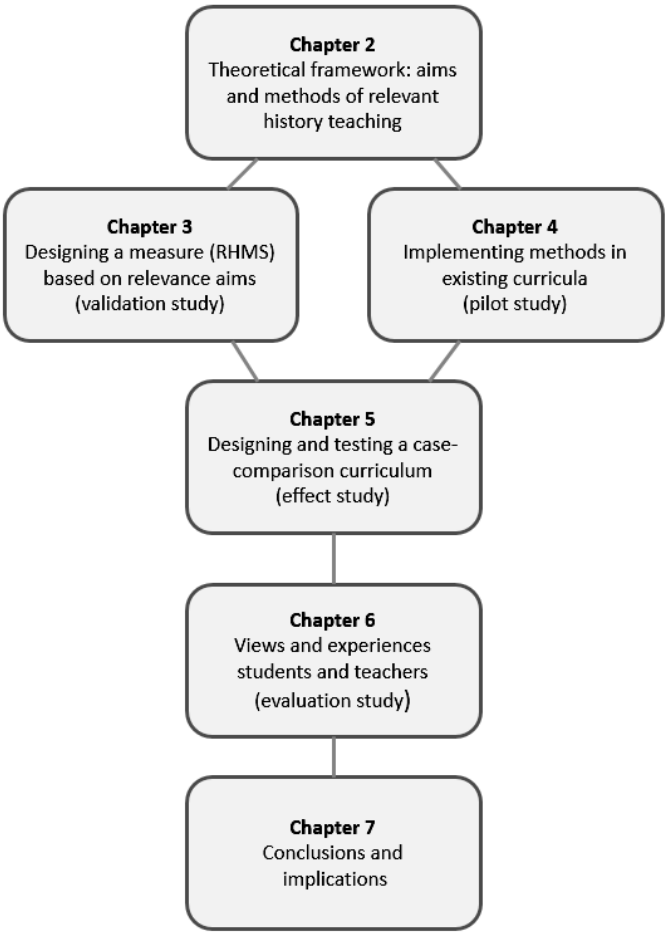

Figure 1.1 Design and content of the thesis.

Chapter 2

MAKING HISTORY RELEVANT TO STUDENTS BY CONNECTING PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE: A FRAMEWORK FOR RESEARCH[1]

History teaching usually focuses on understanding the past as an aim in itself. Research shows that many students don't see the point of this and perceive history as not very useful. Yet history plays a major role in the orientation on the present and the future. If students fail to see this, the question arises whether this is due to a lack of explicit attention in history classes on the application of knowledge about the past to the present and the future. This article explores two questions: 1) If history is to be more relevant to students, what kind of objectives should play a central role in history teaching? 2) What kinds of pedagogical approaches align with these objectives in history teaching? The first question is answered by means of historical and educational theory. The second is answered by exploring a number of pedagogical approaches that have been described in the literature, as well as a small scale experiment conducted by the authors. This article aims at providing a basis for developing meaningful history curricula as well as for research into educational strategies which can be deployed to teach students how to make connections between past, present and future.

2.1 Introduction

When in the spring of 2014 Russian troops took possession of the Crimea, it became apparent how important history's role in society can be. Protesters in Kiev held up signs portraying president Putin as Hitler and comparing the 'legitimate interests' in the Crimea claimed by Russia with those claimed by Nazi Germany in the Sudetenland in 1938. Political commentators referred to Prague in 1968 and Srebrenica in 1995 and other instances in which Western leaders had been fooled by dictators who supposedly only understood the language of force. Historians lectured that Ukraine may be seen as the cradle of the Russian Empire and explained that the Ukrainian people had always been the plaything of forces from East and West. History was thus called in to assess and explain the military invasion of the Russians in the Crimea and to predict that 'dictator' Putin would not give in unless the West would condemn his actions and stop him.

[1] This chapter has been published as: Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R. (2016). Making history relevant to students by connecting past, present and future: a framework for research. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *48*(4), 479-503.

Assessing, explaining, and predicting: three ways in which history can be socially relevant. Several descriptions of standards for history teaching seem to pay attention to these activities. The National History Standards in the United States (NCHS, 1996) for example describes the significance of history for the informed citizen and contains a section on 'historical issues' which requires students to analyse issues in the past with the purpose of understanding the present and take decisions for the future. The National Curriculum for England (DFE, 2013) refers to students' understanding their own identity and the challenges of their time, while the German standards developed by the National Association of History Teachers (VGD, 2011) explicitly states that students should 'orient on the present and future by reflection on history' (p. 4, our translation). We find similar considerations in documents from the Netherlands, Belgium and Canada (Seixas & Morton, 2013; SLO, n.d.; VMOV, n.d.). In the detailed description of educational targets in all these documents, however, attention seems to be almost exclusively directed to knowledge and understanding of the past and to historical thinking as aims in themselves. The compilers of these documents seem to assume that studying the past will straightforwardly produce insights in the present and the future or skills to apply historical knowledge.

Whether that is true, is questionable. Research shows that many students consider history largely irrelevant, or if they think history is important, they struggle to explain why. An international comparative study in 1994 revealed that 14-year-old students in countries like Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands believed, to a greater extent than their European peers, that history 'is dead and gone and has nothing to do with my present life' (Angvik & Von Borries, 1997, p. B26). A recent study points out that Dutch high school students find history significantly less useful than English language, economics and mathematics (Wilschut, 2013), while several studies indicate that students in England and North America can hardly explain what history is good for (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Cutrara, 2012; Harris & Reynolds, 2014; Haydn & Harris, 2010; Morgan, 2010). When Lee (2004) asked students in Britain whether history would help in choosing a political party or deciding how to deal with race relations, less than a third thought that it would. In a survey by Haydn and Harris (2010), a very small number of students (3%) connected the usefulness of history to explanation of the present.

Apparently, there is a discrepancy between educational aims and students' perceptions about the usefulness of history. Haydn and Harris (2010) also showed that in schools where teachers paid attention to the purpose of history, students were better able to describe its relevance than students in schools where teachers left the purpose of history implicit. That would argue for education that systematically teaches the relevance of the past for the present. However, history curricula are usually designed to study past events by themselves and do not often explicitly aim at considering their contemporary relevance. In addition, teachers who wish to make history relevant to students cannot rely on much available pedagogical know-how. Since the introduction of history as a school subject in the nineteenth century, much has been said about the functions of history, but empirical research into methods to create meaningful relationships between past, present and future is scarce (Morgan, 2010). This may be due to the lack of consensus among educational researchers about the purposes of history education, in particular ways in which history can be socially relevant (Harris, Burn, & Wooley, 2014). During the last hundred years, many claims have been made about the benefits of history to create (either patriotic or critical-democratic) citizens, morally responsible human beings or individuals who are aware of their own ancestry and identity (Wilschut, 2010). In spite of this, the history curriculum still largely consists of chronologically ordered factual descriptions of past realities which are hardly meaningful to students. Quite a few historians, and history teachers in their wake, state that history cannot and should not be made useful or applicable and can never be used to say something about the future.

In this article we explore two questions: (1) If history is to be more relevant to students, what kind of objectives should play a central role in history teaching? (2) What kinds of pedagogical approaches align with these objectives in history teaching? Answering the first question does not have the intention of repeating the objectives already present in documents about standards for history teaching we discussed above, but to analyse the nature of the objectives for a type of history teaching which explicitly aims at making history relevant to students. For this purpose, historical and educational theory and philosophy will be used. The second question deals with an exploration of pedagogical approaches designed by experts to achieve these objectives.

The purpose of this endeavour is to create a base for more concrete attainment targets in this field, connected to concrete pedagogical approaches which may serve to make

history teaching more relevant. Once these targets and approaches are specified, empirical research can be conducted in order to measure the feasibility and effects of relevant history teaching and to weigh consequences for curriculum development. Before starting with the main questions, some clarity has to be created about what is meant by 'relevance' in history teaching.

2.2 Relevance in history teaching

2.2.1 Significance and relevance

In the literature on historical thinking one of the key concepts is 'significance'. For example, it is one of the 'big six' Canadian historical thinking concepts (Seixas & Morton, 2013) and it appears in the general aims for history in the English National Curriculum (DFE, 2013), into which it was introduced in 1995 (Wrenn, 2011). The meaning of 'significance' has been described in different ways. For example, Phillips (2002), following Partington, measures the significance of historical events by the extent to which they affected lives of people in the past or the extent to which they can explain situations in the present. Counsell (2004) mentions five criteria: remarkable, remembered, resulting in change, resonant and revealing; something may be seen as remarkable by contemporaries or later generations, has at any time been part of collective memory, has had an impact on the long term, has been used as an analogy to something similar, or throws an explanatory light on some other aspect of the past.

These descriptions imply that significance may refer to two aspects: importance for developments and people in the past, or importance for the present. The importance of some historical phenomenon for people in the past or for historical developments refers to understanding the past as an aim in itself. Importance for the present, however, refers to the relevance of historical knowledge for today's world. If this distinction is not clearly made, students may confuse different aspects of significance (Seixas, 1994). For example, when Canadian students were asked to name the three most important events of the last five hundred years, fifty percent referred to historical events that in their view determined the course of world history, such as the Second World War or the demise of communism. Others interpreted the task more personally, like the student who wondered why he had brown hair and where his ancestors came from. Another mentioned the ice

hockey final between Canada and the Soviet Union in 1972, which was won by Canada. 'I put that down because I love hockey. That's the most important thing that ever happened in hockey' (p. 296). The different interpretations of significance presented by students induced Seixas (1994) to conclude that further research would benefit from a clear conceptual delineation of the concept.

In his most recent publication, Seixas specifies four 'guideposts' for teaching significance (Seixas & Morton, 2013). Out of these four, there are three which clearly refer to the meaning of history for the present: 'revealing about issues in contemporary life', 'constructed through narrative', and 'varying over time and from group to group'. The aspect of importance for the historical development as such is also still present in a fourth guidepost: resulting in change for many people over a long period of time. An example of this could be the Black Death in Europe, which resulted in big changes for many people over a long period of time. This story however, though contemporary as a matter of course, is not necessarily meaningful to students today, unless it is studied from the perspective of what it reveals about human issues like sickness and health, religion and superstition or prejudices and discrimination. This perspective, however, would not meet the criterion of 'resulting in change', but the criterion 'revealing'.

For this reason, the concept of significance will not be used in this article. We prefer to use relevance, which exclusively refers to history's relations to the present and to the lives of students. We define relevance in the field of history education as 'allowing students to recognize and experience what history has to do with themselves, with today's society and their general understanding of human existence' (Wilschut, Van Straaten, & Van Riessen, 2013, p. 36).

2.2.2 Historical theory: past, present and future

When asked whether history would be helpful in choosing a political party, one of the students interviewed by Lee (2004) gave a peculiar answer:

> I would need to know how they had governed in the past and what rules they laid down when they were in power, and if they actually made use of them . . . (Interviewer: Would history help?) No. Because with time, parties have different MPs and over a 15 year period the whole party could have changed (p. 26).

What we see happening here, is that a student almost naturally uses the past to substantiate his answer, but when asked explicitly about history, he denies that it could be important. Human beings by nature have memories and expectations; without a historical consciousness of some kind, there would be no humanity (Karlsson, 2011). This does not necessarily imply that history as a discipline is also seen as meaningful. Oakeshott (1983) distinguishes a 'practical present-past' and Carr (1986) writes about a 'pre-thematic historical awareness' to describe the average daily relationship which people naturally have with the past, which is to be discerned from serious and deliberate historical study. According to Oakeshott (1983) deliberate historical study implies the 'most sophisticated' attitude one can adopt, 'difficult to achieve', and 'difficult to sustain', and also highly susceptible to relapse 'into some other kind of engagement' (p. 28). If this is true, that would imply that students need to be supported to optimise their attempts to make connections between past, present and future.

The relationship between past, present and future has been further elaborated by Rüsen (2004, 2005), whose theory of history may be utilised to understand what kind of support students would need. Rüsen (2005) describes how in the context of historical consciousness the practice of daily life (*Lebenspraxis*) interconnects with the discipline of history, which is to be understood as the creation of meaningful narratives about the past. Orienting on these narratives may occur – according to Rüsen (2004, 2005) – in four types or modes: traditional, exemplary, critical or genetic. Summarised broadly, the traditional mode is one that accepts the authority of narratives about the past without further questions and takes them as guidelines to be followed in the form they have been handed down; the exemplary mode derives general principles from narratives about the past without trying to follow them up in a too literal sense; the critical mode distances itself from what has been passed down and tries to assert that times have changed and therefore narratives about the past have little to say about the present and the future; the genetic mode takes historical development into account in such a way that justice is done to the intricate interplay between narratives about the past (including their moral dimensions) and the realities of the present. It implies the insight that things have grown over time, developed and changed, yet the notions about their former existence, which is partly comparable to and partly different from what is now, have a role to play in the way one understands human reality. These notions take the form of narratives by means

of which humans try to make sense of their past and thus create a perspective on their present and their future. As such these narratives represent multiple and diverse interpretations, substantiated by means of historical evidence.

The utterances of the student cited at the beginning of this paragraph may be interpreted as examples of traditional, or perhaps exemplary historical consciousness in the first sentence, and then critical consciousness in the next. We can assume that this student might be well served by guidance towards a more genetic type of historical consciousness. As we will see in one of the next paragraphs, this kind of consciousness fits well to the aim of understanding the 'human condition'.

2.2.3 Educational theory: functions of education and effective teaching

Assuming that the school subject of history should contribute to general social functions of education, we employ the description of such functions by the educational philosopher Biesta (2010), who, like others, distinguishes three of these functions: qualification, socialisation and subjectification. Qualification entails that students need to be prepared to accomplish something later on in their lives, like exercising a profession or participating actively in political life. Socialisation implies that students need to become part of social, cultural and political 'orders'; they must be made familiar with social values and norms and be initiated into existing social structures. Subjectification means that students need to discover their ideals and values and develop as individuals with a unique position in society. If history is to contribute to these functions, knowledge about the past should be explicitly linked to the lives of students and the society of which they are part. We define these purposes of history teaching as *building a personal identity* and *becoming a citizen*.

Apart from educational philosophy we may utilise cognitive theory in order to explore objectives of relevant history teaching. Cognitivism, among other things, deals with the question of meaningful learning as distinguished from rote learning (Novak, 2002). In rote learning, knowledge is memorised and reproduced without making much sense to the student, but in meaningful learning knowledge is actively constructed. Steps in this process are linking new knowledge to existing knowledge and using knowledge in different contexts, which may be school situations, but also extracurricular contexts outside school. Meaningful and motivating learning should be connected to experiences

outside school and real life issues (Narayan, Rodriguez, Araujo, Shaqlaih, & Moss, 2013). Experiences and real life issues may lead to the effective construction of new knowledge if incidents, facts and events in history are interpreted in the context of general conceptual frameworks, thus relating new knowledge to already existing knowledge which also enables generalisations (Jadallah, 2000). Instead of concentrating on knowledge of facts as an aim in itself, a constructivist approach to the history curriculum could therefore lead to a resuscitation of Lord Acton's maxim as endorsed by Collingwood (1973): 'Study problems, not periods' (p. 281).

This constructivist approach is supported by empirical evidence showing that history does seem to become more meaningful and motivating when historical knowledge is related to today's life and directed towards studying generic problems (Anderson, 2011; Haeberli, 2005; Muddiman & Frymier, 2009). Morgan (2010) designed activities in which students had to compare life today with life in earlier times. Through this then-and-now-approach students found the lessons more interesting and performed better because they saw that how history was connected to their own time. One student put it this way:

> Like in math class, if I never see it in the real world, I do not really care and I do not try hard. But if it is something I am going to use in the real world, I try harder (Morgan, 2010, p. 316).

2.3 Three objectives for relevant history education (RQ 1)

From theory of history we derive the notion that relevant history teaching has to take the relations between past, present and future as its point of departure. On the one hand such relations are self-evident for any human being, but on the other hand deliberate study of the past to grasp the real nature of these relations may be a demanding endeavour. Moving from a 'practical present-past' or 'pre-thematic historical awareness' towards a 'genetic historical consciousness' is the perspective that encompasses the objectives for relevant history teaching.

We derived more clarity about such objectives from educational philosophy and insights from cognitive learning theory which suggest that history may become relevant if historical knowledge is applied to contemporary social and personal contexts and directed towards generic concepts and problems instead of specific facts or events.

Beyond these two contexts, a third one can be discerned relating to the philosophical question of what it means to be human. The Latin phrase *conditio humana* (the condition of human existence) refers to what is innate and inherent to all human beings. From theory of history we derive the notion that one of the most evident aspects of the human condition is that humans are aware of the temporality of their existence. As such they differ from all other creatures. Humans have memories and expectations and are aware of the fact that they were once born and will once die. This is the reason why they create stories about their lives by means of which they try to make sense of their existence. Genetic historical consciousness, as defined by Rüsen, is the most advanced mode of dealing with such narratives. Therefore, developing this type of consciousness and the process of understanding the human condition are intrinsically linked with each other.

In sum, relevant history education addresses three objectives: *building a personal identity*, *becoming a citizen* and *understanding the human condition*. In Fig. 2.1 we show the way in which these three were derived from three theoretical sources. Historical philosophy shows how humans construct narratives that can give meaning to human (temporal) existence, educational philosophy shows how these narratives are connected to the development of personal and societal identities, and constructivist learning theory shows how meaningful knowledge is constructed by connecting personal experiences, facts and events to broader conceptual frameworks. For example: a meaningful historical narrative about secularisation in western societies since the eighteenth century can be used in the context of personal questions about one's own (ir)religious identity and of understanding societal developments showing a resurgence of religious beliefs and religious fundamentalism in present western societies and elsewhere, in the process of which conceptual knowledge (such as secularism, religion and fundamentalism) is essential. This shows how the contribution from three theoretical sources produces a synergy adding up to more than the sum of the parts. The three objectives of relevant history education can therefore not be strictly separated from each other. As the above example demonstrates, what students learn about current society also affects their personal development. What they learn about themselves and society in turn contributes to deeper insights into the human condition. Therefore, *understanding the human condition* is the most comprehensive category. In the next sections, the three objectives will be specified in more detail.

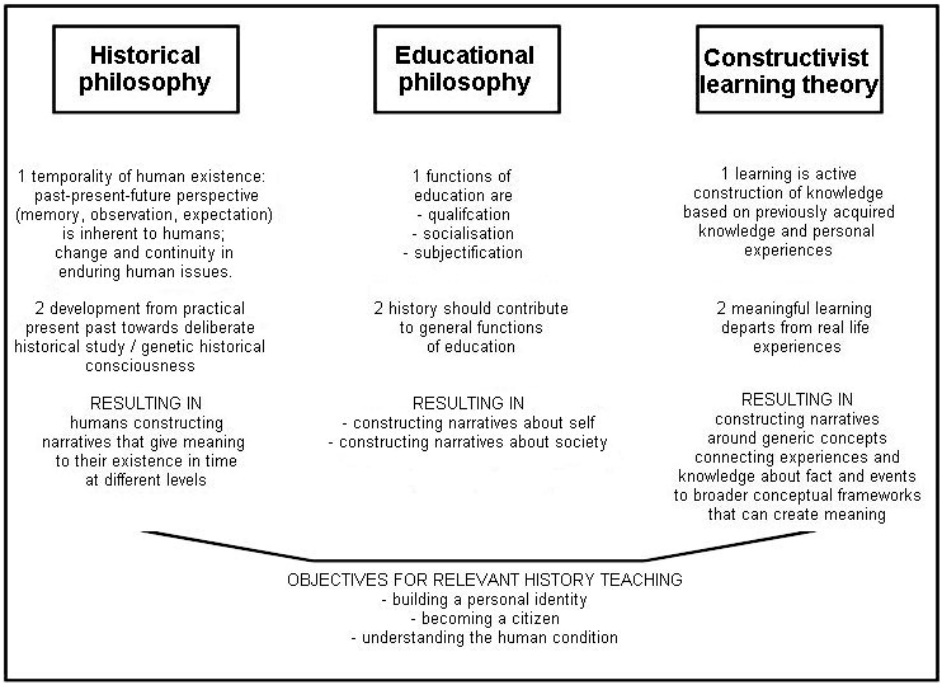

Figure 2.1 Three sources of relevant history education and their yields.

2.3.1 Building a personal identity

In citizenship education, the development of personal identity is often regarded as a prerequisite for active participation in society. Students can only become full citizens and bear social responsibility if they know who they are, where they come from and what they stand for. Education should provide students with opportunities to develop their ideals, values and norms and to act in accordance with them (Arthur & Cremin, 2012; Bron, Veugelers, & Van Vliet, 2009; Onderwijsraad, 2012). From this aim we derive two aspects of building a personal identity:

- Seeing oneself as an individual with a *personal past* which is shaped by the environment in which one has grown up and by the communities of which one is a part.
- Developing one's *own values, opinions and ideals*, which can serve as a base for an independent, 'unique' position vis-à-vis one's environment and communities of which one is a part.

By learning about the history of social communities to which students belong (family, ethnic group, religious community, etc.) they may become more aware of the traditions, customs and beliefs that have shaped their personality. Apart from the group's experiences there are personal experiences, which are usually remembered as an ongoing story shaping a person into an individual. Even experiences not linked directly to each other or distanced from each other in time are interconnected to form a continuous history, or personal historical narrative. In other words, temporal continuity 'identifies' a person. Without a past, without memorised experiences, formation of a personal identity is not possible (Ishige, 2005; Rüsen, 2017).

The second aspect of building a personal identity, however, means that one breaks loose from the environment by which one has been formed. By studying the past, students can develop new insights that may give them a certain autonomy with respect to their environment. For example, Skrade (2004) had students investigate how realistic the American Dream has been from the 'critical pedagogical' perspectives of race, gender and class. She asked students what this subject had meant to them personally. One student connected it to an incident he had experienced on the golf course. When one of his sports friends made a racist joke, he tried to shut him up, while before he had never bothered about such things. Through the lessons about the 'myth' of the American Dream he became aware of the racism of his friends and started daring to counter them. The history lessons had caused him to start distinguishing himself from his environment. The turnaround in his thinking can hardly be seen separately from the moralistic message that critical pedagogical education wants to convey to students, but that is the paradox of building a personal identity in an eminently socialising environment like school.

Historians often object to moralism, because they find the past should not be used to draw moral lessons for the present. Oakeshott (1983) defends this point of view by arguing that the past itself has never preached a message and has never had a meaning. But as a matter of fact, the past itself does not exist. We only have images of the past that do have a certain purpose which did not exist in the past to which the images refer. A position such as Oakeshott's has little to offer for teachers who want to make history relevant to students. History pre-eminently lends itself for building identities, of which moral sense is an important aspect. Lévesque (2008) points out that the moral dimension of education has become increasingly important. Seixas (2005) wonders whether the

study of history without a moral dimension makes sense at all: 'Historical knowledge that does not lead to moral orientation and moral judgments is useless history: why would we undertake the history project at all, if not to orient ourselves morally?' (p. 144).

All of this does not imply that heritage teaching should take the place of history teaching. As Lowenthal (1998) describes, heritage is the story about the past 'owned' by certain groups of people, not aiming at a plausible account, but at 'credulous allegiance' and a 'declaration of faith' in the past, whereas history is 'universally accessible' and aims at 'testable truths' (pp. 120-121). The moral dimension of history teaching should not imply that the content of history lessons is degraded to heritage in this way.

2.3.2 Becoming a citizen

Relevant history education contributes to the performance of students as citizens in society. Citizenship has many dimensions, but we focus here on the political and social aspects of citizenship to demonstrate what knowledge of history can yield. History may *qualify* and *socialise* students as citizens: qualify through the transfer of knowledge and ways of thinking that promote political literacy and a democratic disposition; socialise by creating insight into the origin and meaning of social institutions, traditions, values and norms.

For example, in history lessons students learn how after much political struggle modern democracy has developed and how political freedoms have become anchored in constitutions. In the context of ancient Athens they learn how citizens proudly distinguished themselves from powerless subjects in other states. History shows that democratic citizenship in its current form and worldwide diffusion is a relatively new phenomenon and that despite the democratisation process there have been regular backlashes in which citizens were relegated to subjects without rights. The realisation that democracy does not necessarily exist forever and has to be reinvented over and over again can cause students to develop a responsibility for the state of democracy. As the pedagogue De Winter (2011) puts it: 'One who does not know the historical perspective, does not know what democracy is the alternative for and will probably view the current situation as self-evident' (p. 25, our translation). Last but not least, historical narratives contain concepts like power, government and policy without which the past cannot be well understood. History classes confront students with these concepts in ever-changing

contexts which will enable them to increase their level in the 'language of citizenship' (Wilschut, 2013).

Democratic dispositions may also be promoted by ways of thinking that are specific to history. The gap between past and present can only be bridged if one is willing to take seriously the points of view of those who think in strikingly different ways and if one is aware of one's own position which is as much time-bound and defined by certain values as those of others. Images of the past must be supported by evidence in ways similar to the way in which opinions in a political debate must be substantiated. Dealing critically with information like historians is a skill that contributes to the soundness of debates. Historical thinking also teaches students that positions are not fixed forever but can change as new circumstances arise. Taking into account contingency in historical developments, the role of chance and the vicissitudes of fate, may teach students to deal critically with predetermined visions of the future (Van Straaten, Claassen, Groot, Raven, & Wilschut, 2012; Wilschut, 2012).

History can have an eminently socialising effect. It explains the origin and development of human culture over thousands of years. Historiography reproduces 'culture' which is thus passed on to new generations. Students learn where traditions come from and why it may make sense to maintain traditions or rather to get rid of them. They learn to realize that historically they are part of different communities like their nation, their ethnic group or their religious group. Historical research also socialises them into the rules and standards that apply in the world of knowledge and science.

There are also reasons to be cautious when it comes to history and citizenship (Harris, 2011). The aim of socializing students into an existing culture may reinforce a tendency to see history as a closed narrative which ends up in the present as its logical outcome. Employing history to throw light on current issues may result in a presentist attitude which leaves out historical content which is irrelevant for today. Citizenship education often aims at creating 'active' citizens, while history has no such direct activist purpose. If these caveats are taken into account, however, history and citizenship may go well together. Whether history education should pursue this aim, is object of much debate (e.g. Elgström & Hellstenius, 2011), but the premise that education must have social relevance allows no other conclusion but that it should.

2.3.3 Understanding the human condition

The third and most fundamental aim of relevant history education is understanding the human condition by taking into account the temporality of human existence. Endowed with a memory, human beings by nature orient in time by translating past experiences into an understanding of the present and expectations regarding the future (Friedman, 2005; Kahneman, 2014; Rüsen, 2004). Narratives about the past are the form in which this process of translation takes shape. Genetic historical consciousness, as defined by Rüsen, is the most advanced mode of dealing with such narratives.

From an educational point of view, genetic historical consciousness accommodates two dimensions which may enhance students' understanding of the human condition. First, since change and development are at the heart of narratives that both connect and divide the past, present and future, seeing oneself as a temporal being subjected to change provides important existential insights. Second, as contemporary images of past life, narratives provide the opportunity to distinguish certain aspects which are common to all human beings, irrespective of time and circumstances; studying these aspects can be a powerful means to learn about the human condition.

With regard to the first dimension, becoming aware of their own *historicity* may be a first step for students to understand the human condition. This may be accomplished by connecting their personal pasts to the 'temporal whole' (i.e. the much larger field of the past of mankind). Though different from the personal past, it is yet connected with it. By taking cognizance of the past of mankind individuals widen their perspectives on their own past, present and future, thus acquiring a deeper insight into their own existence. Dealing with history is therefore not a matter of wanting to know, but of needing to know (Gies, 2004).

By connecting their personal pasts to the much broader history of mankind, students will realise that they are part of a larger story that started somewhere and has constantly been subject to change and different interpretations. Historicity implies in this context that history derives its meaning from patterns of change which separate past and present from each other, but also historicize them both, which is 'place them in time'. Through changes man starts relating to time and realising that also his own existence is constantly in motion and that his perspective on past, present and future shifts over time.

Seixas (2012) advocates education in which students learn to appreciate and understand their own historicity. In his view, 'narrative arcs', bridges between past, present and future, should be the instruments to this end (p. 871). According to Shemilt (2009), awareness of the temporality of life can be helpful in creating more adequate perspectives on the future. Historical events were neither determined nor inevitable, but it is also not true that everything in the past took place totally at random and without any reasons. Likewise, while events in the future are not predetermined, not all possible scenarios are equally plausible. History sheds light on the plausibility of different future scenarios. In the words of Shemilt (2009): 'The disposition to investigate and analyse the past from the perspective of possible futures is a key development in historical consciousness and one that transcends the all too common perspective that "the past is dead and gone"' (p.197).

A second dimension of genetic historical consciousness in the context of understanding the human condition is that narratives about the past may reveal aspects of human life which are not specifically time-bound and therefore characteristic for the human condition. We propose to call these aspects *enduring human issues*. Sociology and anthropology can be helpful in tracking these issues down.

Sociologists enumerate six elements which are essential to human survival: food, shelter, protection, affection, knowledge and guidance (De Swaan, 2005). As societies in the course of time have become more complex through specialisation and division of labour, people have become increasingly interdependent in fulfilling the necessities of life (Elias, 2000). The historical dimension thus offers an explanation for the existence of human interdependency.

Historical anthropologist Dressel (1996) has coined the concept of 'elementary human experiences' (*menschliche Elementarerfahrungen*), among which he counts space and time, religion, family, food, dealing with nature, body, sexuality, labour, conflict, gender, and encounters with strangers. He chooses the word 'experiences' to refer to historically and culturally determined changes in these essential elements of human existence. On the one hand, every human being shares experiences with something like food, on the other hand, these experiences differ over time. As such, experiences may also teach lessons. Dressel (1996) points to comparisons and contrasts between different examples of the same 'elementary human experience', the 'dialogue

with the unknown', and the enhancement of critical attitudes towards stereotypes which may be the result of such – essentially historical – operations.

History is an integrative approach of all aspects of human existence and does not choose for one particular dimension, such as the economic, political or legal (Kocka, 1977). It is a study of all life forms and life opportunities humanity has known during thousands of years, thus expanding the repertoire of 'human possibilities' beyond one's own experience. More than other studies history shows man in all his abilities and limitations. It is the story of extremes: courage and cowardice, love and jealousy, compassion and bloodlust, pride and shame, survival and self-destruction. The past offers numerous examples of daring and successful entrepreneurship, but also situations in which human beings are at the mercy of forces totally beyond their control. History reveals the limited room for manoeuvre within which people try to realise their ideals and what it is like to have to operate in conditions over which one has no hold. It offers examples of discrepancy between wanting and being able, between planning and realisation of plans, between intended and unintended consequences.

Exactly because we can look back and see what the outcomes of human efforts and expectations have been, we are confronted with the role of *contingency*: the course of events is not predetermined and greatly depends on coincidences. According to Butterfield (1931/1973), history shows:

> how crooked and perverse the ways of progress are, with what wilfulness and waste it twists and turns, and takes anything but the straight track to its goal, and how often it seems to go astray, and to be deflected by any conjuncture, to return to us - if it does return - by a back-door (p. 24-25).

By learning about the role of contingency in history, students learn that predetermined and monocausal visions of the future should be treated with scepticism. Society appears to be liable to social engineering only to a limited extent.

Understanding the human condition is an intended outcome of all the social sciences, not just history. In this paragraph we have described the specific contributions that history can make because of its temporal dimensions. By relating their personal past to a general historical past, students become aware of their own historicity which fosters their understanding of the temporal aspect of the human condition. Narratives about the

past reveal examples of past approaches to enduring human issues which can enable students to extend their experiences and knowledge to cope with such issues, while taking into account the role of contingency.

In Fig. 2.2 we show the three objectives of relevant history teaching in concentric circles, suggesting that the scope of the three objectives varies between the small scale of the self, the intermediate scale of one's society and the large scale of mankind.

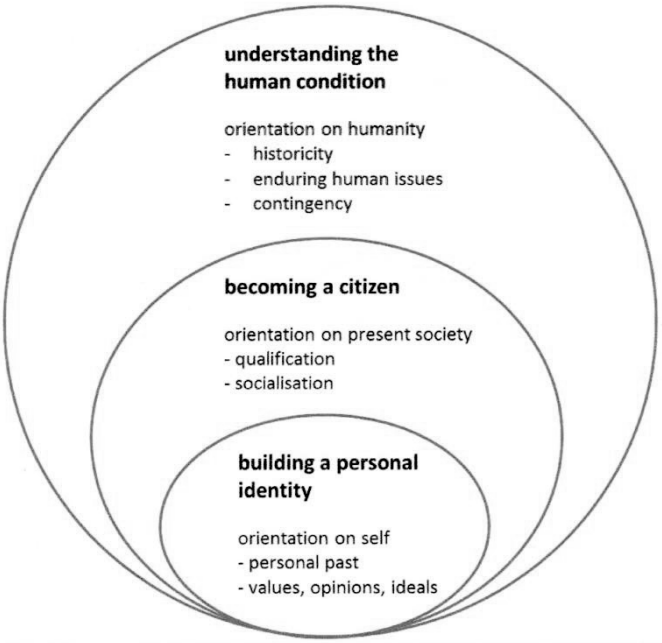

Figure 2.2 Objectives for relevance in history teaching.

2.4 Pedagogical approaches for making connections between past, present and future (RQ 2)

Research suggests that students are not inclined to make connections between past, present and future of their own accord. In England the project Usable Historical Pasts (UHP) investigated whether 14- to 16-year-olds made an appeal to historical knowledge when discussing contemporary and future issues. For example, students were asked whether the United States would always remain the most powerful country in the world. Only 8% of the answers contained explicit connections between past, present and future.

The vast majority of students viewed the issue only from a contemporary perspective (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008).

Lack of readily available historical knowledge could be a plausible explanation for the fact that students struggle to make connections between past, present and future. Another explanation may be found in the way students understand the past. There is a large quantity of research indicating that students show a strong tendency to only take a contemporary perspective into consideration and that they perceive the past as something that does not exist anymore and therefore has no value and does not affect the present (e.g. Barton, 2008; Blow, 2009; Lee, 2005; O'Malley, 2013; Savenije, 2014; Seixas, Peck, & Poyntz, 2011; Shemilt, 2009; Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2008; Von Borries, 2011). Students' historical thinking is hallmarked by events following each other in a causal chain without alternatives, not by the interplay of change and continuity or the chances of contingency. In a study by Anderson (2011) for example, a student claimed that without the Greek theatre there would have been no film or television; another stressed the importance of the taming of wild animals by farmers in the Stone Age because now she knew how to train her dog. Students interpret the past in a personal, everyday manner: they look for historical explanations in the concrete actions of people, not in conditions, developments or changes.

Teaching students to make connections between past, present and future therefore confronts us with a challenge, to which we do not pretend to have found final answers. What is discussed here, is what we have gleaned from the literature: some untested proposals and some experiments, which we have broadly categorised in four groups:

- teaching with longitudinal lines;
- teaching with enduring human issues;
- teaching with historical analogies;
- teaching with a focus on decision-making and scenario thinking.

Discussing these four categories, we shall analyse them in the light of the theoretical framework that has been worked out in the previous sections of this article. In particular, we shall examine to what extent the pedagogical approaches can be used to achieve the three objectives of relevant history teaching. In Table 2.1, we have indicated how the objectives and approaches relate to each other and for which objectives each approach

seems to be the most appropriate. In theory, these relationships unfold in a logical manner, but more empirical research is needed to substantiate the interaction between objectives and approaches of relevant history education.

Table 2.1 Possible connections between the objectives of relevant history teaching and four pedagogical approaches.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES		OBJECTIVES OF RELEVANT HISTORY TEACHING		
	Key pedagogical transactions	Building a personal identity	Becoming a citizen	Understanding the human condition
Longitudinal lines	Describing long-term political, socio-economical or cultural developments (e.g. the emergence of national states).		X	X
Enduring human issues	Study and evaluate issues common to all humans by means of various historical examples from different periods (e.g. about paying taxes, crime and punishment, resolving conflicts).	X	X	X
Historical analogies	Comparing historical situations or developments from different periods or the present to study differences and similarities.		X	X
Decision-making and scenario thinking	Use historical knowledge to assess the probability of developments in the future to be able to anticipate on them.	X	X	X

2.4.1 Teaching with longitudinal lines

If students are to become aware of their own historicity in order to understand the human condition, they should, among other things, be able to position themselves as historical beings in the context of narratives that extend beyond the story of their own lives. It seems a sensible idea, therefore, to confront them with narratives articulating long lines of development. This diachronic approach to history teaching is not entirely new, though our impression is that most history teaching usually departs from chronologically organised curricula. Studying a specific aspect of human existence (like ‘food’, ‘labour’

or ‘religion’) along longitudinal lines seems something more novel in the context of relevant history teaching. Longitudinal lines should not be confused with historical overview knowledge without any explicit organizing principle or specific question to the past. Overview knowledge without an explicit narrative structure probably does not serve the purpose of making connections between past, present and future.

Shemilt (2009) proposes synoptically described lines of change under themes such as modes of production, or political and social organization. Lee and Howson (2009) also argue for diachronic narratives about certain themes or topics. In this way, students will not only be able to extrapolate long lines into the future, but also reflect upon their own future role as (e.g.) an office employee compared to a stone age hunter, a medieval farmer, a sixteenth century craftsman or a nineteenth century factory worker. Comparison and contrast, as well as dialogue with the unknown, based on one of the ‘elementary human experiences’ such as pointed out by Dressel (1996) (in this case ‘labour’) can be applied in this context.

Shemilt (2009) and Lee and Howson (2009) stress the importance of teaching disciplinary knowledge related to longitudinal lines; students who know that history is an image of the past and not the past itself, will realise that changes and developments have been reconstructed from a hindsight perspective. This enables students to better discern developments by themselves and extrapolate these into present and future. Research suggests that such an effect of disciplinary knowledge may occur (Cutrara, 2012; Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008; Mosborg, 2002).

Shemilt’s and Lee and Howson’s proposals have not been empirically tested. We found only one small experiment that could be seen as an example of working with long lines. Nuttall (2013) presented a comprehensive chart of twentieth century history to 14- and 15-year-old students, structured by six periods on one axis (e.g. 1919-1938, 1946-1989) and three main questions on the other axis: What is the big story of the twentieth century? What is the story of the empires? Who is the most powerful? In the resulting cross table students could compare the six periods from three guiding points of view, thus creating longer lines in twentieth century history. Students proved to be better able to switch from past to present and started spontaneous conversations on topical issues such as the rapid growth of the Chinese economy or the civil wars in Africa. Because the students saw the ‘whole picture’ and perceived different lines connecting past and

present, they realised that the present can be seen as a random outcome of developments in the past and could have looked different if things had turned out differently.

Teaching with longitudinal lines seem an appropriate strategy to learn students how to utilize historical knowledge in contemporary social contexts. Out of the three objectives of relevant history education, it fits best to 'becoming a citizen'. By means of longer lines connecting past to present students can learn how today's society has grown and how it will possibly develop in the future. Long lines can also contribute to the awareness of historicity and as such may serve the purpose of understanding the human condition, because they may induce students to reflect upon their own position in relation to the presented narrative and about the interconnectedness of past and present.

2.4.2 Teaching with enduring human issues

A second pedagogical approach departs from notions of historical anthropology as described by Dressel (1996). The observation that certain issues are common to all human beings, but that the way in which people have dealt with them differs from time to time, may lead to the design of curricula organized around these common and enduring human issues. For example, in the German state of North Rhineland Westphalia a curriculum was designed by Klafki (*as cited in* Gies, 2004) around concepts like peace, environment, social inequality and interpersonal relationships.

Hunt (2000) proposes to organise the curriculum around 'ageless social, moral and cultural issues' (p. 39) to be studied on the basis of key concepts, key questions and historical content. In the context of civic education students need to learn how to form a well-informed judgment about questions such as: Are there limits to the degree of freedom we can create? Why do we obey laws? Why do people live in societies or groups?

Barton and Levstik (2011) suggest that history education may become meaningful if students are confronted with 'enduring themes and questions' (p. 3) such as the interaction between man and his environment, or the development of cultures and societies. Misco and Patterson (2009) take current issues as a starting point and from there go back in time. Obenchain, Orr and Davis (2011) developed teaching about 'essential questions' in cooperation with teachers – for example: the question of the grounds on which freedom may be curtailed – which they translated into 'historical

questions', for example: the question whether the American president Theodore Roosevelt (1858-1919) was in his right when he restricted the entrepreneurial freedom of large corporations in his fight against trusts. In similar projects teachers and researchers have designed curricula around 'big ideas' (Grant & Gradwell, 2010) or ‘persistent issues’ (Brush & Saye, 2014).

What all these examples have in common is that historical knowledge is used in order to formulate judgments about enduring societal, political or human issues. Because enduring human issues are often morally oriented, this kind of teaching is also potentially a strong tool for developing students’ values, opinions and ideals; therefore it seems appropriate to build a personal identity. Because many of the enduring human issues are societal in nature, becoming a citizen is also an aim which can be targeted by this approach. The most outstanding aim in this context is understanding the human condition, because enduring issues touch on commonalities shared by all humans in different times and circumstances.

The examples and suggestions from Germany, the United States and the United Kingdom that we mentioned above show that the idea of organizing the curriculum around enduring themes or essential questions is not entirely new. In the daily practice of history teaching, however, it is a phenomenon that still needs further development, especially in the context of the objectives of relevant history education as described above.

2.4.3 Teaching with historical analogies

A third approach is teaching with analogies: parallels between historical and contemporary phenomena. The parallel in this case is not necessarily derived from a longitudinal line or an enduring issue, but from developments or phenomena which show correspondences in their development or structure. Analogical reasoning is an effective and motivating way of learning, but there has not been much research into the use of analogies in teaching history (Myson, 2006). From what is known from classroom experiments, it seems to be a promising strategy.

If analogies are drawn between something comparatively known and something comparatively unknown, the first is called ‘base’ and the second ‘target’. Three types of analogies are usually applied in history classes:

- Something mundane from the present as base and a historical phenomenon as target, for example a marriage of interests and the Concordat between Mussolini and the Pope (Laffin & Wilson, 2005).
- Historical events that show similarities, such as the failed attempts of Charles XII, Napoleon and Hitler to conquer Russia (Mugleston, 2000).
- Something from the past as base and something from the present as target, for example Japanese kamikaze pilots during World War II and the terrorists who committed the attack on New York in 2001 (Robbins, 2004).

The limited number of studies available suggests that teachers prefer using the first two of these (Ata, 2009; McCarthy Young & Leinhardt, 2000). However, using something commonly known from the present in order to explain something from the past is not an example of relevant history teaching if the purpose of such an exercise is explaining the past as an aim in itself and not to create meaningful relations between past and present. Using the example of a marriage of interests to explain the Lateran Concordat mainly seems to serve the interest of explaining the latter, unless generic human behaviour such as disregarding ideological or moral principles because both parties profit, is focused upon.

Comparisons between two or more phenomena or developments in the past, on the other hand, may be seen as a strategy for relevant history teaching if they reveal generic human aspects. For example, Boix-Mansilla (2000) made students compare the history of the Holocaust with the history of the genocide in Rwanda. Such a comparison may induce students to think about human nature and the circumstances in which atrocities like these can occur.

Using analogies between past and present in order to shed light on the present seems to be less common than the other two types, maybe because it is more complicated. Yet this pedagogical approach is the most suitable for relevant history teaching. An example is to analyse the present situation of taxpayers in the light of historical issues around paying taxes, like the Magna Charta (taxes as a favour granted by the taxpayers and a means to put pressure on the king), the issue of taxation and representation in the American Revolution, and the nineteenth century census: How is the duty to pay taxes

connected to the right to have political influence? The comparison with historical situations makes the present situation less self-evident and 'given'.

An important aspect of analogies is the fact that not only the similarities may be illuminating, but also the differences. Evidence suggests that students have to be trained to take the differences into account. For example, in the case of the Holocaust and the Rwanda genocide students were inclined to disregard the differences between the two genocides in their zeal to find an explanation for the genocide in Rwanda. However, differences are important to prevent students from generalizing. The fact that something in the past is not the same as it is now, may induce students to see the present less as a natural given and open their minds for the possibility of alternatives.

Comparing the past to the present is something common in many history lessons, usually targeted at making the past more understandable to students. The opposite aim is probably much less frequently pursued. Comparing two or more historical situations, like in the example of the Holocaust and Rwanda, may be a rarity. Using comparisons with the explicit aim to illustrate the relevance of the past for the present by stressing conceptual understanding of human experiences common to all periods, is not often practised in history teaching as it stands.

Analogies may be used for the objectives of becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition. Because analogies not only explain the present, but also shed a different light on present issues which leads to questioning the self-evidence of contemporary realities, they may enhance critical thinking. As far as generic human issues are concerned, analogies may lead to reflection upon the human condition.

2.4.4 Teaching with a focus on decision-making and scenario thinking

Although it is impossible to predict the future, historical knowledge may serve the purpose of thinking about plausible future scenarios. Policy makers in the field of politics and economics have good reasons to base their scenarios for possible future developments on historical studies (MacKay & McKiernan, 2006; Neustadt & May, 1988). Sometimes mathematical formulas are applied to historical facts to determine by means of extrapolation which future scenario is the most plausible one (Dortmans & Eiffel, 2004). By putting students in the position of scenario thinkers, the possibility

arises that they will use historical knowledge in a meaningful way and will see links between past, present and future.

Instone (2013) conducted a study in which students had to indicate what China's position in the world would be a hundred years from now. One student drew a parallel with the global dominance of the United States in the twentieth century and expressed his doubts about whether China would ever achieve that status, because the country faced much more poverty and social problems than the United States had ever seen. Over all, students were cautious in their predictions. A factor may have been that they did not know enough about China.

Culpin (2005) also gave students an assignment to make predictions, but he embedded this in a series of lessons, so students would have enough knowledge to be able to speculate about the future with more guidance. In the context of a theme on terrorism for example, students were asked whether the American War on Terror had any chance of success. From the complexity of the reasoning with which the students underpinned their speculations it was apparent how well they had mastered the subject. Projects like these aim at students' understanding that history is about the past as well as the present and that people can shape their future: 'explain the past . . . shape the future' (Graseck, 2008, p. 371).

In 2013, we conducted a pilot study among 28 grade 9 students in which the potential of scenario thinking was explored. After studying the Cold War, students were presented with the (fictitious) problem that Iran was trying to produce nuclear weapons, contrary to all international agreements. Students were instructed to write an advice to the President of the United States about the decisions he was to make. They were explicitly asked to use their knowledge of the Cold War. Nevertheless, some students did not use any historical knowledge at all; their advice to the president relied solely on everyday hopes for peace and aversion to war.

Students who referred to the Cold War did so in different ways. Some stressed the importance of continued talks with Iran to prevent misunderstandings and incomprehension such as had arisen between Truman and Stalin. Others rather advised the president to start an arms race because this had meant the financial collapse of the Soviet Union. Some students remained very close to the subject matter they studied, for example by advising to offer a Marshall Plan to the people of Iran, or to blockade

seaways to Iran, a tactic that had after all been successful during the Cuban Missile Crisis. Some students produced sophisticated lines of thought. One of them urged the president to put forward penalties in the negotiations with Iran in case that country would not honour the agreements. According to this student the Americans and British had failed to do this in their agreements with Stalin, after which the Soviet leader could simply take his course in Eastern Europe.

After completing the task, ten students were interviewed in pairs. In general, they found the task more difficult than the ones they had to do normally. According to one student the reason for this was that they had to think of 'what went well and what went wrong during the Cold War and that is harder than just writing down what happened.' Students were asked if they understood the world around them better by doing a task like this. All of them indicated that this was the case. One student explained it in this way:

> One often hears something on the news about nuclear weapons and now we understand that better. Normally one just hears it and does not give it a second thought. Now one hears it and thinks about why that country has a nuclear weapon and why others are opposed to that. If you look at the Cold War, you see that ultimately no war has broken out. So then you can see if war can also be prevented now. But the Cold War lasted a long time so you can see if you can learn something from that to solve something faster. It is difficult because it involves other countries and there are other problems, but often you can make comparisons.

The results of this pilot study suggest that the extent to which and the manner in which students use knowledge about the past for writing future scenarios vary significantly. Some students operate in Rüsen's traditional mode (taking the past as an example to be followed literally), others in a more critical mode. Students who do not use historical knowledge seem to argue from a contemporary and personal perspective more than other students. Also, students tend to look at what was right and what went wrong in the past and base their decisions on that. By working with future scenarios students seem inclined to compare past and present and view current affairs from a different perspective.

We are not aware of the presence of working with future scenarios in the usual history curriculum, so this approach may be the most novel of the four that we present in this article as options for relevant history teaching.

Decision-making and scenario thinking seems particularly suitable for the aim of becoming a citizen. Citizens need to orient on the present and the future from an historical background in order to create informed views about what is possible, probable and feasible. Because of this orientation in time, this pedagogical approach could contribute to the objective of understanding the human condition, particularly to the awareness of one's own historicity. There may also be a connection with building a personal identity, depending on the kind of assignment. Some assignments may refer more explicitly to students' expectations about their own life in the future. But also if their assessment of probable societal scenarios is concerned, thinking about the future involves the student's personal ideals and values.

We have presented four pedagogical approaches as four separate categories, but we realize they have some overlap because all four focus on the deployment of historical knowledge in contemporary contexts and all embody some element of comparison. Yet there are good reasons to keep them apart. For example, teaching with longitudinal lines concentrates on processes of change and development which are extrapolated into present and future, and, as such, enable students to orient in time. Teaching with enduring human issues and historical analogies focuses more on similarities and differences between past and present phenomena and less on patterns of change and development. Forming moral opinions on timeless human issues and the understanding of contemporary phenomena is more prominent in these strategies than orientation in time.

The four pedagogical approaches also differ in their impacts on the existing curriculum. Teaching with longitudinal lines or enduring human issues probably requires a much larger amount of adaptation than the use of historical analogies or working with future scenarios, which can be easily added to historical topics as they occur in traditional curricula.

2.5 Conclusion

We have explored how history may be made relevant to students. We have tried to create clarity in the concept of relevant history teaching. Based on historical theory about the connections between past, present and future and on educational insights about the general functions of education, we have expressed the importance of knowledge about the past for the present in terms of three objectives. Relevant history education pursues these objectives. This implies that in the classroom relationships should be established between past, present and future. Four pedagogical approaches may provide feasible options to achieve this, because they help students to assess and explain developments in the present and create pictures of the future that might make sense. Assessing, explaining and predicting: these functions of history emerged from the responses to the Russian occupation of the Crimea in 2014 with which we started this article.

The effectiveness of the four proposed approaches has yet to be determined. To what extent do they encourage students to apply historical knowledge in contemporary contexts? To what extent do students learn to better understand what the past has to do with themselves, with today's society and with their understanding of the human condition? We believe that if this is the case, students will better understand the usefulness of history. It is obvious that this is of great importance to students' motivation and the position of history as a school subject.

The validity of the framework outlined here for relevant history education should be empirically substantiated. Research is needed to determine to what extent the proposed objectives and pedagogical approaches are feasible. Such research may imply conducting experiments with each of the four approaches described in this article, to determine to what extent the expected effects on the sense of relevance of history among students (and their motivation for the subject) are achieved. An important question is also whether the approaches can be smoothly incorporated into the existing curriculum, or if not, which major changes are needed. Perhaps it may appear necessary to escape from the straight-jacket of existing schoolbooks and curricula which focus predominantly on the study of the past as an aim in itself.

Chapter 3

MEASURING STUDENTS' APPRAISALS OF THE RELEVANCE OF HISTORY: THE CONSTRUCTION AND VALIDATION OF THE RELEVANCE OF HISTORY MEASUREMENT SCALE (RHMS)[2]

This study explores the psychometric qualities of the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS), a questionnaire designed to measure students' beliefs about the relevance of history. Participants were 1459 Dutch secondary school students aged between 12 and 18. Data analysis revealed three reliable factors, compliant with our theoretical framework which defines three strands of relevance of history: relevance for building a personal identity, for citizenship, and for insight into the 'human condition'. The convergent and known-groups validity of the RHMS was demonstrated. The collected data show that students find history more relevant as they grow older, with most progress taking place between 14 and 16. Out of the three strands of relevance, building a personal identity scores lowest in students' appraisals. This study shows that the RHMS is psychometrically sound and can be used to evaluate effects of lesson interventions directed at enhancing the relevance of history to students.

3.1 Introduction

In documents describing standards for history teaching in Western countries, connecting the past to the present and the future is frequently being regarded as a means to prepare students for their future role as citizens in society (ACARA, 2018; DFE, 2013; NCHS, 1996; SLO, 2016; Seixas & Morton, 2013; VGD, 2006). As a rule, history's contributions to citizenship are expressed in terms of general goals of history teaching expounded in the preambles of these curriculum documents. In most of the more specific content descriptions, however, systematic elaborations of meaningful links between the past, the present and the future are largely absent. Content standards focus almost entirely on understanding the past and learning historical thinking skills as aims in themselves. This is reinforced by high-stakes tests emphasizing the acquisition of factual knowledge described in the standards (Saye & SSIRC, 2013; Stern, 2010). There is, therefore, a

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discrepancy between general goals explicating the value of history beyond school and specific learning objectives focusing on 'value-within-content' (i.e. the value of certain content knowledge in view of mastering more content knowledge) (Francis, 2014). Apparently, developers of history curricula assume that studying the past yields insights into the present and the future as a matter of course, and they take knowledge transfer beyond school for granted without any explicit learning activities directed at achieving this aim.

Research suggests that such expectations may not be justified. According to Haeberli (2005), students may develop either an 'intimate' or an 'external' relationship with history. Students of the 'intimate' type enjoy history and consider it useful in view of their understanding of the world and of their own lives, while students of the 'external' type have a much more negative attitude and hardly see the benefits of studying the past. The latter type is probably much more numerous among secondary school students than the first, as indeed appeared to be the case in Haeberli's (2005) study. Research has shown that 14-year-old students in countries like Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands tend to think that history is 'dead and gone and has nothing to do with my present life' (Angvik & Von Borries, 1997, p. B26). Dutch secondary students find history significantly less useful than English language, economics and mathematics (Wilschut, 2013). Several studies indicate that students in England and North America have limited views on the purposes and benefits of history and struggle to explain the point of studying the past (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Biddulph & Adey, 2003; Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008; Harris & Reynolds, 2014; Haydn & Harris, 2010; VanSledright, 1997; Zhao & Hoge, 2005). All of this implies that there are ample reasons for an active attitude among teachers to promote the relevance of history by means of linking the past to the present and the future.

In earlier work pedagogical approaches were devised for teaching history in ways which may be expected to improve students' appraisals of the relevance of history in terms of building a personal identity, becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016). The extent to which such approaches are effective can only be determined by means of valid and reliable measurement tools. To date, appropriate tools for measuring students' views with regard to the three relevance domains mentioned above are not available. Extant measures are

designed to gauge students' personal affiliation with historical subject matter (e.g. Grever, Pelzer, & Haydn, 2011; Harris & Reynolds, 2014); students' epistemological beliefs about history (e.g. Maggioni, VanSledright, & Alexander, 2009; Stoel, Logtenberg, Wansink, Huijgen, Van Boxtel, & Van Drie, 2017); relationships between students' self-identity and history teaching (e.g. Andrews, McGlynn, & Mycock, 2009); or students' experiences with school history (e.g. Angvik & Von Borries, 1998; Biddulph & Adey, 2003). Some of these measures do question students why history matters, but always in a very general way (i.e. not specified to the three relevance domains as defined in this study).

In the absence of appropriate measurement tools for assessing students' attitudes towards the relevance of history, we developed the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS). The development process and the psychometric qualities of the RHMS are reported in this study. First, we formulate a theoretically underpinned definition of the concept of 'relevance of history' and describe its operationalization in the design of the RHMS. Second, we examine the reliability and the validity of the RHMS, using data collected from a sample of 1459 Dutch secondary schools students between the ages of 12 and 18. Third, we discuss results of RHMS measurements among our sample group and possible uses of the RHMS for practitioners and researchers.

3.2 Relevance of history

The relevance of history has been defined as 'allowing students to recognize and experience what history has to do with themselves, with today's society and their general understanding of human existence' (Wilschut, Van Straaten, & Van Riessen, 2013, p. 36). This description stemmed from three types of theoretical sources: (1) educational philosophy on meaningful education, (2) constructivist educational theory on meaningful learning, and (3) historical philosophy on historical consciousness and historical thinking in relation to the temporal dimension of human existence.

3.2.1 Educational philosophy

The first category of literature yields overall goals for meaningful education, including history education (e.g. Biesta, 2010; Pring, 2005; Winch, 2006). Three main functions

of education are commonly distinguished: qualification, socialization and subjectification.

Qualification entails that education should prepare students to accomplish something later on in their lives (e.g. exercising a profession or participating in political life). History can play a role in qualifying students, because it may enhance their political literacy, for example by means of studying the origins of political ideas or by means of acquiring the requisite vocabulary for understanding political phenomena and processes; mastering historical thinking skills may also enhance students' ability to develop and substantiate opinions with fact-based arguments and qualify them to participate in political and social discourses (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Davies, 2000; Jordanova, 2006).

Socialization implies that students are initiated into societal structures whose traditions, rules, values and norms they have to become familiar with in order to function as citizens. History obviously has an eminently socializing effect. It provides narratives for nation-building and collective-memories approaches which can be powerful tools for cultural acclimation of young people, in particular the younger generations of newcomers (VanSledright, 2008; Wertsch, 2002). It teaches students where institutions, traditions and dominant ways of thinking originate from and why it may be worthwhile to uphold or rather to contest them. Students learn how society has developed historically, how to grasp processes of change and continuity in past and present societies, how society operates and what is needed for successful civic participation and action (Gies, 2004; Stearns, 2000; Stricker, 1992). History sheds light on the origins and development of human culture over long spans of time. Historiography implies reproducing 'culture' which is thus transferred to future generations. The activities of critically analyzing primary sources and shaping plausible images of the past also socialize students into the rules and standards that apply in the academic world (Wineburg, 1991).

Subjectification means that students develop their own identities based on values, ideals and beliefs which make them unique persons vis-à-vis the communities to which they belong (family, ethnic group, religious community, etc.). Learning about the history of these and other communities enables students to reflect on the traditions, customs and beliefs that have shaped their personality, or to which they might wish to oppose. Students also have personal experiences, which are usually remembered as an ongoing story shaping a person into an individual. Temporal continuity 'identifies' a person:

without a past, without memorized experiences, developing a personal identity is inconceivable (Ishige, 2005). Finally, through the study of history students encounter all sorts of people with whom they have to 'communicate' in order to make sense of the past; studying the lives of others may result in a better understanding of oneself (Southgate, 2013; Wineburg, 2010).

3.2.2 Constructivist learning theory

Constructivist learning theory dissuades rote learning and focuses on active construction of knowledge and knowledge transfer to extracurricular contexts (Narayan, Rodriguez, Araujo, Shaqlaih, & Moss, 2013). Meaningful learning is nurtured if students are emotionally engaged and relate new information to prior knowledge, personal needs, interests and goals (Novak, 2002). Linking subject matter to students' needs increases its relevance and may also positively influence students' motivation (Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Muddiman & Frymier, 2009; Pintrich, 2003). 'Authentic pedagogy' propagates inquiry-based instruction on disciplinary ideas and emphasizes learning outcomes beyond successful performing in school (Newmann et al., 1996; Saye and SSIRC, 2013). Inquiry-based instruction may also meet one of the 'basic needs in education' related to motivation, viz. the need for autonomy to decide on learning objectives and learning activities (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

These constructivist learning principles are consistent with empirical research in the field of history education. For example, organizing the history curriculum around inquiry into enduring societal issues promotes student engagement and creates more opportunities for meaning making than a curriculum mainly focusing on learning facts and dates (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Saye and SSIRC, 2013). History becomes meaningful to students if the past is connected to the present and if students feel emotionally involved, for instance by examples of inhumane or heroic behavior of people in the past (Barton, 2008). Real life issues may lead to effective construction of new knowledge if incidents and events in history are interpreted in the context of general conceptual frameworks, which facilitate relating new to already existing knowledge (Jadallah, 2000).

3.2.3 Historical philosophy

Historical philosophy on historical consciousness and historical thinking in relation to the temporal dimension of human existence emphasizes that history is about mankind in other times: very different from today, but also similar because people have always shared fundamental aspects of being human. Collingwood's (1973) philosophy of history is principally based on the idea that time gaps can be overcome by 're-thinking' thoughts of historical agents, which is only possible because people in past and present share the essences of being human.

Dressel (1996) distinguishes eleven basic human experiences: space and time, religion, family, food, dealing with nature, the human body, sexuality, labor, conflicts, gender and encounters with strangers. The tension between the familiar and the unfamiliar in issues such as these defines one of the essential functions of the study of history. 'The strangeness of the past offers the possibility of surprise and amazement, of encountering people, places, and times that spur us to reconsider how we see ourselves as human beings' (Wineburg, 2010, p. 83). Another fundamental aspect of history is the awareness of existing in time: people need to relate to a past and a future, because, endowed with memories and expectations, they cannot think otherwise than in terms of past, present and future (Friedman, 2005; Kahneman, 2011; Karlsson, 2011; Rüsen, 2004). The past permeates the present in the form of various narratives to which people must learn to relate. According to Rüsen (2005), relationships with these narratives exist in different modes, such as taking the past as an example to follow literally, or dealing with the past critically by seeing the present in contrast with the past. The most developed of Rüsen's (2005) modes is, what he calls, 'genetic historical consciousness', implying that one is fully aware of the fact that the past is always viewed from a contemporary perspective and that processes of change are inherent in human existence, including one's own variability over time.

3.2.4 Three objectives of relevant history teaching

The three theoretical sources offer various angles to approaching the concept of relevance of history. What they have in common is the importance of constructing and using narratives that may create meaning in societal and educational contexts. Historical philosophy shows how people construct narratives that can give meaning to human

existence, educational philosophy shows how these narratives are to be connected to the development of personal and societal identities, and constructivist learning theory shows how meaningful knowledge can originate from personal experiences, real life issues and focusing on generic concepts rather than specific facts and dates. Based on these insights, three objectives of relevant history teaching were distinguished (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016):

- Building a personal identity: seeing oneself as an individual with a personal past and developing one's own values, opinions and ideals vis-à-vis those of the historically shaped communities to which one belongs (subjectification).
- Becoming a citizen: understanding the origins of social institutions, traditions, values and norms and enhancing political literacy in order to function as a citizen in society (qualification and socialization).
- Understanding the human condition: becoming aware of one's own historicity and supplementing one's experiences with past approaches to human issues.

3.3 Developing the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS)

Referring to the objectives described above, we conceived an instrument for measuring students' appraisals of the relevance of history. The design of the instrument was based on generally accepted insights in the field of opinion research (Hinkin, 1998; Nemoto & Beglar, 2014) and executed in accordance with a methodology used for the School Subject Experience Scale (SSES) developed in the Netherlands (Martinot, Kuhlemeier, & Feenstra, 1988; Otten & Boekaerts, 1990). The SSES measures four aspects of school subject experience: practical use, enjoyment, difficulty and interest. Each of these aspects is measured by eight items, out of which four are positively formulated and four negatively. None of the aspects measures relevance of a school subject in the way we defined it for history. 'Practical use' is understood as the importance of a school subject for later life, for example for getting a job or practicing a profession, and the extent to which students experience a school subject as enjoyable, difficult or interesting are not related to relevance as we defined it either. The four SSES-parameters have been used to find out how students experience a school subject. The SSES was not specifically designed for history, but it has been used for a range of school subjects, one of which was history. The RHMS, on the other hand, was exclusively designed for history and

investigates whether students derive any meanings from studying the past in terms of learning about themselves, society and humanity. Examples of SSES-items are: 'I think there are only a few professions for which [school subject x] may be useful' (practical use); 'without [school subject x] school would be much more fun' (enjoyment); 'I'm pretty good in [school subject x]' (difficulty); 'our [school subject x] lessons are often fascinating and interesting' (interest). Examples of RHMS-items are (see also Tables 3.1 and 3.4): 'history helps me to get to know myself better'; 'you can't use history to predict the future '; 'history makes me understand the news better'. All of this shows that the RHMS differs from the SSES both in nature and purpose.

The first draft of the RHMS consisted of 32 items that were set to a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. We decided to use a scale with an even number of points, without a 'neutral' category. Research indicates that a neutral response is given in three cases: either (1) the respondent is deliberately neutral, or (2) the respondent does not take trouble to define his/her position, or (3) the respondent does not have adequate knowledge about the subject on which to base an answer; the first of these is the least frequent. Because lack of knowledge cannot play any role in view of the fact that the RHMS collects subjective data, and because not bothering to make a choice had to be avoided, no neutral response option was included in the instrument (Fowler, 2014; Sturgis, Roberts, & Smith, 2014).

The 32 items of the RHMS corresponded to the three objectives of relevant history teaching presented above: eight items referring to 'building a personal identity', eight referring to 'understanding the human condition' and sixteen to 'becoming a citizen' (see Table 3.1). More items were assigned to 'becoming a citizen' because – driven by the need for measurable constructs – two aspects of this objective were distinguished that cover a part of the broader concept of citizenship and are probably indicative of the objective: (1) explaining present-day events, developments and phenomena by means of history, and (2) forming opinions and substantiating judgments about current affairs by means of history. Following the SSES example, eight items were formulated for each aspect, of which half were positively and half negatively formulated to avoid response tendency and thus enhance measurement reliability (Spector, 1992). Items took the form of statements relating to one relevance aspect only, formulated as briefly as possible and in a language that would fit students from grade 7 to grade 12. To this end, nine students

(13- to 17-year-olds, 5 males, 4 females) were interviewed in triads to figure out what language they used when talking about the relevance of history. The 32 statements were reviewed by secondary school history teachers (N = 14; 7 males, 7 females) on issues of comprehensibility and validity. Fourteen students (13- to 15-year-olds, 7 males, 7 females) were asked to read the statements aloud and score them. We assumed that if the statements would be clear to students of these ages, older students would not encounter problems with the questionnaire either. Finally, the first draft of the RHMS was piloted among a sample of secondary school students (N = 135) to determine whether the items and instructions were clear to students and to explore the reliability of the instrument.

Table 3.1 Objectives for teaching the relevance of history and initial numbers of RHMS-items corresponding with these objectives.

Relevance Objective	Description	Number of items	Item example
Building a personal identity (IDE)	Seeing oneself as an individual with a personal past and developing one's own values, opinions and ideals vis-à-vis those of the historically shaped communities to which one belongs	8	History has no bearing on what happens to me in my life (24)
Becoming a citizen (CIT)	Explaining present-day events, developments and phenomena by means of history	8	I can't really use history to understand what is going on in the world (23)
	Forming opinions and substantiating judgments about current affairs by means of history	8	History enables me to develop personal opinions about things (08)
Under-standing the human condition (HUM)	Becoming aware of one's own historicity and supplementing one's experiences with past approaches to human issues	8	History enables us to imagine what the world might look like later on (04)

As a consequence of these activities, alterations and adaptations of items took place, resulting in the final questionnaire that was subjected to this validation study. For example, for reasons of ambiguity of wording, the statement 'I don't think history is important for the present, because it all has already happened' was replaced by 'I can't

really use history to understand what is going on in the world'. An additional adjustment was the replacement of the four-point Likert scale by a six-point scale because piloting the instrument showed that, in spite of the instruction to mark only one answer, students frequently put their marks between two scale-points, which made their answers invalid. Using a six-point scale enables students to exercise more discriminatory precision in rating the items and also counteracts aversion to filling out the questionnaire (Fowler, 2014).

3.4 Method

3.4.1 Educational context

Pivotal to the Dutch history curriculum for secondary education is a frame of reference knowledge organized around ten eras, beginning with the 'era of hunters and farmers' and ending with the 'era of television and computer' (Wilschut, 2009, 2015). Each era has its characteristic features, such as feudalism' for the 'era of monks and knights' (early Middle Ages), or 'industrial revolution' for the 'era of citizens and steam engines' (19th century). This knowledge frame is designed to enable students to orientate in time and space (i.e. to contextualize specific historical events, phenomena, persons or developments, even those which are completely new to them). Aspects of historical thinking, such as causation, empathy or change and continuity, are also part of the history curriculum. Encompassing overview knowledge and historical thinking skills, history teaching in secondary education aims at fostering historical consciousness among students. In the context of this study it is important to note that 'the use of history'– a substantive component of the Norwegian and Swedish curriculum (Nordgren, 2016) – does not appear in the Dutch curriculum. This means that students who participated in this study were not familiar with the relevance categories underlying the constructs of the RHMS.

3.4.2 Sample and procedure

Participants were 1459 students from 29 secondary schools located in nine out of the twelve provinces of the Netherlands (see Table 3.2). Dutch secondary education has three tracks: lower secondary pre-vocational education (VMBO, 4 years), middle level general secondary education (HAVO, 5 years) and pre-university secondary education (VWO, 6 years). The research sample included students in the middle level track (n = 852; 58%) and in the pre-university track (n = 607; 42%). Nationwide, out of the total number of students in these two tracks in 2016, 56% took middle level secondary and 44% pre-university secondary education (Statline/CBS, 2016). Participants' ages ranged from 12 to 18 years, the mean age being 15.32 (SD = 1.71); 49% were males and 51% females, percentages corresponding to the male/female ratio in these two tracks nationwide in 2016 (Statline/CBS, 2016).

Table 3.2 Size and structure of the sample: educational levels, age, gender and total numbers.

Age	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	Total
Middle level secondary education female	20	59	58	105	87	75	27	431
Middle level secondary education male	34	70	63	86	75	62	31	421
Pre-university secondary education female	16	30	36	51	55	88	37	313
Pre-university secondary education male	16	28	29	43	63	74	41	294
Total	86	187	186	285	280	299	136	1459

Administration of the questionnaires took place from February to November 2016. Hard copies were sent to the participating history teachers who administered the RHMS to their students during class. The items were listed randomly and the students completed the questionnaire anonymously in as much time as needed. On average, filling out the questionnaire took 25 min. The teachers returned the forms to the researchers.

For reasons of validation, the eight items of the SSES 'practical use' subscale were added to the questionnaire on top of the 32 RHMS items. Data collected by means of this subscale were used to calibrate the RHMS. Furthermore, for calibration purposes, students were asked to rate how frequently they talked about history outside class (one item with a four-point Likert scale varying from 'never' to 'often'). We assumed positive

correlations between the outcomes of the SSES 'practical use' subscale, the variable on talking about history outside class, and students' appraisals of the relevance of history.

3.4.3 Data analysis

Having ensured that the observations in the dataset were normally distributed, the interquartile range (IQR) was employed to identify outliers. Nine outliers were detected out of which seven were moderate (using the 2.2 multiplier) and two were extreme (using the 3.0 multiplier). Closer examination of the answering patterns of the moderate cases showed sufficient consistency and variability whereas those of the extreme ones did not. In the latter cases students consistently agreed or disagreed both on positively formulated items and their negatively formulated counterparts. The two outliers were removed from the dataset.

3.4.4 Construct validity

Several methods were employed to examine the construct validity of the RHMS-questionnaire. First, an expert panel consisting of teacher educators at the history department of the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences ($N = 13$) assigned the 32 items to the relevance objectives of our theoretical framework. These experts participated voluntarily and made the assignment individually and anonymously by means of an online survey. They read brief descriptions of each of the relevance objectives and then classified the items appearing on their screens in a random order. The degree of agreement was calculated with the Fleiss' Kappa coefficient.

Second, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was carried out after having determined that the 32 items met standard criteria for this type of analysis (Beavers et al., 2013). We started with EFA to provide the first empirical basis for detecting distinctive factors among 32 items which all were designed to measure the relevance of history (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). EFA was conducted using the principal axis factoring extraction and oblique rotation method (Oblimin). Primary factor loadings greater than 0.40 were considered salient for further analysis and items with non-salient loadings or substantial cross-loadings (> 0.30) were removed.

Third, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to examine whether the factor structure extracted by EFA would provide a good model fit. Using Mplus (Muthén

& Muthén, 2017), maximum likelihood with robust standard errors (MLR) was selected as the estimator and multiple fit indices were used to evaluate the appropriateness of model fit: the $\chi 2$ test, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR). For good model fit, the ratio of $\chi 2$ to the degrees of freedom (*df*) should be ≤ 3 (Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora, & Barlow, 2006). CFI and TLI values ≥ 0.90 are indicative for an acceptable fit and values ≥ 0.95 for a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). For SRMR and RMSEA, values < 0.05 indicate a close fit, values between 0.05 and 0.08 an adequate fit, and values ≥ 0.10 a poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1992).

3.4.5 Convergent validity

The outcomes of the SSES 'practical use' subscale were used to determine whether the RHMS in fact measured students' beliefs about the relevance of history and not their perceptions of school subjects or school experiences in general. The SSES 'practical use' subscale had been proven reliable (Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.82$) in two other surveys among large samples of Dutch secondary school students (Otten & Boekaerts, 1990; Wilschut, 2013). In both of these surveys, in which the SSES was employed to assess students' experiences with a number of school subjects, the subscale detected 'practical use' perceptions of history which differed significantly from those about other school subjects (history scoring lowest in terms of practical use compared to subjects like mathematics, economics, English and Dutch language). The SSES subscale had thus proven to represent not only a reliable, but also a discriminatory construct. Calculating correlations between scores on this scale and scores on the RHMS subscales made it possible to examine the convergent validity of the RHMS, assuming that positive correlations substantiated validity claims.

3.4.6 Known-groups validity

Finally, the validity of the instrument was investigated by testing one literature based hypothesis and a number of assumptions. We hypothesized that seventh grade students (12- and 13-year-olds) would find history less relevant than tenth grade students (15- and 16-year olds). One of the two aforementioned SSES based studies had shown that, although history scored lowest in terms of practical use in both seventh and tenth grade,

appraisals of history were significantly higher among tenth graders than among seventh graders (Wilschut, 2013). Assuming positive correlations between the SSES-scale and the RHMS-scales, similar effects could be expected in our present study.

Assumptions about differences between senior and junior secondary students were further grounded in research showing that students' abilities to think abstractly, to use metacognitive skills, and to reflect on themselves in terms of expectations and thoughts about their futures increase with age – albeit not linear by rule (Wigfield, Byrnes, & Eccles, 2012; Van der Stel & Veenman, 2014). With these insights in mind and taking into account increasing historical expertise and accumulation of domain-specific knowledge with the passing of grades, hypothesizing higher RHMS-scores for senior students seemed plausible.

In addition, a number of assumptions were tested to be able to assess the instrument's validity. First, we assumed that students' inclination to talk about history outside class would correlate positively with their appraisal of the relevance of history. Second, we supposed that students in the higher track of secondary education (pre-university) would consider history more relevant than those in the middle track (middle level secondary education). Third, we compared the scores of the 18-year-old secondary students from our sample (n = 136) with those of first-year university students being trained as history teachers (N = 84; 55 males, 29 females; mean age 19.86 years, SD = 2.36), assuming that the latter would consider history more relevant. Last, the RHMS was administered to first-year students in elementary school teacher education without specialization in a particular subject (N = 51; 18 males, 33 females; mean age 18.51 years, SD = 1.58), assuming that they would consider history less relevant than students being trained as secondary history teachers.

3.5 Results

3.5.1 Construct validity

Calculations on the outcomes of the validity test performed by the expert panel resulted in a Fleiss' Kappa (κ) of 0.80, which means there was 'good' agreement among the experts regarding the sorting of the 32 items into their corresponding relevance objectives (Fleiss, Levin, & Paik, 2003; Landis & Koch, 1977).

Conducting factor analyses on the RHMS data was appropriate, because all items correlated 0.30 or more with at least one other item and the anti-image correlation matrix diagonals were above 0.50. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.96, exceeding the recommended minimum value of 0.6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity showed a statistically significant chi-square value.

EFA extracted five factors with initial eigenvalues exceeding 1.0. A scree test suggested that no more than three factors should be distinguished. Examining the loading patterns, two of the three factors coincided with 'building a personal identity' and 'understanding the human condition' as described in our theoretical framework. The items designed for the two subscales of 'becoming a citizen', however, loaded on one single factor, which means that they could not be considered as measures of two separate underlying constructs. Extraction of three factors with principal axis factoring and oblique rotation resulted in eight invalid items due to either low primary factor loadings (< 0.4) or considerably high cross loadings (> 0.3). These items were eliminated. The factors accounted for 47% of the total variance (factor 1: 35%; factor 2: 7%; factor 3: 5%).

CFA indicated that the three-factor model provided an adequate fit for the data, $\chi 2(249) = 989.915$, $p < 0.001$; $\chi 2/df = 3.98$; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.90; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.04. However, the ratio between $\chi 2$ and df was greater than the cutoff value of 3. Modification indices suggested freeing error covariances between items 05 and 17 and between items 22 and 24. Allowing error covariances is justified if items use similar vocabulary of phrasing, which is the case with these two items pairs. A subsequent model freeing these paths was found to have a better fit to the constrained model, $\chi 2(247) = 874.965$, $p < 0.001$; $\chi 2/df = 3.54$; CFI = 0.93; TLI = 0.92; RMSEA = 0.04; SRMR = 0.04. This model seemed to apply equally well to different groups of our sample: males versus

females and middle level secondary education versus pre-university secondary education (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Goodness-of-fit indexes for the 3-Factor Confirmatory Model of the RHMS by 'educational level' and 'gender'.

	χ^2	*df*	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Middle level secondary education (n = 849)	629.792***	247	2.55	.91	.90	.04	.04
Pre-university secondary education (n = 606)	563.180***	247	2.28	.93	.93	.05	.04
Males (n = 712)	495.716***	244	2.03	94	93	.04	.04
Females (n = 743)	650.774***	247	2.63	92	91	.05	.05

*** $p < .001$

As displayed by Table 3.4, factor loadings of the items ranged acceptably from 0.44 to 0.76 and correlations between the factors were moderate in strength (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

In sum, the RHMS comprised three subscales with 24 items of which 12 were negatively and 12 positively formulated (see Appendix A). The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 3.5. Cronbach's α for the subscales were above 0.80, indicating robust internal consistency and proper reliability of each scale. The overall alpha value was 0.92, which is considered 'highly reliable' (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 506). The distribution of data was approximately symmetric for 'personal identity' and 'becoming a citizen', while for 'human condition' they were very moderately skewed.

Table 3.4 Standardized loadings for the 3-Factor Confirmatory Model of the RHMS (*N* = 1459). The numbering of the items is according to their order in the questionnaire.

Item	*IDE*	*CIT*	*HUM*
19 History helps me to get to know myself better	.76		
16 History affects the way I behave	.65		
06 History teaches me little about myself	.64		
21 History helps me to understand what is good or bad for me	.61		
24 History has no bearing on what happens to me in my life	.55		
22 History relates to what happens to me in my life	.53		
01 History has nothing to do with how I behave	.45		
13 History makes me understand the news better		.66	
10 History does not change my opinion		.66	
07 History is of little use if you want to understand the news		.65	
15 History makes me understand better what is happening in the world		.64	
20 History is of little use if I want to develop an opinion about something		.63	
14 History is of little use if I want to substantiate my opinions		.62	
23 I can't really use history to understand what is going on in the world		.62	
11 I find history useful because it often plays a role in conversations		.61	
08 History enables me to develop personal opinions about things		.59	
17 In history lessons we learn words that are not very useful		.50	
05 History teaches me words that I can also use in everyday life		.44	
12 Because of history I know the difference between facts and opinions		.42	
18 History enables you to imagine what will happen in the future			.73
02 History is of little use if you want to know what will happen in the future			.72
03 History does not help us to solve today's problems			.66
04 History enables us to imagine what the world might look like later on			.66
09 You can't use history to predict the future			.59
Correlations between factors			
IDE		.65**	
CIT			.62**
HUM	.50**		

Note: IDE = building a personal identity; CIT = becoming a citizen; HUM = understanding the human condition
** $p < .01$

Table 3.5 Descriptive statistics for the RHMS. Mean scores based on a 6-point-scale varying from totally disagree (1) to totally agree (6).

	Number of items	*N*	*M*	*SD*	α	Skewness	Kurtosis
Personal identity	7	1459	2.92	0.92	.80	0.15	-0.42
Becoming a citizen	12	1459	3.88	0.83	.86	-0.45	0.02
Human condition	5	1459	3.92	1.02	.80	-0.54	-0.09
Overall		1459	3.61	0.78	.92	-0.26	-0.14

3.5.2 Convergent validity

The eight SSES-items were aggregated into a subscale referring to the practical use of history. Reliability analysis showed good internal consistency for this scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.85$; $n = 1414$). The SSES-scale and the RHMS subscales were positively correlated (see Table 3.6). The correlations were significant and varied in strength from moderate (identity and human condition) to strong (citizen), supporting the convergent validity of the RHMS.

Table 3.6. Pearson's *r* correlations between the 'practical use' SSES-scale and the RHMS (*N*=1459).

	Practical use of history (SSES)
Personal identity (RHMS)	.62**
Becoming a citizen (RHMS)	.76**
Human condition (RHMS)	.56**
RHMS	.77**

** $p < .01$ (1-tailed)

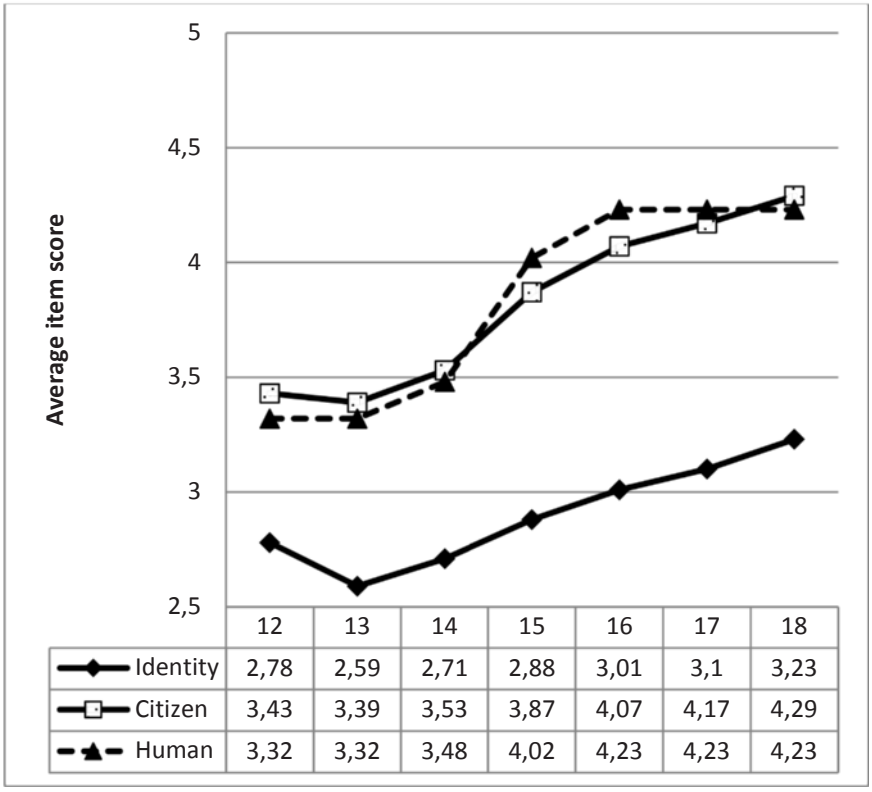
3.5.3 Known-groups validity

To test the hypothesis that grade 7 students (12- and 13-yearolds) would assess history less relevant than grade 10 students (15- and 16-year-olds), overall mean scores for these age groups were computed. The mean score for the 12- and 13-year-olds (taken together as one group, $n = 273$) was $M = 3.16$ ($SD = 0.78$); the mean score for the 15- and 16-year-olds (taken together as one group, $n = 565$) was $M = 3.70$ ($SD = 0.70$). The mean score difference appeared to be significant, $t(836) = -9.96$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.69$. Thus, in accordance with our hypothesis, the junior secondary students had lower appraisals of the relevance of history than the senior secondary students.

The measurement results for all age groups of our sample are shown in Fig. 3.1. History is appreciated as more relevant by students each successive year from the age of 14, resulting in the highest scores for the 18-year-olds in all three relevance domains; for 'human condition' this highest score is already reached at the age of 16 and is stable until

the age of 18. Substantial increases occur between the ages of 14 and 16 for 'human condition' and 'becoming a citizen'. The scores for 'personal identity' show a deviant pattern, with lower appraisals for all ages and a more gradual increase as students grow older.

Figure 3.1 Mean scores on the RHMS, measured by age (12-18). Scores based on a 6-point-scale varying from totally disagree (1) to totally agree (6).



	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Identity	2,78	2,59	2,71	2,88	3,01	3,1	3,23
Citizen	3,43	3,39	3,53	3,87	4,07	4,17	4,29
Human	3,32	3,32	3,48	4,02	4,23	4,23	4,23

The testing of our assumptions led to the following results. First, students' talking about history outside class was positively correlated with their appraisals of the relevance of history with regard to all three subscales: $r(1346) = 0.42$ (talking/human condition); $r(1346) = 0.48$ (talking/identity), $r(1346) = 0.58$ (talking/citizen). These correlations were moderate in strength and significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed) (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

Second, the overall mean scores for students of pre-university secondary education (n = 607) were M = 3.74 (SD = 0.79) and for students of the middle level secondary education (n = 852) M = 3.52 (SD = 0.75). The mean score difference was significant, $t(1248) = -5.24$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.30$. Levene's test indicated unequal variances ($F = 5.63$, p = 0.018), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 1459 to 1248. As predicted, students of the higher educational track considered history more relevant than students of the lower educational track.

Last, we compared the scores for first-year student-teachers for secondary school history in history teacher education with the scores for 12th grade secondary students (age 18) and first-year student-teachers for elementary school respectively (see Tables 3.7 and 3.8). Consistent with our assumptions, the history student-teachers found history in all three relevance domains significantly more relevant than students from both other groups.

Table 3.7 T-test results comparing RHMS scores for 1st year student-teachers for secondary school history and 12th grade secondary students (age 18).

	1st year student-teachers for secondary school history			12th grade secondary students (age 18)					
	M	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*t*	*df*	*Cohen's d*
Personal identity	4.13	0.79	84	3.23	0.88	136	-7.11**	218	0.96
Becoming a citizen	4.76	0.48	84	4.29	0.64	136	-6.21**	209	0.86
Human condition	4.60	0.79	84	4.23	0.81	136	-3.33**	218	0.45
Overall (RHMS)	4.55	0.49	84	3.99	0.65	136	-7.31**	208	1.10

Note: Equal variances not assumed for Becoming a citizen and Overall (RHMS).
** $p < .01$

Table 3.8 T-test results comparing RHMS scores for 1st year student-teachers for secondary school history 1st year student-teachers for elementary education.

	1st year student-teachers for secondary school history			1st year student-teachers for elementary education					
	M	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*t*	*df*	*Cohen's d*
Personal identity	4.13	0.79	84	3.53	0.83	51	4.21**	133	0.73
Becoming a citizen	4.76	0.48	84	4.10	0.71	51	5.89**	78	1.33
Human condition	4.60	0.79	84	4.13	0.84	51	3.27**	133	0.57
Overall (RHMS)	4.55	0.49	84	3.94	0.68	51	5.54**	81	1.23

Note: Equal variances not assumed for Becoming a citizen and Overall (RHMS).
** $p < .01$

3.6 Conclusion and discussion

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the validity and the reliability of the Relevance of History Measurement Scale. We developed the RHMS to measure students' beliefs about the relevance of history for building a personal identity, for becoming a citizen and for understanding the human condition. Factor analyses resulted into three reliable subscales corresponding with these aspects of relevance. The subscales correlated positively with measurements performed with the valid SSES 'practical use' subscale, which supports convergent validity. Compliant with other studies, there were significant differences between junior and senior secondary students; the main progress in students' relevance appraisals took place between the ages of 14 and 16. Students' talking about history outside class correlated positively with their relevance perceptions. The known-groups validity of the instrument was further demonstrated by the mean scores of first-year students in history teacher education, which were – according to expectation – the highest of all.

In interpreting the results of this study, two considerations on the outcomes of the factor analyses deserve attention. First, one can argue about removing or maintaining

items with moderate primary loadings (0.40–0.45) or some degree of cross loading (0.25–0.30). We kept these items for two reasons: (1) large samples (as in this study) guarantee stable factor solutions, even with the aforementioned loading sizes (Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Guadagnoli & Velicer,1988), and (2) because each subscale of our instrument measures relevance of history in one way or another, cross loadings of items are acceptable to a certain degree. Second, seeking the optimal factor structure of the instrument, subject-specific considerations were important next to inferences based on factor loading figures. For example, because data analyses did not reveal two separate factors for two aspects of 'becoming a citizen' (i.e. 'explaining the present' and 'opinion forming'), it was worth considering leaving one of these aspects out of the instrument. Dropping the items of 'opinion forming' would have refined and bolstered the factor structure in general (with the remaining items explaining 50% of the total variance). Yet we decided to keep them for the sake of the content of this construct: dealing with facts and opinions is an important aspect of meaningful history teaching in terms of enhancing citizenship and part of a broader set of historical thinking skills which are widely regarded as important learning objectives of history teaching (Ercikan & Seixas, 2015; Lévesque, 2008; Seixas & Morton, 2013; Thornton & Barton, 2010; Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2008).

Some limitations of this study should be borne in mind. Because the RHMS was developed in the Netherlands, it is unclear how students from other countries will respond to this questionnaire. It seems unlikely, however, that the instrument would be unsuitable in other Western countries with a similar educational system and pedagogical culture, taking into account the similarities in students' attitudes towards history as revealed by comparative international surveys (Angvik & Von Borries, 1997; Grever, Pelzer, & Haydn, 2011). Furthermore, it should be noted that the RHMS refers to three ways in which history may be relevant to students, not encompassing all thinkable areas of relevance. Data analysis revealed three strands of relevance, but taking into account substantial correlations between the subscales and one dominant factor in explaining the total variance, further research is needed to extend current conceptualization and validation of the constructs. As a result of this study, items were removed which in some cases limited the initial scope of the constructs. For example, it has proven difficult to translate coping with enduring human issues (an aspect of 'human condition') into

psychometrically sound questionnaire items. Nevertheless, the items included in the RHMS may well be indicative of general beliefs about the relevance of history among students.

The findings of this study address a number of issues that are worth pursuing. Students' inclination to dissociate the relevance of history from their own identity in terms of personal beliefs and standards seems at odds with the popular notion that adolescents are in an identity crisis and busy discovering who they really are and how they fit in the social environments they are part of. However, exploring psychological characteristics of the self in the process of identity building occurs late in adolescence and sometimes not even until young adulthood (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). This might explain why, as this study has revealed, senior secondary students consider history more important in view of their own identity than junior secondary students. This is in line with the outcomes of an empirical study conducted by Andrews, McGlynn and Mycock (2009) among English undergraduates, which demonstrated strong correlations between students' self-identity and their attitudes towards history.

Our finding that young students have lower relevance appraisals than their senior peers (in particular regarding identity building) corresponds to the data of other studies (Haeberli, 2005; Haydn & Harris, 2010, VanSledright, 1997). Students' epistemological beliefs about historical knowledge may provide an explanation here. Research shows that young students tend to think that one cannot know what happened in the past because 'we were not there' (Lee, 2005). For them the past is fixed, a closed entity of dates and facts that is 'given' – not the outcome of inquiry resulting in narratives that meet present-bound questions, personal needs and interests (Lee, 2005; Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004; Stoel et al., 2017). The premise here would be that young students' epistemological ideas about the past as a world 'out there' may refrain them from thinking about the benefits and purposes of history and affect their relevance perceptions. This needs further research, but it seems plausible that sophisticated epistemic stances are conducive to the ability to bridge the gap between past, present and future and stimulate reflections on the practical implications and uses of studying the past. If this is the case, it would argue for reinforcing the teaching of disciplinary concepts and epistemological issues in the lower grades of secondary history education.

The RHMS allows to investigate correlations between relevance of history perceptions and variables that influence students' learning performances in general. For example, it is well-known that value awareness of school subjects is a strong impetus for students' engagement and motivation (Brophy, 1999; Eccles, 2004; Martin, 2003; Pintrich, 2003). The RHMS may also be used to assess goals of meaningful history teaching and effects of lesson interventions in this field, assuming that increases in students' relevance perceptions are indicators of successful attainment. Finally, the RHMS can be a tool for closely examining students' attitudes and feelings towards history and to grasp the state of mind in which they attend history class. The availability of a reliable and valid instrument to measure students' beliefs about the relevance of history may thus contribute to the practice of a much needed kind of history teaching focusing on enhancing relevance by connecting the past to the present and the future.

Chapter 4

EXPLORING PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES FOR CONNECTING THE PAST, THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE IN HISTORY TEACHING[3]

Using the past to orientate on the present and the future can be seen as one of history's main contributions to educating future citizens of democratic societies. Because tools for pursuing this goal are scarce, this study explores three pedagogical approaches that may help teachers and students to make connections between the past, the present and the future: working with longitudinal lines, with enduring human issues and with historical analogies. The efficacy of these approaches was examined in three case studies conducted in two Dutch secondary schools with eighth- to tenth-grade students ($N = 135$) and their teachers ($N = 4$) as participants. Explorations took place within the boundaries of the existing history curriculum and in close collaboration with the teachers who participated because they felt a need to motivate their students by means of a pedagogy to make history more useful. Findings suggest that working with longitudinal lines and enduring human issues in a traditional history curriculum with chronologically ordered topics is more complicated than working with historical analogies. The historical analogy approach appears to have most potential to encourage students to use the past to reflect on present-day affairs. In terms of students' appraisals of the relevance of history, the application of the enduring human issue approach showed positive effects.

4.1 Introduction

In standards for history teaching, connecting the past to the present and the future is frequently being regarded as a means to prepare students for their future role as citizens in society (ACARA, 2018; DFE, 2013; NCHS, 1996; Seixas & Morton, 2013; VGD, 2006; Wilschut, 2015). This rationale for school history is usually translated in broadly defined goals in preambles of curriculum documents, without further elaborations of the kinds of relationships between the past, present and future that may be supportive for students' inclusion as citizens in society. Content descriptions in these documents focus

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almost entirely on understanding the past and mastering historical thinking skills as aims in themselves. Standards specify which historical knowledge students should learn without exemplifying possible relationships with meaningful contemporary contexts. The compilers of curriculum documents apparently assume that learning about the past yields insights into the present and future as a matter of course, taking knowledge transfer beyond subject-specific contexts for granted without any explicit learning activities directed at achieving this aim.

Such expectations may not be justified. In the wake of philosophical studies about historical consciousness and the temporal dimension of the human condition, an increasing body of empirically based knowledge is available about ways in which students (and people in general) use the past to orient on the present and the future. For example, a survey conducted by Rosenzweig (2000) showed that although the past had a strong influence on the way people think, very few people derived meaning from history taught at school. Findings from the project Usable Historical Pasts, conducted by Foster, Ashby and Lee (2008), revealed that only a small number of students referred to history while reflecting on contemporary issues. In Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands, a large proportion of 14-year-olds in the 1990's thought that history is 'dead and gone and has nothing to do with my present life' (Angvik & Von Borries, 1997, p. B26). Studies in England and North America suggest that students have limited views on the purposes and benefits of history and have difficulty to articulate why studying the past matters (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Biddulph & Adey, 2003; Harris & Reynolds, 2014; Haydn & Harris, 2010; Zhao & Hoge, 2005). In short, there are ample reasons for actively linking the past to the present and the future to enable students to construct narratives that make sense to them. 'Usable historical pasts' may enhance student motivation as well, as recognising the utility of classroom tasks in terms of applicability in 'real life' is what encourages students to learn and what they deem important in valuing the usefulness of school subjects (Brophy,1999; Pintrich, 2003).

Given the fact that students are not inclined to attribute meaning to history of their own accord and therefore need guidance, the question arises how teachers may help them pursuing this goal. In earlier work, we have distinguished three pedagogical approaches for making connections between the past, present and future (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016). In this study, we explore the efficacy of these approaches in a traditional

history curriculum with chronologically ordered topics and a strong focus on memorising historical data. Our aim is to find out whether the approaches can be applied effectively in existing educational settings or whether major curriculum revisions are required. We use three indicators to examine this issue: (1) the extent to which students apply historical content knowledge while reasoning about current affairs; (2) teacher's experiences with the approaches in view of student learning and meeting curriculum demands; and (3) students' beliefs and attitudes vis-à-vis the relevance of history.

4.2 Obstacles to connecting the past, present and future

Several factors may explain why students are not inclined to link the past to the present and the future. First, a lack of readily available knowledge probably plays an important role. Discerning long-term historical developments that have shaped the present, for example, puts high demands on the amount of historical knowledge that students have at their disposal. In their Usable Historical Pasts project, Foster, Ashby and Lee (2008) asked students in Year 10 and 11 to consider the question whether the USA would always be the most powerful country. Only a small number of students made references to the past while answering the question, most of whom appeared frustrated by their lack of substantive knowledge. Students also offered vague or incomplete responses when asked to write the story of British history in the last 2000 years. One student commented: 'I can't do this. My knowledge does not stretch out as far as 2000 years' (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008, p. 6).

Second, linking the past to the present and future requires thinking in long-term patterns of continuity and change and the ability to generalize, for example by comparing what people in the past and people in the present have in common. There is abundant evidence showing that students' epistemological beliefs about the past may present an obstacle for this kind of mental operations (e.g. Barton, 2008; Blow, 2009; Lee, 2005; Maggioni, Alexander & VanSledright, 2004; Sandahl, 2015; Shemilt, 2009; Stoel, Logtenberg, Wansink, Huijgen, Van Boxtel, & Van Drie 2017). For example, students perceive images of the past as 'fixed', as a closed entity of given dates and facts about a world 'out there' that bears little relation with the 'real' world; it seems difficult for them to grasp the notion that history is the product of constructing narratives that serve contemporary needs and interests. Their historical thinking is hallmarked by events

following each other in a causal chain without alternatives, not by the interplay of change and continuity. They look for historical explanations in people's actions, not in conditions, developments or changes.

Third, many history curricula are based upon chronologically ordered topics which are usually separately taught, leaving little room for teaching developmental lines from the past to the present or comparative, generalizing learning activities that may help students to attribute meaning to the past (Carroll, 2016). Blow (2009), among others, propagates a radical reshaping of existing history curricula aiming at teaching large spans of time ('big pictures') rather than single topics offering a mass of details which are inapplicable in multiple contexts and impede students' ability to generalise. Useful tools in teaching 'big pictures' are, according to Blow (2009) and Lee (2005), a well-developed vocabulary of second order concepts (e.g. change, continuity, cause and effect) and the deployment of historical analogies as a means to empower abstract thinking (Blow, 2009; Lee, 2005).

4.3 Pedagogical approaches for connecting the past, present and future

Based on the problem analysis described above and on research literature in the field of history education, we have identified three pedagogical approaches that may help students and teachers to use the past to orientate on the present and the future (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016):

- Teaching with *enduring human issues* that have been addressed by people in past and present times either in similar or different manners, such as social inequality or issues of crime and punishment.
- Teaching with *longitudinal lines* describing long-term political, socio-economical or cultural developments, for example, the emergence of national states or the process of secularization and scientification leading to the 'disenchantment of the world' (MacKinnon, 2001).
- Teaching with *historical analogies* between the past and the present, for example, in the context of European unification, an analogy between the Roman Empire and the European Union.

These approaches are not new, however, empirical data about their efficacy is scarce, which was one of the incentives to undertake this study. We will discuss the three approaches in a summary manner.

4.3.1 Enduring human issues

History is about mankind in other times: very different from today, but also similar because people have always shared fundamental aspects of being human. Dressel (1996) distinguishes eleven basic human experiences: space and time, religion, family, food, dealing with nature, the human body, sexuality, labor, conflicts, gender and encounters with strangers. Such issues are common to all human beings, but the way in which people have dealt with them differs from time to time. Studying contrasting examples of dealing with the same enduring issue may expand students' frames of reference.

There have been several proposals for designing a curriculum based on enduring human issues. For example, Hunt (2000) put forward a curriculum based on 'ageless social, moral and cultural issues' (p. 39) to be studied with key concepts and key questions, such as why people obey laws or why governments levy taxes. Barton and Levstik (2011) suggest that history education may become meaningful if students are confronted with 'enduring themes and questions' (p. 3), such as the interaction between man and his environment, or the development of cultures and societies. Obenchain, Orr, and Davis (2011) developed teaching about 'essential questions' in cooperation with teachers – for example: the question of the grounds on which freedom may be curtailed. In similar projects, teachers and researchers have designed curricula based on 'big ideas' (Grant & Gradwell, 2010) or 'persistent issues' (Brush & Saye, 2014). In English history teaching it has become increasingly common to build lesson units around 'enquiry questions' that can promote the study of problems instead of periods (Carroll, 2016). What all these examples have in common is the use of the past in reflections on enduring human issues.

4.3.2 Longitudinal lines

Longitudinal lines should not be confused with historical overview knowledge without any explicit organizing principle or specific question to the past. Overview knowledge without an explicit narrative structure probably does not serve the purpose of making

connections between past, present and future. Shemilt (2009) proposes synoptically described, millennia-wide lines of change under themes such as modes of production, or political and social organization. Lee and Howson (2009) also argue for diachronic narratives about certain themes or topics. They assume that by using these kinds of frameworks, students will not only be able to extrapolate long lines of developments into the future, but also reflect upon their own future role as (e.g.) an office employee compared to a stone age hunter, a medieval farmer, a 16th-century craftsman or a 19th-century factory worker.

So far there have been only a few empirical studies focusing on the practical applicability of the framework-approaches suggested by Shemilt, Lee and Howson (e.g. Carroll, 2016; Nuttall, 2013; Rogers, 2008). Nuttall (2013), for example, presented a comprehensive chart of 20th-century history to 14- and 15-year-old students, structured by six periods on one axis (e.g. 1919–1938, 1946–1989) and three main questions on the other axis: What is the big story of the 20th century? What is the story of the empires? Who is the most powerful? In the resulting cross table, students could compare the six periods from three guiding viewpoints, thus creating longer lines in 20th-century history. Although Nuttall's study was small-scale and explorative, students seemingly were triggered to switch from past to present, as became apparent in their spontaneous conversations on issues like the emergence of China or civil wars in Africa. Because they saw the 'whole picture' and perceived different lines connecting the past and the present, they were put in the position to understand that the present could have been different if developments in the past had taken a different course.

While Nuttall's experiment only encompassed the history of the 20th-century, Carroll (2016) designed a lesson unit focusing on the topic of slavery from the beginnings of humanity to the present. Students first took notice of the 'whole story' of slavery and then studied the Haitian Revolution in depth driven by the question whether this revolution should be remembered of forgotten. This procedure, combining a millennia-wide framework with attributing significance to a specific historical event, allowed investigations on how students tend to use a pre-taught framework. It appeared that students were able to construct coherent long-termed narratives of slavery, although some were distracted by specific topics and details. Relying on their overview knowledge, students considered the Haitian Revolution significant because in the 5000-

year history of slavery, it was one of the unique occasions in which a slave rebellion succeeded. Furthermore, they drew lines from the Haitian Revolution to later historical episodes and their own life, for example by stating that the revolution had paved the way for the 18th century abolitionist movement or for present-day human rights which they deemed to be of great value.

4.3.3 Historical analogies

Analogic thinking can be described as the ability to identify similar features and connections between them across cases or examples (Gentner, 2010). Analogic thinking has proven to be a powerful learning tool and an effective way to facilitate transfer of knowledge to novel situations (Alfieri, Nokes-Malach, & Schunn, 2013); it may therefore be a useful teaching strategy for making connections between the past, the present and the future.

If analogies are drawn between something comparatively known and something comparatively unknown, the first is called 'source' or 'base' and the second 'target' (Holyoak & Taggart, 1997). Three types of analogies are usually applied in history classes: (1) something mundane from the present as base and a historical phenomenon as target, for example, a marriage of interests and the Concordat between Mussolini and the Pope (Laffin & Wilson, 2005); (2) historical events that show similarities, such as the failed attempts of Charles XII of Sweden, Napoleon and Hitler to conquer Russia (Mugleston, 2000); and (3) something from the past as base and something from the present as target, for example, Japanese kamikaze pilots during World War II and the terrorists who committed the attack on New York in 2001 (Robbins, 2004). The limited number of studies available suggests that teachers prefer using the first two of these types (Ata, 2009; Myson, 2006). The third type seems to be less common than the other two types, probably because it is more complicated.

If using the past to orientate on the present and future is what history education should pursue, making analogies of the first two types may be useful if they reveal general features of phenomena. For example, Boix-Mansilla (2000) made students compare the history of the Holocaust with the history of the genocide in Rwanda in 1994. This comparison induced students to think about human nature and the circumstances in which atrocities like these can occur. In their zeal to find an explanation for the genocide

in Rwanda, many students disregarded the differences between the two genocides. Therefore, it should be pointed out that in making analogies not only the similarities may be illuminating, but also the differences. Taking differences into account may prevent students from generalizing in a simplistic way.

Although the three pedagogical approaches are presented as three separate categories, they have something in common because all three focus on the use of historical knowledge in present-day contexts and all embody some element of comparison. Yet there are good reasons to keep them apart. Longitudinal lines concentrate on processes of change and development which are extrapolated into the present and the future, enabling students to orient in time. Enduring human issues and historical analogies aim for similarities and differences between past and present phenomena, not so much for patterns of change and development. Enduring human issues entail developing moral opinions, whereas historical analogies foster the understanding of phenomena.

4.4 Study design and research questions

Implementing the three pedagogical approaches may require profound curriculum revisions. For example, drawing longitudinal lines calls for a diachronically ordered curriculum rather than a curriculum of separate chronologically ordered topics. Enduring human issues may require the use of generic concepts instead of learning factual knowledge specifically confined to topical contexts. For this study, however, we decided not to reshape the curriculum for the sake of research purposes only. We wanted to stay close to daily teaching practices and took the extant Dutch history curriculum as a starting point. Teachers have to operate within the limits of this curriculum and will be interested in research results applicable to existing educational settings. We applied a design research approach (McKenney & Reeves, 2012) implying that lesson interventions were constructed in close collaboration with teachers. To be able to reach a maximum of ecologically realistic exploration, the interventions were conducted within the boundaries of existing lesson programs with a minimum of changes and adapted to specific classroom settings after extensive consultations with the teachers. This practice-orientated approach in which researchers and teachers collaborate in authentic school

settings may contribute to narrowing the gap between educational research and practice (Broekkamp & Van Hout-Wolters, 2007).

Table 4.1 specifies the assignment of the pedagogical approaches to the student groups. Because the groups varied in grade and were taught different topics, explorations of the approaches took place in different classroom settings. Therefore, contextual conditions being relevant, the explorations are to be understood as case studies. Analysing data across settings was not possible in the way it would have been in a multiple case study because of the difference in classroom settings (Yin, 2014). Taking this into account, we formulated research questions that were identical for all three case studies:

1. To what extent do students apply knowledge about the past in their orientation on current affairs?
2. How do teachers experience applying the approach in their daily teaching practice, i.e., within a traditional history curriculum organized around chronologically ordered topics and focusing primarily on memorising historical data?
3. Does application of the approach affects students' appraisals of the relevance of history?

These questions serve the main purpose of this study, which is to explore whether employing the three pedagogical approaches within the boundaries of existing programs is feasible without major curriculum revisions. They can be seen as indicators of effectiveness. If students hardly refer to historical knowledge while contemplating present-day issues or if teachers notice serious implementation problems, for example, we assume limited effects and take major curriculum adaptations into consideration. The third question seems to be less imperative in this respect. 'Relevance' is conceived here as recognising what history has to do with oneself, with today's society and with a general understanding of human existence (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016). Based on educational philosophical and constructive learning theories on meaningful learning elaborated in earlier work, we assume that through connecting the past to the present and the future, students might see the relevance of history more clearly (Van

Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016). In other words, students' appraisals of the relevance of history are indicative for the effectiveness of the applied approaches.

Table 4.1 Three case studies on pedagogical approaches for connecting the past, present and future.

Case	Description	Participants	Context
1 Teaching with enduring human issues	Study and evaluate issues common to all humans by means of various historical examples from different periods (e.g. about paying taxes, crime and punishment, resolving conflicts).	School A Ninth-graders (N = 56; two groups) One teacher	In the context of history lessons about the Cold War: focusing on the extent to which imposing value systems with a universal validity claim can be justified.
2 Teaching with longitudinal lines	Describing long-term political, socio-economical or cultural developments (e.g. the emergence of national states).	School B Tenth-graders (N = 20, one group) One teacher	Studying four aspects of the emergence of citizenship in western societies from ancient to modern times: subjects who obey; citizens who govern; civil rights and freedoms; civic duties.
3 Teaching with historical analogies	Comparing historical situations or developments from different periods or the present to study differences and similarities.	School B Eighth-graders (N = 59; two groups) Two teachers	Using knowledge of the First and Second World War to assess whether the war between the so-called Islamic State (IS) and the anti-IS-coalition can be called a world war.

4.5 Method

4.5.1 Educational context

The case studies were conducted in three tracks of Dutch secondary education: lower secondary pre-vocational education (VMBO), middle level general secondary education (HAVO) and pre-university secondary education (VWO). Pivotal to the Dutch history curriculum in these tracks is a frame of reference knowledge organized around ten eras, beginning with the 'era of hunters and farmers' and ending with the 'era of television and computer' (Wilschut, 2009, 2015). Each era has its characteristic features, such as

'the Christianization of Europe' for the era of monks and knights (early Middle Ages), or 'the industrial revolution' for the era of citizens and steam engines (19th century). This frame of reference knowledge is designed to enable students to orientate in time and space (i.e. to contextualize historical data). Aspects of historical thinking, such as causation, empathy and change, are also part of the curriculum.

In daily teaching practice, the eras and their features are usually taught separately without drawing longitudinal lines, historical analogies or discussing enduring human issues. Teachers rely on history textbooks which give factual descriptions of the eras and their characteristics. History tests usually question factual mastery of the reference knowledge frame which is a requirement in the central examination that finalizes history in secondary education. This implies that in Dutch history teaching, emphasis lies on memorization and recall of historical facts and on understanding the past as an aim in itself. In the context of this study it is also important to note that 'the use of history'– a substantive component of the Swedish and Norwegian curriculum (Nordgren, 2016) – does not appear in the Dutch curriculum. Given these educational conditions, this study's pedagogical approaches for connecting past, present and future were innovative practices for both students and teachers.

4.5.2 Participants and settings

Because the interventions consisted of additions to the regular curriculum, we only describe the alterations that were made in the context of this research. Students used their history textbooks in all three case studies. Additional lesson materials were written by the first author, who also formulated the statements students had to comment on in order to measure the extent to which they used historical knowledge (RQ1). All statements are presented in Appendix B.

Case study 1 was conducted in two student groups from a secondary school located in a mid-sized city in the eastern part of the Netherlands. The participants were 56 ninth-graders from middle level and pre-university education (18 males, 38 females; mean age 14.20 years, *SD* = .45). In this group we explored the enduring human issues approach. In accordance with the era framework, students studied the history of the Cold War (with standard topics such as the Truman Doctrine, the Korean War and the nuclear arms race) in eight textbook lessons of 50 minutes each. To this standard programme we added

teaching instructions, texts and tasks about an enduring human issue related to the Cold War (i.e. the extent to which imposing by the authorities of value systems with a universal validity claim can be justified). After all, the Cold War can be seen in terms of a clash between two inherently expansionistic value systems (Gaddis, 2005). The issue of imposing value systems has played a role throughout history and has lost none of its significance, which makes it an enduring human issue.

In the first six regular lessons about the Cold War subject matter related to the enduring issue was highlighted, for example, Truman's motives to announce his 'doctrine', McCarthy's to prosecute communists or Ulbricht's to fence East Germany. Prior to these lessons, the issue was introduced to the students with a brief text (specifically written for this purpose) about covert CIA-operations during the so-called War on Terror. After reading this text, students were instructed to execute a writing task that consisted of commenting on statements related to the enduring issue. After completing the lessons, they had to reconsider their initial comments. To see whether they would use historical knowledge spontaneously, students were not prompted to refer to content knowledge. The remaining two lessons addressed the rise of communist China and the collapse of the Soviet Union. After completing these lessons, students had to consider the viability of communism in China. They had to write a comment of approximately 250 words on the statement that 10 years from now China would no longer be a communist state. In preparation for this writing task, they read a text about current socio-economic and political affairs in China. The students were explicitly instructed to refer to historical content knowledge to see if that would make any difference.

Case study 2 was conducted in a secondary school located in a suburbanized area in the western part of the Netherlands. In this study, we examined the application of the longitudinal lines approach in a group of tenth-grade students from the middle level track (N = 20; 7 males, 13 females; mean age 15.85 years, SD = .81). These students had completed the reference knowledge frame (from 'hunters and farmers' to 'television and computer'), so working with longitudinal lines enabled them to review overview knowledge. In 12 lessons of 50 minutes each, they focused on four aspects of the development of citizenship in Western history (Isin & Turner, 2002): subjects who obey; citizens who govern; civil rights and freedoms; and civic duties. For example, 'citizens who govern' addressed the development of ideas about self-government from ancient

Greece to Western Europe in the 18th and 19th century. 'Subjects who obey' discussed the subjection of people and nations to higher authorities, for example, in Mesopotamian city states, in France during the reign of Louis XIV or in Germany during Nazi rule. For each of the four aspects, the focus was on long-term developments and patterns of change and continuity in history. These developments were described for the purpose of this study in order to enable the teacher to support her lecturing. Students were given worksheets with chronologically ordered writing spaces (one worksheet for each aspect of citizenship). During the teacher's lectures, the worksheets enabled students to arrange their notes in such a way that it became possible for them to identify long-term developments of citizenship. The students used the regular textbook as a reference work, for example, to retrieve historical knowledge needed to understand the lectures. They were given the task to write comments on general issues related to the four aspects of citizenship. They were explicitly instructed to refer to historical content knowledge.

Case study 3 was carried out in the same school as the one for case study 2 but with different teachers and different students. In this study the historical analogy approach was explored in two groups of eighth-grade students from the lower pre-vocational track (N = 59; 32 males, 27 females; mean age 13.57 years, SD = .68). These students studied the First and Second World War in regular history classes (eight lessons of 50 minutes each). Under supervision of their teachers, they drew several analogies between the World Wars and present-day phenomena. Our data consist of analogies made by students between the World Wars and the war of the US-led coalition forces against the so-called Islamic State (IS) which began in 2014. Students had to decide if the war against IS can be considered a world war and if knowledge of the military ending of the Second World War can be useful for contemplating how the war against IS might end. In addition to their textbooks, they read a text (specially written for this study) about the contemporary situation of the Middle East conflict.

4.5.3 Data collection and analysis

We used mixed methods combining quantitative data collected by means of closed format questionnaires and qualitative data collected from writing tasks and semi-structured and open-ended interviews (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Research questions (for all three case studies) and measures.

Research questions	Measures
1 To what extent do students apply knowledge about the past in their orientation on current affairs?	Writing tasks Semi-structured interviews
2 How do teachers experience applying the approach in their daily teaching practice, i.e., within a traditional history curriculum organized around chronological ordered topics and focusing primarily on memorising historical data?	Closed format questionnaire Open-ended interviews
3 Does application of the approach affects students' appraisals of the relevance of history?	Closed format questionnaire

RQ 1 | In all three case studies, writing tasks were used to measure the extent to which students employed historical content knowledge while orienting themselves to current affairs. Students commented on statements related to the topics of these studies (see Appendix B). The writing tasks of case studies 1 and 2 were used in a pre-test/post-test design. For each session, completion took approximately 20 minutes and was guided by the teacher. In the post-test, the teacher returned the pre-test writings to the students and asked them whether they wanted to make any changes to their initial comments. Both students who made changes and students who stuck to their comments had to explain their choices. These explanations were analysed by counting the number of students who referred to content knowledge. The same method was applied in case study 3 in which the writing task was used in a post-test setting only. For determining whether or not students referred to historical knowledge, we looked for explicit wordings of content knowledge. For example, in case study 1 only comments which contained substantive concepts pertaining to the history of the Cold War were counted as historical knowledge references. Thus, the comment 'You have to do it without violence otherwise you will get a Cold War again' on the statement whether countries have the right to defend their

own way of life was considered as a reference whereas 'Everyone is entitled to their own way of living and thinking' was not.

A coding scheme was used to analyse the writing task about the viability of communism in China (see Table 4.3). Two main categories ('historical knowledge' and 'generic knowledge') were divided into subcategories arising from the contents of the writings, which enabled us to analyse student reasoning in more detail. Two raters, being the first two authors, coded a randomly selected set of 12 writing tasks. With Cohen's Kappa varying from .56 to 1, interrater reliability was between moderate and very strong (Landis & Koch, 1977). Agreement was reached by deliberation in cases where the assignments of the raters did not correspond.

Finally, 14 randomly selected students participating in case study 1 were interviewed. They were asked to explain why they had or had not referred to the Cold War in their comments. The students were interviewed in groups (three groups of four and one group of two) to make them feel at ease and to encourage engagement and stimulate a richer response (Frechtling & Sharp, 1997). Each interview took approximately 20 minutes. The interviews were recorded, transcribed verbatim and analysed bearing the key question in mind.

RQ 2 | A closed format questionnaire was used to find out what motivated the teachers to join the research project and whether they thought participation was useful in view of their daily teaching practice (Appendix C). The questionnaire was implemented anonymously by means of an online survey tool. All teachers responded. The teachers who participated in case studies 2 and 3 were interviewed. The teacher involved in case study 1 reported in writing on her findings with the lesson intervention. The teacher interviewees were asked to respond to the research findings that were presented to them. We assumed that by explaining these findings, they would be triggered to talk frankly about students' performances and motivation during the intervention lessons. The second part of the interviews addressed teachers' experiences with the pedagogical approaches. The guiding question was whether they thought implementing these approaches in the regular curriculum was desirable and feasible. Each interview lasted 50 minutes. The interviews were recorded and transcripts were analysed, keeping in mind the above-mentioned topics.

Table 4.3 Coding scheme for analysing writing tasks about the viability of communism in China (statement: I think that within 10 years China will no longer be communist); Cohen's Kappa's in the left column (κ).

HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE		
Code	Code description	Student example
Communism and capitalism $\kappa = .56$	Arguments based on features of communist and capitalist systems in theory and practice (e.g. free market economy versus state controlled economy; democracy versus party state).	(Agree) 'Communism wants a classless society, but in China, differences between rich and poor are very large. (…) The rich of China are not happy with communism. They must give up their money and possessions for the realisation of that classless society.' (V22)
Cold War: international relationships $\kappa = 1$	Arguments based on events, phenomena, developments or persons that are related to conflicts between East and West (e.g. containment policy; Korean War; arms race; Vietnam War).	(Agree) 'In 1947, US Secretary of State Marshall came up with the idea to lend money to Europe. In this way he persuaded many communists to switch to capitalism (…). Now if the US trades a lot with China, probably many communists change their minds to capitalism.' (H21)
Soviet Union $\kappa = .56$	Arguments based on events, phenomena, developments or persons in the domestic history of the Soviet Union (e.g. Bolshevik revolution 1917; Stalin; communism under Gorbachev).	(Agree) '[Gorbachev] did not intend to abolish communism, but to reform it. However, people in the Soviet Union were fed up with communism. They got an inch (reforms), but took an ell (abolishing communism).. I see the same thing happening in China.' (V5)
China $\kappa = .83$	Arguments based on events, phenomena, developments or persons in the domestic history of China (e.g. revolution of 1949; Mao; Deng Xiaoping; student protest in 1989).	(Disagree) 'All protests will be beaten down, think of the demonstration in 1989 in Beijing, where hundreds of protesters were shot and put in prison.' (V17)
GENERIC KNOWLEDGE		
Code	Code description	Student example
Chinese population $\kappa = .75$	Arguments based on the needs and wants of the Chinese people (e.g. longing for change as a result of lesser economic growth, environmental pollution or oppression).	(Agree) 'Chinese civilians want total freedom. Already, the one-child-policy is abolished, so they are in the midst of getting more freedom.' (V19)
Foreign pressure $\kappa = .75$	Arguments based on pressure on the Chinese regime exerted by foreign countries (e.g. criticizing the Chinese government for violating human rights).	(Agree) 'Other countries will push China to become capitalist, so they can trade without government interference.' (H7)

RQ 3 | The Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS, see Appendix A) was used to examine possible effects of the lesson interventions on students' appraisals of the relevance of history (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018). The RHMS is a 24-item questionnaire measuring history relevance perceptions in view of (1) building a personal identity (e.g. developing own values, opinions and ideals), (2) becoming a citizen (e.g. understanding current social and political affairs) and (3) understanding the human condition (e.g. becoming aware of the temporal dimension of human existence and one's own historicity). Item examples in the order of these strands of relevance are: 'History helps me to get to know myself better'; 'History is of little use if you want to understand the news'; 'History enables you to imagine what will happen in the future'. The 24 items are to be assessed on a six-point Likert Scale varying from 'completely disagree' to 'completely agree'. The RHMS has been validated in a large-scale study involving 1459 Dutch students (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018).

The RHMS was administered in a pre- and post-test setting in all three case studies. Each session took approximately 20 minutes and was supervised by the teacher. Cronbach's alpha values, calculated with pre-test scores, indicated sufficient internal consistency of the subscales (.72 for building a personal identity, .85 for becoming a citizen and .73 for human condition). The overall alpha was .91. Paired-samples t-tests were run to analyse differences between pre- and post-test outcomes of the RHMS in case study 1 and 2. Because the RHMS was applied anonymously in case study 3, it was not possible to run a paired-samples t-test. Instead, an independent-samples t-test was used to measure differences between pre- and post-tests.

4.6 Results

4.6.1 Application of historical knowledge by students (RQ 1)

Case study 1. In the pre-test comments on statements related to the applied enduring human issue (imposing value systems with a universal validity claim), many students formulated general considerations of a moral kind, for example, condemning the use of violence or upholding personal freedoms. In the post-test, 36 students (n = 54; 67%) stuck to their initial comments without referring to historical content knowledge in their explications. Sixteen students (29%) wrote new comments that were not very different

from the comments they had written in the pre-test. They just added a few words or stronger wordings to their initial comments to confirm what they had been thinking in the first place. Two students (4%) referred to the Cold War in general terms. For example, one of them said that 'if you want to impose things you will easily use violence and then it might go wrong, like with communism and capitalism'.

Table 4.4 shows the results of the coding procedure of students' writings (n = 51) about the viability of communism in China. In total, 163 propositions were identified by means of the coding scheme. Out of this total, 109 propositions (67%) were 'historical', which may not come as a surprise because students were explicitly asked to use their knowledge of the Cold War. In spite of this instruction, 54 propositions (33%) were labelled as 'generic knowledge'. Most of these (74%) related to political and socio-economic stability as predictors of the viability of communism in China.

Table 4.4 Code analysis of students' writings about the future of communism in China (case study 1).

Historical knowledge	Propositions	Percentage
Communism/capitalism	34	31%
Soviet Union	32	29%
China	28	26%
Cold War	15	14%
Total	109	100%
Generic knowledge	**Propositions**	**Percentage**
Chinese population	40	74%
Foreign pressure	14	26%
Total	54	100%

The students who were interviewed generally failed to give an explanation for not using historical content knowledge, seemingly because it was the first time they considered the possibility of using history in this way. One student declared that the Cold War had only confirmed his criticism on United States policy, and although he had not explained his opinion on paper, historical content knowledge certainly had influenced his opinions. Because students hardly commented on specific statements, we asked them more generally whether Cold War knowledge (in the context of discussing the present

enduring human issue) could affect their points of view. Talking about the expansion of communism, one student put forward how the Cold War had altered his opinions about Russia:

> I always think Russia is bad and the United States is good, but that's not always true. They [United States] say "yes, all countries must be democratic". But when communism is democratically elected, then they forbid it. Regarding the Ukraine it seems clear that Russia is bad, perhaps it is true, but you can't take that for granted. The Russians are not always to blame.

Many interviewees thought that history teaches us lessons. For example, four students talked about Stalin expanding communist rule at the expense of millions of victims. One student explained that he would be more aware of the risk of violence 'next time someone tries to impose an ideology'. Another student put forward that 'people in politics' are aware of this because 'they look at what happened in the past'. Elaborating on this issue, two students said history could be useful 'to make the right decisions to solve problems' and 'to know what the future will look like'.

Case study 2. In spite of instructions to use historical content knowledge in their post-test writings, seven students (n = 16; 44%) did not make any reference to it and more or less copied the comments they gave in the first round. Some gave clear reasons for not using historical content knowledge: 'I did not learn things that could help me to respond to this question differently', 'The lessons do not play a role here' and 'Just some lessons will not change my opinion about this.' The other nine students (56%) referred to content knowledge in a very general way. None of them mentioned historical events, persons, phenomena or developments. For example, regarding statement 2 ('people cannot handle too much freedom and need authority: a strong government that tells them what to do'), one student changed from 'neutral' to 'agree' because 'you see in history too much freedom, which is not good. Everyone needs a little leadership so there is structure.'

Case study 3. Out of a total of 57 students, 26 students (46%) agreed and 31 disagreed (54%) with characterizing the war against so-called IS as a world war. Most students (65%) explained their choice by referring to the First and Second World Wars. For example, students who agreed came up with comments such as 'countries from different continents participate' and 'people from all over the world have joined IS'. Students who

did not refer to the First and Second World Wars (35%) produced less articulate answers like: 'I think the war against IS is not a world war because it is never good to wage war' or 'I think it is not a world war because there is no quarrel, they only want IS to stop.' A majority of students (54%) believed that knowledge of the military ending of the Second World War was not helpful in predicting how the war against IS would unfold. Their comments contained expressions like: 'IS is just a new group', 'it is a totally different war' and 'it is a very different time'. Students who believed that historical content knowledge was useful derived general lessons from history with comments like: 'I agree. Alliances are very important in a war. Usually you cannot succeed if you are alone. You can also learn things from each other like fighting tactics or exchange weapons and technology.' Students who reasoned more straightforwardly came up with explanations like: 'I agree, because the US and Great Britain bombed Germany and that is what they are doing now with IS (bombard the enemy)'.

4.6.2 Teachers' experiences (RQ 2)

Three teachers considered practice-orientated collaboration between researchers and teachers 'important' and one teacher 'a little important'. All but one teacher stated that students showed more interest in lessons with a focus on connecting the past, the present and the future. All teachers found participation in this project useful in view of their teaching practice. Three teachers indicated that because of the project they were better able linking the past to the present and the future. The project inspired one teacher to continue to make these types of linkages.

The teacher involved in case study 1 (enduring human issue approach) was pleased to note that the selected enduring issue suited the regular lesson content well. According to her, the students had no difficulty with the additional texts and tasks, except with commenting on the viability of communism in China, apparently because they were not used to arguing about possible futures in history lessons. The teacher noted major differences between her two student groups. Students of the (higher) pre-university track were more inclined to relate past events to the present while discussing about the enduring issue than students of the (lower) middle level track, who focused more on mastering the historical content as an aim in itself. In this group, the teacher experienced a tension between complying with curriculum demands and her wish to make meaningful

connections between the past, present and future. Furthermore, these students seemed to have difficulty relating factual historical knowledge to the applied generic issue.

The teacher of case study 2 (longitudinal lines approach) put forward that her students had difficulty in addressing long-term developments and jumping from event to event over large spans of time ('from Egyptian pharaohs to Louis XIV and then to Hitler'). She believed this was due to a lack of knowledge, which came as a bit of a surprise to her, because students had just completed a curriculum which had mainly been focussing on overview knowledge. Some students had difficulty understanding that 'good' developments in the course of history (19th century democratization) can be followed by 'bad' developments (20th century totalitarianism). According to the teacher, these students were struggling with 'decline' and 'setbacks' in history. This was a bit disappointing to her, because she considered this kind of fluctuations one of the most attractive aspects of the longitudinal lines approach. She challenged students to extrapolate long-term political developments to the present and the future, but without much success. She surmised that teaching longitudinal lines might have been too abstract and not inspiring enough to motivate students. They were not used to this type of history teaching:

> These students like to have topics which are firmly anchored in a short period of time and organized in an event-based storyline, one with a beginning and an end. Just a real story in one line. With a head and a tail, they like it . . . They found it very difficult and were really happy when we started with a regular theme.

According to the teacher, teaching with longitudinal developments stretching from ancient to modern times fitted well with the national curriculum which was after all chronologically organized around ten eras. However, she had to spend a considerable amount of time on regular subject matter, because students appeared to have knowledge deficits and had to prepare themselves for tests. Hence, she noted that curriculum demands affected proper application of the longitudinal lines approach.

The two teachers involved in case study 3 (historical analogy approach) declared that making analogies motivated their eighth-grade students. The students were eager to compare past and present events and to elaborate on meanings of content knowledge. One teacher said:

> These students are difficult to motivate, but they just started to work . . . They thought it was really fun to draw these parallels. Yeah, they really had fun in doing these tasks, it surprised me even a little bit. I did not expect that they would work so enthusiastically. They worked in silence and students asked me to do this more often.

Both teachers noticed that the historical analogy approach made students spontaneously discuss meanings and applications of general concepts (e.g. world war, propaganda). One teacher said:

> This came as a surprise, because I found it very interesting what happened. In my class, for example, there was a debate on concepts. Never thought my students could do this. They pondered what a war actually is and discussed the definition of the concept of war. Debates arose out of drawing analogies and students referred to what they had learned in other school subjects. I liked this very much.

The teachers did not experience any problems with implementing historical analogies in a sequence of eight regular lessons. Because of the positive effects on students' involvement and motivation in class, they intended to apply this teaching strategy more often but were afraid to be impeded by tight time schedules. One of them said:

> Actually, we focus on current affairs quite often, but these lessons were obviously much better prepared, I would like to do this more often. The problem is proper planning, that remains difficult. Even now I was running out of time. These were ready-made analogy tasks, but it takes time to design tasks suitable for this purpose ourselves. It can be done, but it requires different ways of planning and teaching.

4.6.3 Students' appraisals of the relevance of history (RQ 3)

Table 4.5 presents the RHMS-scores for the three domains of the relevance of history: building a personal identity, becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition. In case study 1, the mean scores in the post-test are higher than the mean scores in the pre-test for all three domains, meaning that students were more positive about the relevance of history after the lesson intervention. As the mean scores differences between

pre- and post-tests are statistically significant for all three domains, this positive effect may be attributed to the application of the enduring human issues approach. Apparently, making connections between past, present and future by considering an enduring issue in the context of the Cold War allowed students to recognize ways in which history can be relevant. Students in case study 2 hardly changed their relevance perceptions as a result of teaching with longitudinal lines pertaining to the historical development of citizenship. Mean scores differences for all three domains are minimal and statistically insignificant. In study 3, post-test scores were higher than pre-test scores, implying that students became more positive about the relevance of history. However, as the mean score differences are not statistically significant (which may have been due to the impossibility to apply a paired-sampled t-test), this positive effect cannot be attributed with certainty to the implementation of the historical analogy approach.

Table 4.5 RHMS-scores for students' appraisals of the relevance of history, pre- and post-test. Six-point Likert scale: 1 = completely disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = a little disagree; 4 = a little agree; 5 = agree; 6 = completely agree.

	Case study 1 ($N = 51$)				Case study 2 ($N = 20$)				Case study 3 ($N = 47$)			
	pre *M* (*SD*)	post *M* (*SD*)	*t*	*df*	pre *M* (*SD*)	post *M* (*SD*)	*t*	*df*	pre *M* (*SD*)	post *M* (*SD*)	*t*	*df*
Building a personal identity	3.29 (.76)	3.66 (.79)	3.061**	50	3.30 (.76)	3.34 (.62)	0.267	19	3.47 (.76)	3.61 (.85)	0.815	87
Becoming a citizen	3.52 (.77)	3.86 (.83)	3.926***	50	3.55 (.62)	3.56 (.75)	0.076	19	3.22 (.66)	3.41 (.64)	1.391	87
Understanding the human condition	3.55 (.95)	4.08 (.85)	4.235***	50	3.51 (.86)	3.50 (.73)	0.068	19	3.19 (.88)	3.44 (.99)	1.256	87

Note: Scores in case study 3 are based on independent samples t-test calculations.
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

4.7 Conclusion and discussion

The extent to which students used historical knowledge in their orientating on current affairs appeared to be influenced in the first place by whether they were explicitly instructed to do so. Their spontaneous inclination to apply historical knowledge was negligible, and even when prompted, not all students did so. However, the picture is mixed. During the interviews, some students declared that content knowledge had reaffirmed or changed their initial responses to the statements. When asked directly and after rephrasing the question, students came up with different examples of ways in which they thought historical knowledge could be useful. Furthermore, the type of pedagogical approach seems to be influential. Enduring human issues and longitudinal lines are usually abstract and generic in nature, which probably makes knowledge transfer more difficult, as is, above all, apparent from our results in case study 2. In case study 3, on the other hand, 37 out of 57 students (65%) explicitly referred to knowledge of the World Wars. This may be explained by the less complicated nature of the assignment to draw an analogy between concrete events.

Teachers' experiences varied depending on the applied pedagogical approach. While the longitudinal lines approach appeared to be adaptable to the existing curriculum, content wise, this approach was rather demanding and not very motivating for the students. The historical analogy approach, on the other hand, was not only easy to implement but also elicited students' engagement and enthusiasm, and the teachers were surprised by the competences their students appeared to have. The approaches helped the teachers make connections among the past, present and future and as such were useful in view of their daily teaching practice; however, they noted tension between using the approaches and complying with curriculum demands within the given time.

The RHMS data of case study 1 show that it is possible to positively influence the perceptions of students on the relevance of history. Despite the absence of control groups, there are indications that the lesson intervention (which, it must be emphasized, was aiming at relating historical content knowledge to present-day realities and not at teaching students about the relevance of history) influenced this shift of relevance perceptions. First, the analysis showed the largest mean differences between pre- and post-test scores precisely for the relevance domain to which the enduring human issue approach applies most ('understanding the human condition'). Second, the interviewed

students involved in case study 1 reasoned about the usefulness of history in terms of dealing with societal problems and foreseeing possible futures, two aspects that were well represented in the applied enduring human issue approach and writing tasks.

Several limitations of the three case studies should be taken into account. First, they were explorative, relatively small-scale and confined to particular situations, so we should be careful in generalising conclusions based on their findings. Second, we did not examine the situational interest of the students. Affection or disaffection with historical topics may have influenced the results. Third, although the varying quality of students' writings suggests that ability and knowledge levels were important variables in students' performances – which would be in line with empirical findings on this matter (Blow, 2009; Lee, 2004; Means & Voss, 1996) – we did not conduct knowledge or ability tests. Last, in order to determine if students used historical knowledge in their comments on statements, we took exact content knowledge wordings as a rule of thumb. Because this analysis method pertains to the written assignments, there was no opportunity to ask students to elaborate their reasoning. Thus, we had to take this rather rough criterion, realising that students who did not use exact content knowledge wordings may have had history in mind while reasoning about present-day affairs, although this seemed unlikely given the general nature of their answers. Being beyond the scope of this explorative study, it would be worthwhile to further research eventual discrepancies between students' writings and thinking, also in order to learn more about the nature and depths of the use of historical knowledge by students.

One of the main purposes of this study was to examine whether the three approaches fit well with existing educational settings or whether their implementation demands major curriculum revisions. Two indicators for considering this question will be discussed here: students' use of content knowledge and teacher's experiences in view of curriculum demands.

As we have seen, students were not inclined to apply historical content knowledge spontaneously and only showed a rather ephemeral processing of lesson content which is in line with previous research (Foster, Ashby and Lee, 2008; Mosborg, 2002; Lee 2004; Shreiner, 2014). One of the reasons may be that the lesson content referred to 'impersonal' topics such as politics and citizenship, making it difficult for students to identify and engage. This observation would comply with studies showing that students:

(1) tend to reason with personal rather than non-personal explanatory factors (Den Heyer, 2003; Halldèn, 1998); tend to relate the past to the present when they are personally involved (Grant, 2003; Seixas, 1994); and (3) show interest in topics that involve emotions, morality and personal judgments in circumstances that are familiar to them (Barton, 2008). This tallies with the findings of case study 3 in which the topic of the historical analogy was morally laden and students were very engaged. In sum, to increase the likelihood of students using knowledge of the past in contemporary contexts, the pedagogical approaches chosen should offer opportunities for identification and engagement. Further research should take this into account.

The embedding of the pedagogical approaches in an existing curriculum to which only small alterations were added may also provide an explanation for students' limited use of historical knowledge. Some students did not perceive content knowledge as a tool for substantiating their views on enduring human issues, apparently because it never occurred to them that history could be used for that purpose. Accustomed to history teaching with an emphasis on memorising historical knowledge, it seemed that students associated history lesson content primarily with the past and enduring human issues primarily with the present. These observations are consistent with educational research on knowledge transfer in general and on seeking meaning beyond the history content in particular, which indicates that these mental operations do not easily occur in situations in which knowledge is acquired in an educational setting predominantly focused on lecturing and replication (Illeris, 2009; Russell & Pellegrino, 2008). Lifting the barriers may also be difficult because enduring human issues and longitudinal lines are of a generic nature whereas topics in traditional curricula are often shaped as chains of events with meanings that apply only in particular contexts. To switch between historical facts and human issues or longitudinal lines, intermediators would be welcome, for example overarching concepts that students can use for deducing general meanings from descriptive knowledge (Milligan & Wood, 2010; Thornton & Barton, 2010).

In conclusion, teaching with historical analogies can be easily implemented within a traditional curriculum and seems to be a promising approach for encouraging students to use history beyond school. It remains to be seen, however, whether embedding the longitudinal lines and enduring human issues approaches in extant curricula will be suitable, even if requirements like the ones described above are met. Our case studies

pointed out that combining these approaches with a curriculum that serves other purposes (such as strong focus on memorising topical knowledge) is audacious and puts a strain on the available class time and teachers' priorities. As for the enduring human issues approach, instead of teaching with issues in given contexts that are difficult to mould, it may be a better idea to take them as an organising principle around which subject matter is selected. This would require major curriculum revisions, as becomes clear glancing at 'good practices' of conceptually framed history curricula that study problems instead of periods (Grant & Gradwell, 2010; Obenchain, Orr, & Davis, 2011). It would be worthwhile to further investigate the effects of these types of curriculum revisions on the efficacy of the three pedagogical approaches for connecting the past, the present and the future.

Chapter 5

FOSTERING STUDENTS' APPRAISALS OF THE RELEVANCE OF HISTORY BY COMPARING ANALOGOUS CASES OF AN ENDURING HUMAN ISSUE: A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY[4]

Although history standards generally aim at developing historical consciousness among secondary school students, there is not much research-based knowledge to support making connections between the past, the present and the future in history teaching. This study examines the effects of teaching analogous cases of an enduring human issue in two experimental conditions: one in which grade 10-12 students (n = 460) were actively encouraged to compare cases and to draw analogies with the present and one in which students studied cases without making comparisons or drawing analogies with the present (n = 273). Set against the results of a group of students who followed the usual history curriculum (n = 289), multilevel regression analyses on the collected data revealed that both experimental conditions positively affected students' appraisals of the relevance of history, more so in the 'case-comparison' condition than in the 'separate-case' condition. Students in the case-comparison condition also deemed the lesson course more valuable and experienced less difficulty with the applied pedagogical approach than students in the separate-case condition. Case comparison did not negatively affect the acquisition of historical factual knowledge. Implications for further research are discussed.

5.1 Introduction

Developing historical consciousness is an important rationale for history as a school subject in many Western countries (e.g. DFE, 2013; NHCS, 1996; SLO, 2016; VGD, 2006). By connecting the history of mankind to their own personal lives, students should obtain a deeper understanding of today's and tomorrow's world, get a sense of their own historicity and expand their 'space of experience' thus influencing their 'horizon of expectation' (Koselleck, 2004, p. 255). As a rule, history standards cover the history of mankind from prehistoric to modern times, usually outlined in chronologically ordered

[4] Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., Oostdam, R., & Fukkink, R. Fostering students' appraisals of the relevance of history by comparing analogous cases of an enduring human issue: a quasi-experimental study. Submitted to *Cognition and Instruction*, 16 January 2018 (first review received, revision in progress).

topics. However, when it comes to connecting the past to the present and the future, standards offer little guidance.

There are reasons to assume that students do not use the past as a tool for orientation on the present and future of their own accord. In many Western countries they have unarticulated views on the purposes and benefits of studying the past (e.g. Angvik & Von Borries, 1997; Biddulph & Adey, 2003; Harris & Reynolds, 2014; Haydn & Harris, 2010; Van Sledright, 1997; Zhao & Hoge, 2005). Students tend to see the past as 'fixed', as a closed entity of given dates and facts about a world 'out there' that bears little relation with the 'real' world; they have difficulty understanding that history is about constructing narratives about the past that serve contemporary needs and interests (e.g. Barton, 2008; Lee, 2005; Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004; Shemilt, 2009; Stoel, Logtenberg, Wansink, Huijgen, Van Boxtel, & Van Drie 2017). History curricula usually focus on historical topics as aims in themselves without drawing analogies with the present or referring to 'big pictures', thus possibly thwarting students' ability to discern patterns of change and continuity between past and present times (Blow, 2009; Caroll, 2016; Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008).

Given the fact that students are not inclined to make connections between the past, present and future spontaneously, they need to be supported. In earlier work, we distinguished three pedagogical approaches for this to be achieved: (1) teaching with longitudinal lines describing long-term political, socio-economical or cultural developments, for example, the emergence of national states; (2) teaching with analogies between the past and the present, for example, an analogy between the Roman Empire and the European Union; and (3) teaching with enduring human issues (i.e. issues shared by humans of all times because they are essential to human existence, such as religious beliefs, government, trade, food and sickness) (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016).

The present quasi-experimental study investigates the merits of history teaching that combines the second and third pedagogical approach by means of a lesson intervention conducted in Dutch senior secondary education. Our main assumption is that these approaches foster students' abilities to use knowledge of the past in reflections about present-day affairs, thus positively affecting their appraisals of the relevance of history.

In addition, as this type of teaching is an innovative practice in Dutch history education, we investigated students' learning experiences and situational interest.

5.2 Learning through analogical reasoning

The design of this study relies on cognitive psychological research on analogical reasoning and case comparison learning. In general, case comparison activities lead to better learning outcomes than more traditional forms of instruction, such as lecturing and reading (Alfieri, Nokes-Malch, & Schunn, 2013). Comparing cases simultaneously appears to be more effective than studying cases sequentially (one after the other) without making comparisons (Alfieri et al., 2013; Gentner, Loewestein & Thompson, 2003). In a 'sequential condition', students are not inclined to make comparisons (Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003; Rittle-Johnson & Star, 2007), and if they do, they focus on surface feature similarity whereas case comparison learners give much more weight to structural features, resulting in deeper conceptual understanding (Alfieri et al., 2013; Cummins, 1992).

Case comparison activities need to be accompanied by supportive cues as students, especially novices, often fail to detect structural features underlying similar cases of their own accord. Highlighting analogous features in direct instruction is helpful to students and makes case comparison activities more effective (Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003; Holyoak & Koh, 1987; Richland, Zur, & Holyoak, 2007). Other effective cues are: (1) searching for similarities instead of searching for both similarities and differences (Alfieri et al., 2013); (2) testing learners immediately after comparison activities (Alfieri et al., 2013); (3) using visual or schematic representations of key features (Bulgren, Deshler, Schumaker, & Lenz, 2000; Richland, & McDonough, 2010); and (4) modeling or scaffolding case comparison tasks into step-by-step learning activities (Richland, Zur, & Holyoak, 2007). Scaffolding case comparison activities may be accomplished in several diverse modes. For this study, we used the first three stages of the 'guided analogy training' model developed by Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson (2003): (1) introducing key principles and key concepts; (2) using a case to demonstrate the principles; (3) applying the principles on unknown cases in a comparison with the first case.

5.3 The use of analogies and the discipline of history

Thus far, cognitive psychological studies on analogical, case-based reasoning in educational contexts have mainly been conducted in the fields of mathematics and natural sciences. In these subjects, the foundation of analogical reasoning is that similar actions in similar cases will have similar effects. This may well explain why there is a lack of research on the use of analogies in history teaching (Myson, 2006). History teachers do not eschew drawing analogies, on the contrary, they use analogies quite often and there are some inspiring classroom examples of this type of teaching (e.g. Boix-Mansilla, 2000; Laffin & Wilson, 2005; Myson, 2006; Rollett, 2010). In many cases, something mundane from the present is being used to explain something similar from the past or historical events that bear strong similarities are being compared (Ata, 2009; McCarthy Young & Leinhardt, 2000). There are no data on the frequency of historical analogies being used to reflect on present-day affairs, but it seems plausible to assume this is not a regular practice, given the focus on memorizing facts in many history lessons. Moreover, this approach may seem at odds with the nature of the discipline, because history is essentially concerned with the 'otherness' of the past, emphasizing differences and not similarities with the present. Contingency plays an important role in historical explanation and the application of a 'covering law model' in this context is arguably problematic because there are no general laws which may predict human behavior (Jonker, 2001; Lorenz, 1998; Munslow, 2006).

From an academic point of view, therefore, it may seem dubious to use historical analogies for orientation on the present and future. Historical analogies may turn out to be simplistic, politically biased, false or anachronistic (Leira, 2017; Miller, 2016; Mumford, 2015). All of this is probably true for academic history, which aims at establishing historical truths as detailed as possible, although historical scholarship itself is part of a historical culture bridging past and present realities as a matter of course (Rüsen, 2017). Teaching history, however, has a more pragmatic aim, for which analogies may be quite fruitful, because they may stimulate discussion, exchange of arguments and assent (Kornprobst, 2007).

5.4 Using analogies as a relevance tool

The essence of education is preparing students for societal participation and developing their personal identity (Biesta, 2010). Studying the past should, therefore, be explicitly linked to students' lives and the society of which they are part. In earlier work, we used the concept of 'relevance of history' in this respect, which we defined as 'allowing students to recognize and experience what history has to do with themselves, with today's society and their general understanding of human existence' (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016). We distinguished three objectives for relevant history teaching: (1) building a personal identity: seeing oneself as an individual with a personal past and developing one's own values, opinions and ideals vis-à-vis those of the historically shaped communities to which one belongs, (2) becoming a citizen: understanding the origins of contemporary affairs and developing well-substantiated views in order to function as a citizen in society, and (3) understanding the human condition: becoming aware of the temporal dimension of the human existence and supplementing one's experiences with past approaches to human issues (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016).

Drawing analogies in the context of an enduring human issue can be a useful tool for pursuing these relevance objectives. It can help students acquire a more abstract understanding of lesson content as it involves higher order thinking skills, such as generalizing, categorizing and inferring (Richland & Simms, 2015). Through the drawing of analogies, students 'decontextualize' specific information into generally applicable principles and concepts, facilitating knowledge transfer to new examples that share underlying structural characteristics but differ in specific characteristics (Alfieri et al., 2013; Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003; Salomon & Perkins, 1989). All of this corresponds to research literature showing the benefits of conceptual frameworks and concept-based instruction for the teaching and learning of history (e.g. Stern, 2010; Lee, 2005; Thornton & Barton, 2010; Twyman, McCleery, & Tindal, 2006).

Using historical phenomena to reflect on analogous contemporary phenomena puts students into a position to generate insights which may have value beyond school. Recognising the utility of classroom tasks in terms of applicability in 'real life' is what encourages students to learn and what they find important in valuing the relevance of school subjects (Brophy, 1999; Eccles, 2004; Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Martin, 2003;

Muddiman & Frymier, 2009; Pintrich, 2003). Meaning making and content relevance are also important stimuli for enhancing 'situational interest' (i.e. the interest experienced in a particular moment emanating from environmental factors such as the clarity of tasks, the perceived value of information or the coherence and vividness of texts) (Harackiewicz, Smith, & Priniski, 2016; Schraw, Flowerday, & Leman, 2001).

5.5 Enduring human issues and the history curriculum

There have been a number of proposals for designing history curricula organized around enduring human issues exemplified by analogous cases from different periods (e.g. Barton & Levstik, 2011; Brush & Saye, 2014; Carroll, 2016; Grant & Gradwell, 2010; Hunt, 2000; McTighe & Wiggins, 2013). In many designs, enduring issues are embedded in existing curricula by means of selecting topics that incidentally seem suitable to move beyond factual historical content. Obenchain, Orr and Davis (2011), for example, apply the question 'should liberty be limited' to standard units such as the American Revolution ('Was it appropriate for the Sons of Liberty to use their power to destroy property in the Boston Tea Party?'), the American Civil War ('Was the North justified in limiting the liberties of Southern property owners?') and the Vietnam War ('During the Vietnam War, should the liberties of press, speech, and protest have been limited?') (p. 193). Because essential questions are assigned to topics appearing in the curriculum for their own sake, application may often take place in very specific and very diverse contexts which must be well understood for students to be able to grasp and elaborate on the essence of the issues at stake. Moreover, as topics in existing curricula are being taught in different grades over a relatively long period of time, using analogies and abstracting generally applicable knowledge are less obvious.

For this study, therefore, we selected topics that were specifically suitable for addressing essential questions about an enduring human issue instead of embedding questions in an extant curriculum. These topics were taught sequentially in a short time span to facilitate comparison activities and the drawing of analogies between past and present. The assumption here is that comparison activities allow students to study the past in meaningful ways and consequently have a positive effect on their appraisals of the relevance of history.

5.6 The present study

A lesson unit was designed for two experimental conditions: the *case-comparison condition,* in which students discussed essential questions concerning an enduring human issue by means of comparing cases from different periods and drawing analogies with the present; and the *separate-case condition,* in which the same historical cases were taught sequentially (one at the time) without discussing essential questions, making mutual comparisons and drawing analogies with the present. We tested the extent to which case-based history teaching about an enduring human issue in both experimental conditions affected students' (1) appraisals of the relevance of history, (2) situational interest, (3) opinions about the complexity of this type of history teaching and (4) acquisition of subject matter knowledge. 'Relevance of history' corresponds to the objectives of relevant history teaching as described above (i.e. building a personal identity, becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition). 'Situational interest' refers to the way students experienced the lesson unit in terms of attention, engagement, enjoyment and value (Linnenbrink-Garcia et al., 2010).

5.7 Hypotheses

We expected that:

(1) students' appraisals of the relevance of history are positively affected to a greater extent in the case-comparison condition than in the separate-case condition.

(2) students' situational interest is positively affected to a greater extent in the case-comparison condition than in the separate-case condition.

(3) students in the case-comparison condition considered the applied approach (i.e. studying cases from different periods in the context of an enduring human issue) less problematic than students in the separate-case condition.

(4) there are no differences between the case-comparison and the separate-case condition in terms of acquisition of subject matter knowledge.

In accordance with our theoretical framework, we assumed that students in the case-comparison condition would generate generic knowledge applicable in 'real life', allowing them to experience the value of history (hypothesis 1). The case-comparison condition included stimuli for situational interest that were lacking in the separate-case

condition, such as pursuing content relevance by seeking connections with the present (hypothesis 2). Making comparisons using essential questions would enable students to envisage the historical cases in a comprehensive framework instead of seeing them as isolated events in particular historical contexts (hypothesis 3). The learning effectiveness of comparison activities gave reason to assume that students in the case-comparison condition would not underperform in terms of factual knowledge acquisition, even though a considerable part of their study time was spent on past-present analogies whereas students in the separate-case condition focused exclusively on learning historical facts and practicing historical skills (hypothesis 4).

5.8 Method

5.8.1 Study design

A pre-/posttest design with a comparison group was used to evaluate effects of the case-comparison and separate-case conditions as predicted by hypothesis 1 (see Table 5.1). To avoid confusion with the case-comparison group, we have called our comparison group 'non-treatment group'. This group followed the regular history curriculum and completed the questionnaire concerned with a time interval between pre- and posttests as long as the average duration between pre- and posttest in the experimental conditions (i.e. five weeks). Measures in the non-treatment group were only carried out for hypothesis 1, as the other hypotheses relate to the lesson intervention in which this group had not participated. The non-treatment group also took a historical knowledge test prior to the intervention in order to examine equivalence with the treatment groups.

The outcomes of the experimental groups were not mutually compared, but independently with the outcomes of the non-treatment group. Because the tested pedagogical approaches were innovative in Dutch history education, it seemed to make sense to examine their effects on students' history relevance perceptions compared to effects of 'usual' history teaching.

Table 5.1 Design and measures of the study.

	Hypo-thesis	*Pre/ post*	*Case-comparison group*	*Separate-case group*	*Non-treatment group*
Intervention (6 lessons)			X	X	
Measures:					
Historical Knowledge		Pre	X	X	X
History Relevance	1	Pre/post	X	X	X
Situational Interest	2	Post	X	X	
Pedagogical Approach	3	Post	X	X	
Lesson Content Knowledge	4	Post	X	X	

5.8.2 Educational context

The study was conducted in the two highest tracks of Dutch senior secondary education: middle level general secondary education (HAVO) and pre-university secondary education (VWO). The history curriculum in these tracks is based on frame of reference knowledge organized around ten eras and their characteristic features, starting with the 'era of hunters and farmers' and ending with the 'era of television and computer' (Wilschut, 2009; 2015). The ten eras are first introduced in junior secondary education and subsequently studied on a more profound level in senior secondary education. History is not a compulsory subject in senior secondary education, which means that this study's participants had opted for a curriculum of which history was a part.

It is important to note that (1) the ten eras and their features are taught as independent topics in chronological order without comparing them in the context of enduring issues, and (2) 'the use of history'– a component of the Norwegian and Swedish curriculum (Nordgren, 2016) – does not appear in the Dutch curriculum. This means that, previously to our intervention, participants had not been taught any of the objectives of relevance of history underlying the constructs of the questionnaire we used to gauge students' perceptions on this matter.

5.8.3 Participants

In the original sample, participants were 1236 grade 10 to 12 senior secondary students from 24 secondary schools located in nine out of the twelve Dutch provinces. Students who did not complete both questionnaires of the pre- and posttest measurements were excluded (n = 214). This resulted in a final sample of 1022 students, of whom 460 participated in the case-comparison group, 273 in the separate-case group and 289 in the non-treatment group. Table 5.2 shows the sample specifics.

Table 5.2 Participating students for each research condition and educational track.

	Case-comparison condition (n = 460)	*Separate-case condition (n = 273)*	*Non-treatment group (n = 289)*
Middle level general education (HAVO)	266 (57.9%)	170 (62.3%)	184 (63.7%)
Pre-university education (VWO)	194 (42.1%)	103 (37.7%)	105 (36.3%)
Mean age	16.65 (*SD* = 1.01)	16.50 (*SD* = 0.95)	16.07 (*SD* = 1.03)
Gender: female	51.1%	57.9%	51.2%

Thirty teachers participated: 22 in the experimental conditions and 8 in the non-treatment condition. As the non-treatment group was not involved in the intervention, no specifics are reported about the teachers, whose only job was to teach as usual and administer questionnaires. Teachers participating in the two experimental conditions were recruited through an announcement in a Dutch history teaching journal and by soliciting MA-level teachers graduated from our own university. They were requested to participate in both conditions in order to ensure group similarity, which was not possible in all cases, resulting in 11 taking part in the case-comparison condition, 4 in the separate-case condition and 7 in both conditions. Teaching experience of the teachers in the case-comparison condition varied from 7 to 35 years (M = 16.50; SD = 8.63); 44% were male, 56% female. Teaching experience in the separate-case condition ranged from 5 to 30 (M = 16.27; SD = 8.71); 64% were male, 36% female. Hence, all teachers in both conditions had at least five years of teaching experience.

5.8.4 Lesson unit design

Subject of the lesson unit was the enduring human issue of migration and integration. Five refugee groups from early modern times onwards were used as exemplary cases: (1) Protestants leaving the Catholic southern Netherlands for the Protestant north during the Dutch Revolt (16th century); (2) Persecuted Jews seeking refuge in the Dutch Republic (17th century); (3) Belgians fleeing from First World War violence towards the neutral Netherlands; (4) German 'Heimatvertriebene' being expelled from former German territory in Poland, Russia and Czechoslovakia after the Second World War; (5) Cubans leaving for the US after the communist takeover by Fidel Castro in 1959. The unit contained six lessons: one introduction lesson and one lesson for each refugee case. Pre- and post-measurements required another two lessons. To ensure that all students were equally informed, two authors – both historians, history teacher educators and history textbook writers – documented the refugee cases using sources and writing texts themselves. Each refugee lesson referred to exactly the same content subject matter in both conditions. Historical sources, texts and illustrations were identical, except for the assignments which differed in accordance with the divergent lesson goals of the two conditions (see Appendices D and E). Lesson materials were bundled into a booklet in which students noted their answers.

Table 5.3 clarifies the differences between the courses in both experimental conditions. Learning activities in the case-comparison condition were supported by modelling according to the guided analogy training of Gentner, Loewenstein and Thompson (2003) and by using a framework of key questions and concepts drawn from academic literature on migration and integration (e.g. Mavroudi & Nagel, 2016; Obdeijn & Stover, 2008) (see Appendix F). In the introduction lesson, the framework was explained by the teachers and used by students for analysing current refugee issues in the Netherlands. Students subsequently employed the framework for comparing the refugee cases and drawing analogies between these cases and present-day refugee issues. Each lesson ended with students discussing in pairs differences and similarities between the past and the present.

Students in the separate-case condition studied the historical refugee cases to deepen their knowledge about the Dutch Revolt, the Dutch Republic in the 17th century, the World Wars and the Cold War, all of which belong to the prescribed characteristic

features of the framework of ten eras. In the introduction lesson, students contextualized sources related to these topics and practised historical skills. These two assignment types – common in the history teaching students were familiar with – were consequently applied in the next five lessons about refugee groups in the past.

Table 5.3 Design of the lesson units in the experimental conditions.

	Case-comparison condition	*Separate-case condition*
Aim	Comparing refugee cases from the past and using them to reflect on present-day refugee issues	Learning about refugee cases from the past to deepen knowledge of general topics related to these cases
Lesson 1	Demonstrating a key questions framework for case comparison and drawing analogies with the present	Contextualizing primary sources using knowledge of general topics related to the refugee cases
	Applying the framework to current refugee issues	Practicing historical skills using the primary sources
Lesson 2-6	Studying five historical refugee cases using the same documents and images as in the separate-case condition	Studying five historical refugee cases using the same documents and images as in the case-comparison condition
Assignment types	1 Analyzing and comparing refugee cases using the key questions framework. 2 Considering present-day refugee issues by drawing analogies with the past cases. For example: [Source: Authorities in Miami issued an informative movie to reduce growing concerns among the population about the arrival of large quantities of Cuban refugees] Assignments: 1 Which questions and concepts from the key questions framework can you relate to the concerns of the people of Miami? Choose two. 2 The government appealed to American history to reassure the population. Nowadays, could the Dutch government refer to immigration in Dutch history for this purpose? Explain your opinion.	1 Contextualize primary sources using general historical knowledge. 2 Practicing historical skills using these primary sources. For example: [Source: Authorities in Miami issued an informative movie to reduce growing concerns among the population about the arrival of large quantities of Cuban refugees] Assignments: 1 A quote from the movie: "*The whole world sees the fate of the Cuban refugees*." Why was it important for the US to treat the Cubans properly in the light of the Cold War? 2 Did the movie emphasize change or continuity in American history? Explain why the authorities did this. What interest did they have?

Each refugee case lesson lasted 50 minutes and had the same build-up in both conditions. The teacher introduced the topic using a digital presentation – identical for both conditions – displaying elementary facts and dates (10 minutes). Students then studied the documents and made assignments (25 minutes). The lessons ended with a plenary exchange of students' written answers (15 minutes).

5.8.5 Teacher preparation and treatment integrity

The teachers were informed about the aims and methods of the unit in a three-hour meeting. Three absentees were personally instructed. All teachers received a guide describing goals and procedures, providing model answers and historical background information. Teachers in the separate-case condition were instructed to avoid comparing cases in order to keep a clear distinction with the case-comparison condition. During the meeting, the teachers indicated that goals and methods of the lesson intervention were clear to them.

The first author observed six lessons (three in each experimental condition) and interviewed 6 teachers and 32 students (in dyads) to collect experiences and opinions. The teachers evaluated the lesson intervention by filling out an online questionnaire. They reported their satisfaction with the quality of course materials. Students had completed the questionnaires without irregularities, the lessons had proceeded according to plan and students' work ethic had been as usual. All teachers had completed the lesson unit, with a number of them reporting tight time schedules. Data from the interviews and the lesson observations did not point at serious deviations from lesson protocols.

5.8.6 Measures

Historical Knowledge. All three groups took a historical knowledge test at the start of the intervention in order to examine group equivalence and to control for effects of differences in knowledge levels on outcome measures (see Appendix G). We designed a pencil-and-paper test with 40 true/false statements about general historical topics related to the five refugee examples (e.g. Dutch revolt, World Wars). Item examples were: 'Luther was pardoned by the Holy Roman Emperor at the Diet of Worms', 'Characteristic of 17th century Dutch painting were scenes of military battles and royal life'. 'Russia pulled out of the First World War after the Bolshevik revolution led by

Lenin', 'South and North Vietnam were reunited under a communist government in the 1970s'. Cronbach's α was .66, indicating adequate internal consistency for this broad knowledge domain.

History Relevance. The Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS) was used to gauge students' appraisals of the relevance of history (Appendix A). The RHMS is a validated closed format questionnaire designed to measure student beliefs about the value of history in view of building a personal identity, becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018). Item examples in the order of these relevance strands were: 'History helps me to get to know myself better'; 'History is of little use if you want to understand the news'; 'History enables you to imagine what will happen in the future'. The RHMS comprises 24 items each with a 6-point Likert scale (1: totally disagree; 2: disagree; 3: disagree a little; 4: agree a little; 5: agree; 6: totally agree). The reliability of the RHMS subscales was good with α-values ranging from .80 to .90. For the full scale, α was .92 for the pretest and .94 for the posttest.

Situational Interest. Students' situational interest (SI) was measured by means of a 12-item questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale (1: totally disagree; 2: disagree; 3: neutral; 4: agree; 5: totally agree) based on an instrument designed by Linnenbrink-Garcia et al. (2010) (see Appendix H). This questionnaire measures three aspects of situational interest in classroom settings: (1) the extent to which a course grabs students' attention (triggered-SI); (2) the extent to which a course itself is pleasurable and engaging (maintained-SI-feeling); and (3) the extent to which a course is deemed important and valuable (maintained-SI-value). The original items were translated and 'in the lessons about refugees' was added to each of them to avoid students having other history classes in mind. Sample items for the three SI-aspects were respectively: 'In the lessons about refugees we did things that grabbed my attention', 'I'm excited about what we learned about refugees in history class', 'What we have learned about refugees in history class can be applied to real life'. Reliability of the three SI-subscales was good (respectively α = .82, .89 and .80) Whole scale α was .93.

Pedagogical Approach. Students' opinions about the complexity of the applied case-comparison approach were measured by means of a self-designed 3-item questionnaire with a 5-point Likert scale (1: totally disagree; 2: disagree; 3: neutral; 4: agree; 5: totally

agree) (see Appendix I). Items were: 'Lessons about topics from different times are confusing', 'Teaching a theme with topics from different times (like in the refugee lessons) is more difficult than the history teaching we are used to' and 'In the refugee lessons, there were so many different topics that it was difficult to understand them.' The Pedagogical Approach scale had sufficient reliability (α = .71).

Lesson Content Knowledge. Students' knowledge of the five refugee cases was measured with a self-designed test comprising 30 true/false items (6 per case) (see Appendix J). Item examples are: 'Cities in the Dutch Republic offered refugees from the Southern provinces favorable settlement conditions', 'About 1 million Belgian refugees arrived in the Netherlands in 1914' and 'Among the people of Florida there were hardly any concerns about the influx of Cuban refugees'. Reliability of the Lesson Content Knowledge scale was sufficient (α = .71).

5.8.7 Data analysis

Preliminary analyses revealed no serious violation of the assumption of normality. Levene's tests showed equal variance across groups for all outcome measures expect for SI-total, triggered-SI and Lesson Content Knowledge. Three univariate outliers were detected. Removing them did not result in significant outcome differences, so all cases were retained; no transformations were applied.

The equivalence of the three groups at the start of the experiment was demonstrated through multilevel regression analyses on pretest outcomes for Historical Knowledge and History Relevance. Regarding their general knowledge of history, no differences were detected between the case-comparison group and the non-treatment group, z = 0,190, p value (two-sided) = .849. No differences were found either between the separate-case group and the non-treatment group, z = 0,195, p value (two-sided) = .849. With regard to students' appraisals of the relevance of history, there were no differences neither between the case-comparison and the non-treatment group, z = -0,386, p value (two-sided) = .700, nor between the separate-case group and the non-treatment group, z = -0,022, p value (two-sided) = .982. These results automatically rule out the possibility of 'historical knowledge' and 'history relevance' differences between the case-comparison and separate-case conditions.

To check for possible effects of (differential) attrition between conditions, a MANOVA was conducted with History Relevance pretest scores as dependent variables and attrition as independent variable. No significant differences were found between students who discontinued between the pretest and posttest (these cases were removed from the sample) and students who completed all questionnaires, Wilks' $\lambda = .981$, $F(20, 3862) = 1.14$, $p = .308$. No significant interaction effect between attrition and condition was found either, Wilks' $\lambda = .997$, $F(4, 1168) = .896$, $p = .469$.

Taking into account the hierarchical data structure, with students (level 1) nested in classes (level 2), multilevel regression analysis was applied using MLwiN 2.20 (Rasbash, Steele, Browne, & Goldstein, 2009). Intra-class correlations at class level for scale measures ranged from .07 to .20, calling for multilevel analysis (Snijders & Bosker, 2012). School was not added as level because preliminary analyses rendered zero to very small intra-class correlations at school level ($\rho \leq .05$) and the number of schools was too small (Maas & Hox, 2005).

Multilevel analyses were conducted for each outcome measure: Relevance (total), Relevance-identity, Relevance-citizenship, Relevance-human condition; Situational Interest (total), Maintained-SI-Value, Maintained-SI-Feeling, Triggered-SI; Pedagogical Approach; Lesson Content Knowledge. The two experimental conditions were dummy-coded independent variables, each of them contrasting with the non-treatment condition; all outcome measures were statistically adjusted for History Relevance pretests and six students' background variables as covariates: educational level, grade, age, gender, history outside class and historical knowledge. 'History outside class' refers to the extent to which students talked about history at home or with other people, which was measured by one item with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 'never' to 'often'. 'Historical knowledge' refers to general historical knowledge test students took prior to the intervention.

An a priori power analysis showed adequate statistical power to test our hypotheses ($\beta > .80$) for small, medium and large effects, according to the rules of thumb of Cohen (1988). All tests were conducted at the conventional alpha level of .05. As we assumed no differences regarding the fourth hypothesis, the corresponding test was not aimed at rejecting the null hypothesis, and we therefore adjusted the alpha level to $\alpha = .50$.

Model fit was evaluated with the log-likelihood test (differences between -2*LL* of the intercept-only model and the final model) and 'explained' variance. Effect sizes (Cohen's *d*) were calculated for statistically significant effects related to our main hypotheses. Standardized model-based effect sizes were calculated, expressing experimental differences after adjustment for the covariates from our statistical models. We also determined effect sizes based on observed scores (d_{obs}), expressing the experimental differences for the observed outcome measures.

5.9 Results

5.9.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 5.4 shows the descriptive statistics. Regarding the general historical knowledge test, mean score differences between groups were small and statistically insignificant, as mentioned earlier. Pretest mean scores for History Relevance-total were above average for all three groups, which can be attributed to the relatively high scores for Relevance-citizenship and Relevance-human condition. Situational Interest-total mean score was higher for the case-comparison group than for the separate-case group, which was mainly due to the relatively high scores for Maintained-SI-value and Triggered-SI. The case-comparison group had experienced less difficulty with the applied approach than the separate-case group as indicated by their Pedagogical Approach scores. Both groups correctly answered about 73 percent of the Lesson Content Knowledge items.

5.9.2 Students' appraisals of the relevance of history

Results of multilevel analyses conducted for History Relevance are presented in Table 5.5. The case-comparison condition showed significant effects for Relevance (total), Identity, Citizenship and Human Condition with small but significant model-based effect sizes of 0.09, 0.08, 0.08 and 0.06 respectively (d_{obs} = 0.17, 0.13, 0.17 and 0.12). The separate-case condition showed significant effects for Relevance (total) and Citizenship with significant model-based effect sizes of 0.06 and 0.07 respectively (d_{obs} = 0.15 and 0.21). Acknowledging the small sizes of the effects, these outcomes are in line with our hypothesis that students' appraisals of the relevance of history were positively affected to a greater extent in the case-comparison condition than in the separate-case condition.

Table 5.4 Mean scores and (standard deviations) for the measures for each group.

	N	*Case-comparison group*	N	*Separate-case group*	N	*Non-treatment group*
Historical Knowledge	460	25.61 (5.03)	273	25.49 (4.47)	289	25.11 (4.73)
History Relevance: *pretest*						
Total	460	3.78 (0.70)	273	3.79 (0.70)	289	3.79 (0.72)
Identity	460	3.03 (0.90)	273	2.98 (0.88)	289	3.08 (0.92)
Citizenship	460	4.06 (0.74)	273	4.09 (0.74)	289	4.08 (0.76)
Human condition	460	4.14 (0.85)	273	4.18 (0.87)	289	4.13 (0.91)
History Relevance: *posttest*						
Total	460	3.85 (0.76)	273	3.83 (0.70)	289	3.72 (0.76)
Identity	460	3.22 (0.94)	273	3.15 (0.87)	289	3.10 (0.94)
Citizenship	460	4.07 (0.81)	273	4.09 (0.74)	289	3.93 (0.80)
Human condition	460	4.18 (0.84)	273	4.15 (0.87)	289	4.08 (0.89)
Situational Interest (SI)						
SI (total)	444	3.21 (0.76)	264	3.12 (0.66)	-	-
Maintained-SI-Value	444	3.37 (0.76)	264	3.24 (0.72)	-	-
Maintained-SI-Feeling	444	3.17 (0.91)	264	3.12 (0.82)	-	-
Triggered-SI	444	3.10 (0.83)	264	3.00 (0.71)	-	-
Pedagogical approach	444	2.50 (0.78)	264	2.75 (0.77)	-	-
Lesson Content Knowledge	444	22.18 (3.60)	264	21.71 (4.27)	-	-

Table 5.5 Multilevel models for History Relevance ($N = 1022$).

	Relevance (total)	Identity	Citizenship	Human Condition
Fixed model				
Intercept	3.751 (.037)*	3.064 (.060)*	4.005 (.043)*	4.083 (.053)*
Case-comparison condition[a]	.130 (.032)*	.121 (.052)*	.125 (.037)*	.097 (.046)*
Separate-case condition[a]	.104 (.035)*	.068 (.057)	.117 (.041)*	.038 (.051)
Covariates				
Educational level[b]	-.028 (.029)	-.078 (.046)	-.006 (.033)	.038 (.041)
Grade[c]	.016 (.035)	.042 (.057)	-.011 (.041)	.042 (.050)
Age (centered)	.023 (.016)	.036 (.026)	.025 (.019)	.011 (.023)
Gender[d]	-.058 (.027)*	.051 (.044)	-.109 (.031)*	-.057 (.039)
History outside class	.046 (.021)*	.100 (.033)*	.099 (.024)*	.080 (.028)*
History knowledge	-.001 (.003)	.001 (.005)	.000 (.004)	.000 (.005)
Corresponding relevance pretest	.855 (.023)*	.732 (.027)*	.778 (.024)*	.691 (.023)*
Random model	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)
Class level	.040 (.016)* - .000 (.000)	.034 (.017)* - .000 (.000)	.053 (.020)* - .000 (.000)	.031 (.014)* - .000 (.000)
Student level	.520 (.023)* - .168 (.007)*	.904 (.040)* - .440 (.019)*	.583 (.026)* - .227 (.010)*	.713 (.032)* - .344 (.015)*
R^2	.70	.53	.64	.54
-2 LL for null model and final model and Δ -2LL (Δ $df = 9$)	2264.420 – 1075.946 (1188.474*)	2818.950 – 2060.851 (758.099*)	2384.131 – 1385.881 (998.250*)	2577.920 – 1809.776 (768.144*)

$R^2 = (\sigma_{\text{null model}} - \sigma_{\text{estimated model}}) / \sigma_{\text{null model}}$.
* $\rho < .05$
a Compared to the non-treatment group; b Reference category = pre-university level; c Reference category = grade 10; d Reference category = male

As expected, History Relevance pretest scores proved to be robust predictors of History Relevance posttest scores. There were no significant correlations between History Relevance posttest scores and educational level, grade, age and historical knowledge. Male students found history less relevant than female students. History outside class significantly predicted all History Relevance outcomes, implying that the extent to which students talk about history in extracurricular contexts was positively related to their views on the relevance of history.

Log-likelihood tests showed significant fit for all four History Relevance outcomes measures. The explained variance ranged from R^2 = .53 to .70, indicating strong explanatory power of the models.

5.9.3 Students' situational interest (SI)

Multilevel models for SI are shown in Table 5.6. The separate-case condition was not significantly related to any of the SI outcomes whereas the case-comparison condition showed a small but significant effect on Maintained-SI-Value (model-based effect size: 0.08, d_{obs} = 0.18). This means that the situational interest of both groups did not differ in terms of attention, engagement and enjoyment. However, the case-comparison group deemed the lessons more valuable than the separate-case group.

History Relevance pretest substantially predicted SI posttest-scores, indicating a strong positive correlation between students' views on the relevance of history and their interest regarding the lesson unit. No significant relationships were found for educational level, gender and history outside class. Grade positively correlated with Maintained-SI-Feelings, implying that grade 10 students considered the course materials more enjoyable and engaging than grade 11 and 12 students. Historical knowledge negatively related to Triggered-SI, implying that the lesson unit grabbed less attention from students with a lower knowledge level.

Log-likelihood tests showed significant fit for all four SI-models with explained variance ranging from R^2 = .11 to .21.

Table 5.6 Multilevel models for Situational Interest ($N = 708$).

	Situational Interest (SI) (scale)	Maintained-SI-Value (subscale)	Maintained-SI-feeling (subscale)	Triggered-SI (subscale)
Fixed model				
Intercept	3.026 (.080)*	3.170 (.081)*	3.007 (.096)*	2.903 (.084)*
Case-comparison condition[a]	.117 (.074)	.159 (.075)*	.091 (.088)	.094 (.076)
Covariates				
Educational level[b]	.081 (.079)	.067 (.080)	.094 (.094)	.088 (.083)
Grade[c]	.152 (.083)	.121 (.083)	.239 (.100)*	.108 (.089)
Age (centered)	.046 (.032)	.014 (.032)	.055 (.039)	.073 (.036)*
Gender[d]	-.054 (.052)	-.066 (.053)	-.120 (.065)	.019 (.059)
History outside class	.033 (.042)	.023 (.043)	-.048 (.052)	-.028 (.048)
History knowledge	-.009 (.006)	-.001 (.006)	-.009 (.008)	-.017 (.007)*
Relevance (total) pretest	.441 (.045)*	.505 (.045)*	.454 (.055)*	.346 (.050)*
Random model	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)
Class level	.042 (.017)* – .026 (.012)*	.043 (.017)* – .027 (.012)*	.049 (.021)* - .033 (.016)*	.040 (.017)* - .021 (.012)
Student level	.491 (.027)* - 417 (.023)*	.527 (.029)* - 422 (.023)*	.723 (.039)* - .644 (.035)*	.589 (.032)* - .541 (.029)*
R^2	.17	.21	.12	.11
-2 LL for null model and final model and Δ -2LL (Δ $df = 8$)	1538.526 – 1416.796 (121.730*)	1587.687 - 1425.544 (162.143*)	1807.939 – 1720.460 (87.479*)	1662.643 - 1592.170 (70.473*)

$R^2 = (\sigma_{\text{null model}} - \sigma_{\text{estimated model}}) / \sigma_{\text{null model}}$

* $\rho < .05$

a Compared to the separate-case condition; b Reference category = pre-university level; c Reference category = grade 10; d Reference category = male

5.9.4 Students' experiences with the pedagogical approach (PA)

In line with hypothesis 3, the case-comparison condition had a significant negative effect on PA outcome, implying that students in this condition considered the applied pedagogical approach less difficult than students in the separate-case condition (see Table 5.7); model-based effect size was 0.15 (d_{obs} = 0.32, corresponding to a small-to-medium effect). There were also significant correlations for gender (male students experiencing less difficulty with the approach than female students), historical knowledge and History Relevance pretest scores, whereas educational level, grade, age and history outside class were not significantly related to PA. A log-likelihood test showed adequate model fit with an explained variance of R^2 = .14.

5.9.5 Acquiring lesson content knowledge (LCK)

In line with hypothesis 4, there were no meaningful differences between the case-comparison and separate-case group in terms of knowledge acquisition (see Table 5.7) as condition had no significant effect on LCK (t = -0.250, p = .422). Educational level, grade, gender, historical knowledge and History Relevance pretest scores were significant covariates, meaning, for example, that pre-university students (VWO) performed better than middle level general secondary students (HAVO) and students with a relatively high level of general historical knowledge performed better than students with a relatively low knowledge level. Male students outperformed female students and grade 10 students underperformed grade 11 and 12 students. A log-likelihood test showed adequate model fit with an explained variance of R^2 = .21.

Table 5.7 Multilevel models for Pedagogical Approach and Lesson Content Knowledge (N = 708).

	Pedagogical Approach	Lesson Content Knowledge
Fixed model		
Intercept	2.916 (.084)*	20.445 (.486)*
Case-comparison condition[a]	-.219 (.077)*	-.115 (.459)
Covariates		
Educational level[b]	-.139 (.083)	1.956 (.478)*
Grade[c]	-.121 (.088)	-1.152 (.467)*
Age (centered)	.019 (.035)	-.119 (.159)
Gender[d]	-.165 (.058)*	.575 (.261)*
History outside class	-.037 (.047)	.232 (.210)
History knowledge	-.023 (.007)*	.205 (.032)*
Relevance (total) pretest	-.193 (.049)*	.788 (.223)*
Random model	Variance (SE)	Variance (SE)
Class level	.064 (.023)* - .023 (.012)	3.016 (.915)* - 1.577 (.529)*
Student level	.555 (.030)* - 511 (.028)*	11.942 (.651)* - 10.177 (.555)*
R^2	.14	.21
-2 LL for null model and final model and Δ -2LL (Δ df = 8)	1632.108 - 1556.167 (75.941*)	3818.513 - 3692.769 (125.744*)

$R^2 = (\sigma_{\text{null model}} - \sigma_{\text{estimated model}}) / \sigma_{\text{null model}}$

* $\rho < .05$

a Compared to the separate-case condition; b Reference category = pre-university level; c Reference category = grade 10; d Reference category = male

5.10 Conclusion and discussion

In this study, we examined the efficacy of history teaching about an enduring human issue by means of comparing analogous cases from different periods. In both experimental conditions, this way of teaching had a positive effect on students' appraisals of the relevance of history compared to the relevance perceptions of students who followed the regular history curriculum. As we hypothesized, students' relevance appraisals were positively affected to a greater extent in the case-comparison condition than in the separate-case condition. The case-comparison group also considered the lesson unit more valuable and had less difficulty with the applied pedagogical approach, which contrasted strongly with the history curriculum students were accustomed to. They did not underperform in terms of knowledge acquisition, even though the focus was on comparison activities and drawing analogies between past and present whereas learning activities in the separate-case condition aimed at gaining historical knowledge and practicing historical thinking skills. These results are in line with cognitive psychology research literature evincing positive effects of case-based comparison activities and meaningful contexts on learning performances and subject matter value perceptions (e.g. Alfieri et al., 2013; Gentner, Loewestein, & Thompson, 2003).

Overall, students in both treatment groups as well as in the non-treatment group associated the relevance of history with 'becoming a citizen' and 'understanding the human condition' rather than with 'building a personal identity'. These results comply with findings from a large-scale European survey on students' attitudes towards historical consciousness (Angvik & Borries, 1997), revealing that, on average, students see more relevance in history for orienting on the present and future than for guiding their individual lives. The results also comply with a Dutch 'school history experience' survey conducted among grade 11 and 12 middle level general secondary and pre-university secondary students, according to which a large majority believed that history is irrelevant for learning more about the self (Van der Kaap & Folmer, 2016). Given the mean age of participants (about 16 years), our findings are also in line with claims that identity building processes occur late in adolescence and sometimes not even until young adulthood (e.g. Steinberg & Morris, 2001). However, it has been demonstrated in this study that students' attitudes towards the relevance of history in terms of building a

personal identity can be influenced, even when controlling for students' background characteristics.

Although the intervention yielded statistically significant effects on students' appraisals of the relevance of history, effect sizes were small. There are some obvious explanations. Consistent with other empirical findings (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018; Van der Kaap & Folmer, 2016), students in the treatment groups as well as in the non-treatment group deemed history considerably relevant at the start of the experiment, leaving limited room for improvement; the fact that students had opted for a curriculum including history has probably been of influence. Although the intervention was spread over several weeks and involved pedagogical approaches students were unfamiliar with, its duration was actually relatively short, reducing the chance of generating impact and change in the classroom (Slavin, 2008). Furthermore, measuring interventional effects on students' history relevance appraisals presupposes a change of opinions and attitudes. Attitude change depends on a complex interplay of multiple factors, such as a person's need for social acceptance, motivation, the complexity of knowledge underlying existing beliefs or the ability for processing information that might influence those beliefs (Fabrigar, Petty, Smith, & Crites, 2006; Mason, 2001; Petty & Wegener, 1998; Wood, 2000). As both cognitive and affective factors play a role here, focusing on cognitive learning activities - like in this study - does not guarantee attitude modification. Moreover, research has indicated greater stability in attitudes for older than younger individuals (e.g. Alwin & Krosnick, 1991). Given all of these considerations, there is reason to believe that the small increases in relevance appraisals detected in this study may be more meaningful than their modest size suggests. Also, it would be worthwhile to further experiment with this study's pedagogical approaches in junior secondary education, not only because junior secondary students are presumably more susceptible to attitude change, but also because studies have shown that junior students have lower history relevance appraisals than their senior peers (Haeberli, 2005; Haydn & Harris, 2010; Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018; Wilschut, 2013).

Three limitations of this study should be borne in mind. First, not all classes were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions and operating in a natural educational setting may have been influenced by potential differences between groups. We have reduced selection bias by (1) using multilevel analysis controlling for several background

characteristics, (2) determining equivalence between all groups at the pretest, and (3) using a relatively large sample size (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Slavin, 2008).

Second, although students in the separate-case group were not actively encouraged to compare cases, it cannot be ruled out that they did make comparisons, even though in educational contexts people are not inclined to compare analogous situations spontaneously (Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003; Rittle-Johnson & Star, 2007). Two out of 11 teachers participating in the separate-case condition reported that students occasionally referred to current refugee issues, but, according to instructions, these teachers did not respond and summoned the students to focus on lesson contents.

Third, the topic of the lesson unit - migration and integration – referred to current affairs in the Netherlands during the lesson intervention due to Syrian refugees seeking asylum in Europe. This may have affected the outcomes – either in a positive way by triggering students' engagement or in a negative way by evoking feelings of aversion or saturation. Therefore, further research should deploy various enduring issues – including less morally laden – to test the generalizability of the observed effects in this study.

If history is to contribute to the education of students on their path to citizenship, knowledge of the past should be connected to perceptions of the present and expectations for the future. To date, there is a lack of empirically-based pedagogical tools teachers can use for making such connections. This study was undertaken to fill this gap by examining the efficacy of analogical reasoning and case comparison learning in the context of teaching an enduring human issue. The findings show that these pedagogical approaches are powerful tools to enhance the quality of history teaching. Comparing ways in which people in the past responded to enduring issues provides students with opportunities to develop thoughts about contemporary dealings with similar issues, thus using historical knowledge for their orientation on present and future. These are important yields for practitioners who are pursuing meaningful history teaching and trying to enhance student motivation.

Chapter 6

CONNECTING THE PAST AND THE PRESENT THROUGH CASE-COMPARISON LEARNING IN HISTORY: EXPERIENCES AND VIEWS OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS[5]

History education frequently aims at developing active citizenship by using the past to orientate on the present and the future. A pedagogy for pursuing this aim is making connections between the past and the present by means of comparing cases of an enduring human issue. To examine the feasibility of this case-comparison approach, students (N = 444) and teachers (N = 15) who participated in an implementation study conducted in the Netherlands were questioned about their experiences and opinions. Results show that both students and teachers felt that case-comparison in the context of an enduring human issue is feasible and not more complex than the usual history teaching in which topics are studied separately without explicitly making comparisons between past and present, even if some students believed that taking account of episodes from different historical periods concurrently required an extra learning effort. Both students and teachers supported the idea of connecting past and present in history to enhance engagement and meaning making. They suggested a curriculum combining the case-comparison approach with the type of history teaching they were accustomed to. Mixed methods were used for data collection. Implications for further research on case-comparison learning in history are being discussed.

6.1 Introduction

It is often being argued that history as a school subject is important because of the academic skills involved and because knowledge of the past may be employed for a better understanding of the present. While academic skills unmistakably have their value in today's information society, application of historical knowledge in 'practical' present-day contexts is a much more complex issue. It requires specific learning activities, especially when dealing with topics much further back in time than contemporary history. If history is to be contributive to the personal development of students and their

[5] Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R., Connecting the past and the present through case-comparison learning in history: experiences and views of teachers and students. Submitted to *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 14 March 2018 (first review received, resubmitted).

preparation for active citizenship, they should be taught how to use knowledge of the past in their orientation on the present and future. In earlier work, we identified three pedagogical approaches for pursuing this goal: (1) teaching with longitudinal lines describing long-term political, socio-economical or cultural developments, for example, the emergence of national states; (2) teaching with analogies between the past and the present, for example, an analogy between the Roman Empire and the European Union; and (3) teaching with enduring human issues (i.e. issues shared by humans of all times because they are essential to human existence, such as religious beliefs, government, trade, food and sickness) (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016).

In a previous study, we reported on the effects of a large-scale experiment among Dutch senior secondary school students which revealed that history teaching combining the second and third pedagogical approach positively affected students' appraisals of the relevance of history and their valuing of lesson content (Van Straaten, Wilschut, Oostdam, & Fukkink, 2018). During this experiment, students compared historical and contemporary cases of an enduring human issue which enabled them to use the past in reflections on current affairs. Given the fact that this type of teaching is an innovative practice in Dutch history education which may potentially enhance students' estimations of the relevance of history, we wanted to learn more about the implementation of this teaching method. The principal aim of the present study is to investigate the feasibility of history teaching employing connections between past and present by means of case-comparison in the context of an enduring human issue. We questioned teachers and students involved in the experiment about the feasibility of this case-comparison approach, assuming they would be able to give an adequate evaluation of this type of teaching from their own experiences.

6.2 Connecting past and present

People naturally make connections between the past, the present and the future because they are endowed with a memory storing experiences on which actions and expectations are based (Becker, 1931; Kahneman, 2011; Karlsson, 2011). However, this 'existential' historical consciousness does not necessarily imply that the professional study of history has an intrinsic value for people. People's spontaneous relationship with the past must be distinguished from deliberate historical study. According to Oakeshott (1983), serious

historical study implies the 'most sophisticated' attitude one can adopt, 'difficult to achieve', and also highly prone to relapse 'into some other kind of engagement' (p. 28). Lowenthal (2000) contends 'that to fathom history demands effort, and to teach it calls for experience and judgment' (p. 64). Lee (2005) typifies the key principles of the historical discipline as 'counterintuitive' (p. 33), meaning that historical thinking does not always accord with people's usual modes of thought.

These reflections on historical study are confirmed by empirical research showing that students are not inclined to make connections between past, present and future of their own accord (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008; Lee, 2004; Mosborg, 2002; Shreiner, 2014). In England, the project Usable Historical Pasts investigated the extent to which 14- to 16-year-olds appealed to historical knowledge when discussing contemporary issues (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008). Considering the question whether the United States would retain its world hegemony, only 8% of students' responses contained explicit references to the past. In a case study we conducted ourselves, 2 out of 54 ninth-graders used their knowledge of the Cold War to substantiate opinions about the legitimacy of imposing ideological systems with a universal validity claim. It seemed that it never occurred to these students that history can be used for such purpose (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018).

A lack of readily available knowledge may prevent students to link the past to the present, as was put forward by students in the Usable Historical Past project (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008). Students' epistemological beliefs about history are an impediment as well, as they tend to conceive the past as a closed entity of given facts and dates about a world 'out there' which cannot have any meaning for the present because it exists no longer. As Dunn (2000) has put it: 'The key epistemological problem in history education is to figure out how students use their minds to connect their reality to the experience of human beings who are dead and gone' (p. 137). Students have difficulty to grasp the idea that history represents narrative accounts of the past serving contemporary needs and interests. Their inclination to stress the importance of the role of human agents in history impedes their thinking in terms of long-term patterns of alternating change and continuity affecting the present (Barton, 2008; Blow, 2009; Lee, 2005; Sandahl, 2015; Shemilt, 2009). These epistemological beliefs are probably reinforced by the way in which history is usually taught (i.e., through the study of the past as an end in itself, and by high-stake

tests emphasizing the recitation of facts) (Rosenzweig, 2000; Saye & SSIRC, 2013; Stern, 2010). All of this may explain why students, particularly junior secondary students, have unarticulated views on the usefulness of history (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Biddulph & Adey, 2003; Harris & Reynolds, 2014; Haydn & Harris, 2010).

6.3 Case-comparison learning in the context of enduring human issues

Cognitive psychological research has shown that case-comparison learning activities offer more opportunities for knowledge application and meaning making than traditional forms of instruction such as reading and lecturing (Alfieri, Nokes-Malch, & Schunn, 2013; Gentner, Loewestein, & Thompson, 2003). Through case comparison students discern structural characteristics underlying similar cases thus 'decontextualizing' descriptive information into principles that can be applied to understand new cases bearing similarities with known ones, but differing in specific characteristics (Alfieri, Nokes-Malch, & Schunn, 2013; Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003; Salomon & Perkins, 1989). Case-comparison learning involves higher order thinking skills that facilitate knowledge transfer, such as categorizing and inferring (Richland & Simms, 2015). These insights fit well with the benefits of using conceptual frameworks and concept-based instruction for the learning of history (Thornton & Barton, 2010; Twyman, McCleery, & Tindal, 2006).

Case-comparison learning in a curriculum organized around enduring human issues puts students in a position to consider societal phenomena which can broaden their understandings of the present and their awareness of their own values and ideals, thus generating insights which have value beyond school. Research has shown that applicability in 'real life' is what encourages students to learn and what they find important in valuing the relevance of school subjects (Brophy, 1999; Eccles, 2004; Frymier, & Shulman, 1995; Tileston, 2004; Martin, 2003; Muddiman & Frymier, 2009; Pintrich, 2003). Active construction of knowledge by relating new information to prior knowledge, which is a core activity in case-comparison learning, nurtures meaningful learning (Narayan, Rodriguez, Araujo, Shaqlaih, & Moss 2013; Novak, 2002). These learning principles are consistent with history education literature, claiming that learning activities aiming at source-based interpretation promote student engagement and provide

greater opportunities for meaning making than activities targeting at memorization and factual recall (Barton, 2008; Barton & Levstik, 2011; Lévesque, 2008; Seixas, 2000).

6.4 Effects of case-comparison history teaching

In a previous study, we applied the case-comparison learning principles in a classroom intervention dealing with the issue of migration, in particular the influx and reception of refugees in past and present societies. Participants were grade 10 to 12 students (N = 444) from two tracks of Dutch senior secondary education (middle level track or HAVO and pre-university track or VWO). In a six-lesson unit (see Table 6.1), these students made explicit comparisons between Syrian refugees arriving in the Netherlands in 2016 and five refugee groups from different historical periods: (1) Protestants leaving the Catholic southern Netherlands for the Protestant north during the Dutch Revolt (16th century); (2) Persecuted Jews seeking refuge in the Dutch Republic (17th century); (3) Belgians fleeing from First World War violence towards the neutral Netherlands; (4) Germans being expelled from former German territory in Poland, Russia and Czechoslovakia after the Second World War; (5) Cubans leaving for the US after the communist takeover by Fidel Castro in 1959.

Lesson goals and learning activities were directed at seeking similarities and differences between the five historical refugee cases and between each case and present-day refugee issues. Students used a framework of key questions and concepts in order to facilitate comparison activities and the transfer of historical knowledge to present situations and vice versa (Appendix F). In accordance with the theoretical framework described above, we assumed that mirroring the past to the present would stimulate students to make meaning and consequently have a positive effect on their appraisals of the relevance of history. We have defined relevance of history as 'allowing students to recognize and experience what history has to do with themselves, with today's society and their general understanding of human existence' and accordingly distinguished three relevance domains: building a personal identity, becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2016).

Table 6.1 Design of the lesson unit in the case-comparison experiment conducted earlier.

	Activities	Explanation
Lesson 1	Demonstrating the key questions framework for case comparison and drawing analogies with the present Applying the framework to current refugee issues.	Key questions framework: see Appendix F
Lesson 2-6	Comparing five historical refugee cases and using them to reflect on present-day refugee issues. Two assignment types: 1 Analyzing and comparing refugee cases using the key questions framework. 2 Considering present-day refugee issues by drawing analogies with the past cases.	Assignment examples [Source: Authorities in Miami issued an informative movie to reduce growing concerns among the population about the arrival of large quantities of Cuban refugees in 1961] 1 Which questions and concepts from the key questions framework can you relate to the concerns of the people of Miami? Choose two. 2 The government appealed to American history to reassure the population. Nowadays, could the Dutch government refer to immigration in Dutch history for this purpose? Explain your opinion.

We developed and validated the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS), a questionnaire which can be used for measuring students' relevance perceptions in the three domains (Van Straaten, Wilschut, & Oostdam, 2018) (see Appendix A). In order to evaluate the effects of the case-comparison classroom intervention discussed here, the RHMS was administered in a pre- and post-test setting. Set against the results of students following the usual history curriculum ($N = 289$), multilevel regression analyses on the collected data had shown that the intervention positively affected students' appraisals of the relevance of history in all three domains (Van Straaten, Wilschut, Oostdam, & Fukkink, 2018).

6.5 The present study

The teaching of history according to the case-comparison approach differs fundamentally from the history education students are familiar with. The Dutch history curriculum requires students to learn frame of reference knowledge encompassing ten historical eras (from 'hunters and farmers' to 'television and computer'), to master historical thinking and reasoning skills and to acquire specifically defined knowledge of historical topics, e.g., the Dutch Republic (1515-1648), the Enlightenment (1650-1848), the Cold War (1945-1991). Subject matter is usually taught in chronological order purporting the acquisition of historical knowledge in order to understand the past. Given the differences between the diachronic case-comparison approach and the history teaching students were accustomed to, we wanted to know whether implementing this approach caused any problems. Therefore, we examined the feasibility of case-comparison history teaching as implemented in our classroom intervention. This examination was guided by the following research questions:

1. According to teachers and students, should history teaching focus on the past as well as on the present in view of school subject relevance?
2. What is the perceived complexity of history teaching focusing on comparing cases of an enduring human issue?
3. Is this way of teaching desirable and feasible according to teachers and students and taking into account the extent to which students use the past to orientate on the present?

For a successful implementation of the case-comparison approach it is important to know whether students and teachers consider linking the past to the present as something that should be pursued in history teaching, also in view of the relevance of history (RQ 1). Because students were used to studying historical topics separately, we assumed that they might have encountered difficulties with the comparison of topics from different periods while simultaneously taking into account time-bound differences (RQ 2). Three indicators were used for examining the feasibility and desirability of the case-comparison approach (RQ 3): students' and teachers' preferences for either case-comparison teaching or traditional history teaching; the extent to which case-comparison teaching encouraged students to use historical knowledge when reflecting on current affairs;

teachers' thoughts on the dilemma of using the past in an analogy with the present on the one hand, and fostering awareness of historical difference and avoiding presentism on the other. (According to Lowenthal (2000), studying generic topics – migration, conquest, slavery – may be useful, but may also impose 'presentist blinkers' (p. 70) and impede true historical understanding.)

6.6 Method

6.6.1 Participants

In total, 460 students and 18 teachers were involved in the case-comparison experiment. For the present study, 444 students and 15 teachers completed our questionnaires. We conducted interviews with 4 teachers and 22 students from different schools located in six out of the twelve Dutch provinces (see Table 6.2 for specifics). Both teacher and student interviewees represented all grades and educational tracks involved in the experiment. The students were interviewed in dyads.

Table 6.2 Interviewees: teachers ($N = 4$) and students ($N = 22$, 11 dyads).

	Middle level general secondary education (HAVO)		Pre-university secondary education (VWO)		Gender		
	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 11	Grade 12	Female	Male	Teaching experience
Teacher 1	X				1		18
Teacher 2		X				1	18
Teacher 3			X			1	10
Teacher 4				X	1		28
Students:							Mean age
Dyad 1	X					2	16
Dyad 2-6		X			7	3	17
Dyad 7-9			X		4	2	17
Dyad 10-11				X	2	2	18

6.6.2 Data collection and analysis

Tables 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5 show the instruments used for data collection. After completing the lesson unit and without knowledge of the outcomes of the experiment, the teachers filled out an online questionnaire measuring their expectations of the outcomes and their views on the case-comparison approach. This questionnaire consisted of 12 items placed on a 5-point Likert scale (1: totally disagree; 2: disagree; 3: neutral; 4: agree; 5: totally agree). Items 5-8 were counterparts of four questionnaire items administered to students using the same scale, which enabled us to compare teachers' expectations of the outcomes with the actual experiences reported by students. Item 4 of the teacher questionnaire corresponds to the measurements conducted with the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS), which revealed, as described in 6.4, that students' relevance perceptions had been positively affected by the case-comparison approach. The 24 RHMS-items are not included in Table 6.3 for practical reasons. For research ends, the teacher questionnaire was not carried out anonymously. Mean scores were calculated for each item. The mean scores of items 5-8 were compared with the mean scores of the corresponding student questionnaire items.

Like the questionnaires, the interviews were conducted after the experiment had been completed and before the outcomes were known to the teachers. To ensure representativeness of data, one teacher from each educational stream participated. The teachers were interviewed individually in about 60 minutes by the first author using the standardized open-ended interview technique, i.e., guided by questions worded and sequenced in advance and corresponding to the research questions themes under examination (Patton 1980). The interview questions were in line with the teacher questionnaire items.

The student interviewees volunteered after a general call from their teachers to participate. The interviews were conducted by the first author using the standardized open-ended interview technique. Students were interviewed in dyads to make them feel at ease and to stimulate response (Frechtling & Sharp, 1997). On average, the interviews lasted 25 minutes.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Data analysis was research question driven, i.e., the issues raised by the main questions were used as pre-ordinate categories for collecting and compiling data across respondents (Cohen, Manion,

Morrison, 2007). The analysis comprised six stages: (1) reading the transcripts to get the overall picture thus maintaining a sense of holism of the data; (2) delineating units of meaning relevant to the research questions; (3) clustering units of relevant meaning; (4) counting cluster frequencies in order to discern dominant trends; (5) summarizing dominant trends while noting deviant responses; (6) using verbatim quotes to illustrate clusters and trends (Hycner; 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Table 6.3 Measures of the study regarding RQ 1; questionnaires: closed-format with a 5-point Likert scale.

	Teacher questionnaire	Teacher interview	Student questionnaire	Student interview
Past-present connections and relevance of history (RQ 1)	1) In general, students find history more fun when relationships between past and present are being made. 2) In general, students find history more relevant when relationships between past and present are being made 3) During the lesson unit I noticed that students find history more appealing when current events are involved. 4) I think that students have become more aware of the relevance of history because of the case-comparison lesson unit.	Do you think history teaching should focus on the past or on past-present relationships? Do you think that students have come to appreciate the relevance history (more) through the lesson unit?	[Effects of the case-comparison lesson intervention on students' appraisals of the relevance of history were measured with the RHMS questionnaire in a previous study.]	Do you think history teaching should be about the past or about the past and the present? [Effects of the case-comparison lesson intervention on students' appraisals of the relevance of history were measured with the RHMS questionnaire in a previous study.]

Table 6.4 Measures of the study regarding RQ 2; questionnaires: closed-format with a 5-point Likert scale.

	Teacher questionnaire	Teacher interview	Student questionnaire	Student interview
Complexity of the case-comparison approach (RQ 2)	5) I think students found the case-comparison approach (lessons about an enduring human issue with examples from different times) confusing. 6) I think students thought it was difficult to understand the refugee examples because there were many of them. 7) I think students found the case-comparison approach more difficult than the history teaching they are used to.	In general, what are your experiences with the lesson unit project? How did it go? Did the key questions framework work as planned?	1) Lessons about topics from different times are confusing. 2) In the refugee lessons, there were so many different topics that it was difficult to understand them. 3) Teaching a theme with topics from different times (like in the refugee lessons) is more difficult than the history teaching we are used to.	In general, what are your experiences with the lesson unit project? How did it go? You compared refugee groups from different times including the present. Did you find this method more difficult than the usual method? Did you find the key questions framework helpful?

Table 6.5 Measures of the study regarding RQ 3; questionnaires: closed-format with a 5-point Likert scale**.**

	Teacher questionnaire	Teacher interview	Student questionnaire	Student interview
Desirability and feasibility of the case-comparison approach (RQ 3)	8) I think students preferred the history teaching they are used to instead of history teaching according to the case-comparison approach. 9) The case-comparison approach is feasible in middle level and pre-university senior secondary education (grade 10-12). 10) The case-comparison approach is also feasible in lower middle level and pre-university junior secondary education (grade 7-10). 11) I intend to use this approach more often in my lessons. 12) This approach should be part of the national history examination.	Do you think this pedagogical approach is feasible in secondary education? What would you do differently the next time you apply this approach? Theoretically, comparing past and present can be viewed as problematic. What is your view on this?	4) I prefer history teaching in the way of the refugee project instead of history teaching we are used to.	What do you prefer: the history teaching according to the method of the lesson unit or the history teaching you are used to?

6.7 Results

6.7.1 Past-present connections and the relevance of history (RQ 1)

According to the questionnaire results, the teachers quite strongly believed that, in general, students experience more fun and school subject relevance when past and

present are being connected in history class (see Table 6.6). Somewhat less strongly, and with more difference of opinion, they also reported to have noticed during the course of the experiment, that students found history more appealing as soon as current events were involved. Contrary to the outcomes of the experiment, which positively affected students' relevance perceptions, the teachers had no high expectations about this.

These findings are supported by the teacher interview data. The interviewees strongly argued the importance of linking the past to the present for meaning making and engaging students, but were cautious in their assessments of the efficacy of the case-comparison approach in this respect. One teacher expected small effects because of the relatively short duration of the intervention (6 lessons). Two teachers abstained from bold predictions, although they had noticed that the lessons had grabbed the attention and interest of their students.

Table 6.6 Teachers' experiences and expectations of their students' perceptions on past-present relationships and relevance of history, in general and pertaining to the case-comparison experiment (N = 15); mean scores and (standard deviations) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = totally disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = totally agree).

1) In general, students find history more fun when relationships between past and present are being made.	4.33 (.49)
2) In general, students find history more relevant when relationships between past and present are being made.	4.27 (.46)
3) During the lesson unit I noticed that students find history more appealing when current events are involved.	3.67 (.98)
4) I think that students have become more aware of the relevance of history because of the lesson unit.	3.07 (.70)

Most student interviewees strongly believed that history teaching should encompass both past and present. Three main motivations can be deduced from their elaborations on this issue, which are listed below, illustrated with quotes.

(1) Linking the past to the present enhances personal interest, benefit and engagement in learning history. Students made it clear that history should be connected to their own

lives in order to have any meaning and that connecting the past to the present is an appropriate way to accomplish this.

> I think people are more interested because they recognize things. If you only do history, most find it less interesting. I think it's a bit more fun when the present is also involved (female, grade 11, middle level track).

> History should focus on both past and present. I do not really think I can use a lot of what happened in the past. You know a bit more about how things came about, but I do not think my life would be much worse if I did not know anything about history (female, grade 11, middle level track).

> You see that history can be used for what we do now and then there is more importance to it. When you open the regular textbook and read something about prehistoric times, then you do not have that kind of oh… this applies to how I live now (female, grade 11 pre-university track).

> I certainly think [history should be] about the present and the past, because sometimes they say what's the point of history. I think that for many people history will [no longer] be dusty like 'this happened 2000 years ago' . . . it gets a bit more animated (female, grade 12, pre-university education).

(2) Linking the past to the present supports learning and understanding. Students not only referred to a better understanding of the present but also of the past, as is indicated by the first two quotations below. It seemed that in learning history, it helps students to make connections with currents affairs they can identify with.

> If you can compare [the past] with recent developments, you also understand the past better (male, grade 10, middle level track).

> It may be useful if we compare a few things with the present to understand them better. I think it is easier to understand than if you just read it in a book (female, grade 11, middle level track).

> I do not really care what kind of king has been stabbed to death in the 13th century . . . If it is more up-to-date, you remember it better and you want to know more about it (male, grade 10, middle level track).

(3) Linking the past to the present allows orientation on the present and the future. Students' responses varied from drawing morally laden lessons from the past to a better understanding of contemporary problems and reflecting on future developments in this respect.

> If you compare, and then consider what you can do with it, then it makes a difference in the future, that history will not repeat itself if something bad has happened (female, grade 11, middle level track).

> It means that you are going to compare it with nowadays, how it can be done better, that you also have to act the way they did (male, grade 11, middle level track).

> You need the past to understand the present. For example, the Enlightenment affected the present, just like the First and Second World War. I think you should certainly make a connection with things from the past that caused what we are experiencing now, perhaps even will experience in the future (male, grade 12, pre-university track).

> You learn to understand the present better, you can better understand today's problems by looking at examples from the past (male, grade 12, pre-university track).

There were some students, most of the lowest (middle level) track, who preferred teaching about the past only and who did not favor making connections with the present. They argued in different ways, for example by saying that the past bears 'nicer topics, such as the Romans', or by stating that it was useless to bring in the present because history tests only focus on knowledge of the past. One student saw no use in connecting past and present because the present was all too well known: 'I think you know what it looks like now and what you can do with it now'. Another student questioned the whole point of studying examples of historical refugee groups in the context of current refugees issues, as 'you do not notice anything anymore of the examples from the past'. The latter two comments illustrate students' naïve epistemological beliefs about history as described in section 6.2, such as the idea that the past is fixed and 'gone' and therefore cannot have any connection with the present.

6.7.2 Complexity of the case-comparison approach (RQ 2)

Table 6.7 shows the outcomes of the teacher questionnaire and the corresponding items in the student questionnaire with regard to the complexity of the case-comparison approach.

Table 6.7 Teachers' expectations of their students' views on the complexity of the case-comparison experiment and actual students' views; mean scores and (standard deviations) on a 5-point Likert scale (1: totally disagree; 2: disagree; 3: neutral; 4: agree; 5: totally agree).

Teacher questionnaire items	Teachers (N = 15)	Corresponding student questionnaire items	Students (N = 444)
5) I think students found the case-comparison approach (lessons about an enduring human issue with examples from different times) confusing.	2.60 (1.24)	1) Lessons about topics from different times are confusing.	2.59 (1.04)
6) I think students thought it was difficult to understand the refugee examples because there were many of them.	2.53 (0.99)	2) In the refugee lessons, there were so many different topics that it was difficult to understand them.	2.47 (0.95)
7) I think students found the case-comparison approach more difficult than the history teaching they are used to.	2.80 (1.08)	3) Teaching a theme with topics from different times (like in the refugee lessons) is more difficult than the history teaching we are used to.	2.43 (0.92)

Their estimates closely approximate the actual findings in the student questionnaire, with the exception of the last question (7), to which the students' answer indicates that they found the comparison approach even less difficult than their teachers expected.

The data from the student interviews corresponded with the questionnaire outcomes. In general, students reported no difficulties with the case-comparison approach, arguing, for example, that the lesson unit focused on one specific theme illustrated by similar and therefore comparable examples, which facilitated learning and comprehension. One student was ambivalent on this issue:

> It is a bit ambiguous. On the one hand I find it very chaotic, that you always go from one era to another, but on the other hand you really stick to one subject . .

> . The fact . . . that you also have to think what was very different in that time and what was normal, made the subject complicated. For example, the Southern Netherlanders in 1500 . . . had very different things to deal with than the Cubans. So you always had to take the situation into account . . . that made it a bit chaotic. But I like sticking to one subject (female, grade 11, pre-university track).

These remarks are in line with considerations of two grade 12 pre-university students who suggested that the case-comparison approach might be more difficult than regular history teaching:

> Boy: You have to make more connections yourself instead of having it typed out for you and . . . you simply read it in chronological order.
> Girl: You have to make more effort indeed.
> Boy: Yes, you always jump from one time to another, so you have to find out for yourself, oh, that's the same and those are the differences, so that development is going on. Instead of it all being spelled out for you.
> Girl: I also think that, when you really have a very long time span, it becomes increasingly difficult to separate things.
>
> Q: *What do you prefer, this type of history teaching […] or history teaching in the way you are used to?*
>
> Boy: I prefer this way, but I do not think I am the average history student. I am very good at history and I also find it all interesting, that's why I liked this approach. But I think most other students would say that they just want it to be spelled out for them and to have it very easy.
> Girl: I agree. I think that a combination of both [approaches] would be fun. So that you sometimes have to do a theme, one or two each period, and for the rest you get the usual history lessons.

Both teacher and student interviewees indicated that the key questions framework (see Appendix F) supported the analyzing of sources and the case-comparison learning activities. Students found working with the framework's categories helpful, because, as one put it:

> You can then decide what you need to look at, politically or economically. . . . . Without being aware of it, you dig deeper into things, because you look at

> different sides. You split the topic in different aspects and that helps (female, grade 11, pre-university track).

According to two pre-university students and one pre-university teacher, using the framework became too easy in the end and therefore too much of a routine job.

6.7.3 Desirability and feasibility of the case-comparison approach (RQ 3)

In spite of teachers' expectations regarding students' preference for the case-comparison approach, students did not clearly prefer this approach to the usual history teaching (see Table 6.8). Student interviewees were divided on this issue: some preferred the regular teaching because of the chronological ordering of events while others preferred the case-comparison teaching because the thematic approach provided structure and offered them opportunity to find out things for themselves. Remarkably, students from both 'camps' used 'variety' as an argument. In general, students proposed to combine both types of history teaching, suggesting that the regular curriculum could serve as a base for thematic case-comparison learning.

Table 6.8 Teachers' expectations of their students' preferences for the case-comparison or current history teaching and actual students' views; mean scores and (standard deviations) on a 5-point Likert scale (1: totally disagree; 2: disagree; 3: neutral; 4: agree; 5: totally agree).

Teacher questionnaire items	Teachers (N = 15)	Corresponding student questionnaire items	Students (N = 444)
8) I think students preferred the history teaching they are used to instead of history teaching according to the case-comparison approach.	2.60 (1.06)	I prefer history teaching in the way of the refugee project instead of history teaching we are used to.	2.68 (1.07)

Feasibility of a pedagogic approach not only depends on whether it is deemed 'doable' by teachers and students, but also on the extent to which it realizes its aims. Therefore, we examined to what extent case-comparison history teaching triggered students to reflect on the present. When asked about the merits of the case-comparison approach as applied in the lesson unit, students elaborated on similarities and differences between the five historical refugee groups and present-day refugees in the Netherlands. They

implicitly used the key questions framework to describe differences between past and present refugee issues, for example by stating that the cultural dimension - language, religion, habits – is more dominant nowadays than it was in the past. One student stated:

> Well, people very often use the argument that we have to shelter refugees because we used to do that in the past; in the past it did not go wrong and that's why we have to do that now. But if you then look at the [cultural] differences between refugees, formerly the Belgians in 1914 and now from Syria . . . people do not really look at that aspect, they just think it used to be okay so why would it go wrong, and they do not take those other interests into consideration. I think that's why [history] helps (male, grade 12, pre-university track).

In general, students were impressed by the large numbers of Belgians who arrived in the Netherlands in the autumn of 1914 (about one million refugees on a total Dutch population of 6.2 million). It made some of them trivialize concerns about the allegedly large numbers of people seeking shelter in the Netherlands in 2016 and prompted them to raise questions about the present situation:

> There were actually a lot of refugees in the Netherlands [1 million Belgians in 1914]. They said we stay here, we are going to work here, and when the war is over we go back again. I thought that was a good reason, that they were here and went back again. Then I . . . wondered very much if refugees think so nowadays. We know that we are getting refugees, people talk about them like they are a herd of animals . . . that's how it's talked about. But there is no real talk about whether they ever want to go back or whether they stay here permanently. That is not told. On social media everyone has an opinion, while nobody actually knows anything. Maybe they just want to go back. We do not know that. (grade 11, pre-university, female).

Not all students dwelled on past-present analogies so extensively. Straightforward conclusions were drawn as well, for example by stating that history always repeats itself – what applied to refugees in the past still applies to refugees today – without regard to time-bound differences.

Based on their experiences, the teachers strongly believed that history teaching according to the case-comparison approach is feasible in the two highest tracks of senior secondary education (Table 6.9). They intended to apply this approach more often and

advocated inclusion of case-comparison in the examination program. The teacher interviewees' remarks were in line with these outcomes. The teachers found the approach feasible for their students, but suggested that next time they would spend more time on comparison activities by reducing the number of historical examples, by using the key questions framework strictly for comparing cases (and not for analyzing individual texts) or by augmenting student-centered learning activities such as discussion and deliberation.

Table 6.9 Teachers' views on the feasibility of the case-comparison approach (N = 15); mean scores and (standard deviations) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = totally disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = totally agree).

9) The case-comparison approach is feasible in middle level and pre-university senior secondary education (grade 10-12).	4.53 (.52)
10) The case-comparison approach is also feasible in lower middle level and pre-university junior secondary education (grade 7-10).	3.60 (.83)
11) I intend to use this approach more often in my lessons.	3.87 (.74)
12) This approach should be part of the national history examination.	4.00 (.59)

The teachers interviewees considered the case-comparison approach as complementary to the traditional way of history teaching and were not inclined to exchange one for the other. As in the extant curriculum frame of reference knowledge is taught in junior secondary education and repeated recursively in senior secondary education, they argued to focus on case-comparison learning in senior education and on reference knowledge learning in the junior stages. They saw obstacles for the implementation of the case-comparison approach in junior secondary education, for example junior students' preoccupation with historical details, but also felt that application was worth trying. One teacher said:

> Children are quite capable of seeing differences and similarities. Whether they are capable of discerning long-term processes and have sufficient power of abstraction . . . of course not, but if you do not confront them with [the case-comparison method], and think they are ready for it as soon as they are senior students . . . I do not believe in that (male, middle level track).

We asked the teachers what their thoughts were on the compatibility of the case-comparison approach and the axioms of academic history. They were fully aware of the tension between studying the past on its own terms – acknowledging the 'otherness' of former times – and the tendency to generalize inherent in analogical reasoning, which might give cause to presentism. However, this dilemma would not refrain them from using the method as it appeared to be a good way to make history meaningful for students. As one teacher explained:

> I think you need to deal with this [tension] in a nuanced way. Some people talk very easily about a kind of cyclic history and say that everything repeats itself. . . . I find that very dangerous. On the other hand, constantly emphasizing that all past events are unique makes the subject completely meaningless. You can say that [emphasizing uniqueness] teaches students that everything is not always the same, but I think this is a very poor learning outcome. … I think you have to indicate that things are unique, but that certain aspects are not unique at all. That people's behaviors were not strange at all, because they are also manifest today and will also occur in the future. I find that very useful teaching principles (male, middle level track).

6.8 Conclusion and discussion

It should be noted that the views and experiences discussed in this article relate to lessons about migration and integration, current topics at the moment the experiment took place. This calls for further research to see whether application of the case-comparison approach with other topics would lead to similar results. The teachers volunteered to participate in the experiment, which may have increased selection bias in the sense that they might have had a positive view of history teaching aiming at past-present analogies. Taking these limitations into account, the findings of this study provide useful insights into the implementation of this type of teaching in the context of an enduring human issue.

With regard to the first research question whether history teaching should focus on the past as well as on the present, it can be concluded that both students and teachers preferred history education that includes the present as well. The teachers argued that relating the past to the present generally enhances student engagement and allows students to recognize ways in which history can be relevant. However, contrary to the research outcomes of our previous study, the teachers did not expect large positive effects of the case-comparison experiment due to, as one teacher put forward, the short duration of the intervention. This seems to be in accordance with their plea for including the case-comparison approach in the existing curriculum and their recommendation to spend more time on comparison activities and less time on source text analysis.

For students, the need for linking the past to the present stems from three rationales: (1) the fulfillment of personal interest and personal engagement (2) connectedness to the present as a means to better understand historical subject matter, and (3) the use of the past to orientate on the present and future. The first two reasons correspond to a considerable amount of studies indicating that stimulating personal and emotional engagement enhances connectedness to the past and facilitates the learning of history, in particular regarding 'distant' topics which cannot easily be connected with students' own life (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Dunn, 2000; Endacott, 2005; Rosenzweig, 2000). Differences in age and educational level may have played a role with regard to the second reason; the students who thought relating to the present was as an aid for learning about the past came from the lower grades and the lower track. These students were quite preoccupied with 'learning the facts' to comply with curriculum demands and to perform well on history tests. They found connectedness with the known a more profitable learning method than reading historical texts, which complies with cognitive learning principles about the importance of integrating new knowledge with prior knowledge and experiences outside school (Narayan, Rodriguez, Araujo, Shaqlaih, & Moss, 2013; Novak, 2002).

With regard to the third reason, many students argued in a way which Rüsen (2004) has called 'exemplary', meaning that historical events are conceived as precepts that should guide decision making in the present, which is a common mode of how people deal with the past (Chapman & Facey, 2004; Lowenthal, 2004; MacMillan, 2008). In doing so, some students were focusing on similarities between past and present, thus

disregarding time-bound differences, which stems with previous research on the use of historical analogies in the classroom (Boix-Mansilla, 2000) and is also in line with students' strong inclinations to make sense of history from a presentist perspective, causing them to pick chunks from the past that bear familiarity with the present or fit their personal beliefs (Blow, 2009; Lee, 2004; Lowenthal, 2000; Wineburg, 1999). Age and educational level differences may have played a role here as well, as the students concerned were from lower grades and the lower educational track, whereas students from the highest educational level were reflecting on the relationship between past, present and future in a more generalizing manner, also to learn from historical examples, but less so in the sense of simply copying the past.

Regarding the second research question (the complexity of the case-comparison approach), the results of this study show that students in general did not encounter difficulties with case-comparison teaching, which was in line with teachers' expectations. The use of the key questions framework may provide an explanation for this outcome, because students found the framework helpful for comparison activities. However, there were some students who suggested that case-comparison learning is a complex endeavor as studying cases from different periods implies taking into account different historical contexts and trying to avoid anachronisms. As these students were from the highest educational track and students from the lower grades and the lower track did not report any difficulties, it is tempting to relate student views on the complexity of the case-comparison approach to their level of historical consciousness and historical thinking, because insights into these domains calls for some degree of maturity (Maggioni, Van Sledright, & Alexander, 2009; Lowenthal, 2000). This possible interplay between historical consciousness and case-comparison learning needs further investigation. Educating disciplinary thinking may foster student abilities to elaborate academically valid analogies between past and present. Vice versa, applying the case-comparison approach in history teaching provides ample opportunities for strengthening students' historical thinking, because comparing past and present events involves thinking about change and continuity, cause and effect and other so-called meta-concepts which heuristically underpin the historical discipline (Van Drie, & Van Boxtel, 2008).

Three indicators were used to examine the third research question concerning the feasibility and desirability of the case-comparison approach. Students showed no clear

preference for the case-comparison approach compared to history teaching they were accustomed to, which was in line with teachers' expectations. Both students and teachers suggested to combine these two curriculum approaches by using overview reference knowledge as a base for teaching about analogous cases from different times, including the present. The teachers were aware of tension between the need to encounter the past on its own terms on the one hand and the inclination to generalize and the lurking of presentism if the past is subjected to a comparison with the present on the other. However, they argued that history becomes meaningless to students if connections with their own world fail to materialize. This viewpoint is widely echoed in history education literature. For example, Barton & Levstik (2004) state that drawing analogies between past and present is navigating between the strange and the familiar, leading to insights that probably do not arise when past and present are studied separately. According to Boix-Manilla (2000) 'understanding the past does not ensure understanding the present […] it triggers informed questions and hypotheses that only a careful exploration of the contemporary world can resolve' (p. 413). The latter was illustrated by questions about present-day refugee issues raised by students when they learned about the comparatively huge amount of Belgian refugees arriving in the Netherlands in 1914. Here, the case-comparison approach allowed students to take a position in the current refugee debate, which is indicative for the intended efficacy of this method.

Students' elaborations of past-present analogies varied in depth and sophistication, ranging from straightforward copying of past actions as 'lessons for the present' to the use of the past as a mirror for reflecting and questioning present-day realities. It has not been the aim of this study to teach students how to make qualitatively sound comparisons, but future research may focus on the depth of students' analogic reasoning, especially in order to see if they only have an eye for similarities or also take into account differences between the past and the present.

Based on the experiences and views of teachers and students, our overall conclusion is that implementation of the case-comparison approach in view of an enduring human issue is practically feasible in senior secondary education. It provides opportunities for systematically making connections between past and present, which meets students' needs in terms of learning and engagement and allows them to recognize the relevance

of history. These are important yields for educators and policy makers who strive for history education that is meaningful and motivating to students.

Chapter 7
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Two issues regarding the teaching and learning of history have been important incentives for conducting the research outlined in this thesis. The first was that many students don't seem to see the point of studying the past, which probably abridges their motivation to do so. The second is the fact that curriculum documents usually stress the importance of history for the development of personal identities and orientation on present and future without offering sufficient guidance to students and teachers to pursue these goals; as a rule these documents sum up historical content knowledge and do not specify its potentials for a better understanding of one's own identity or of present-day society. Apparently, it is assumed that studying the past yields insights into the present and future as a matter of course, taking knowledge transfer beyond subject-specific contexts for granted without any explicit educational strategies directed at achieving this aim. However, students are not inclined to use school history knowledge of their own accord.

It has been the aim of this thesis to develop tools for relevant history teaching that pursues meaningful connections between the past, the present and the future. The premise has been that relevant history teaching enables students to experience ways in which studying the past relates to their own lives and as such may affect their views on the usefulness of the subject. The main research question that has been explored is:

What are the aims and methods of relevant history teaching, explicitly focusing on connections between the past, the present and the future, and how does this type of teaching affect students' appraisals of the relevance of history?

Five studies were conducted in order to investigate this question. In the first study, a theoretical framework was developed focusing on three aims of relevant history teaching and four methods for pursuing these aims. The second study regards the design and validation of a questionnaire for measuring students' appraisals of the relevance of history in view of the aims of the theoretical framework. In the third study, the efficacy of three methods embedded in existing lesson programs was explored in three small-scale case studies conducted in two secondary schools. Based on the findings of these

explorations, a lesson unit combining two methods was designed and implemented in a large-scale intervention whose effects were reported in the fourth and fifth studies. The fourth study discusses the quantitative results, in particular with regard to students' appraisals of the relevance of history, whereas the fifth study focuses on qualitative data concerning the views and experiences of students and teachers involved in the intervention in order to learn more about the feasibility of the applied methods.

In this final chapter, the main findings of the thesis are presented and discussed. First, the results of the five studies (chapter 2-6) are summarized and general conclusions are drawn. These conclusions will subsequently be discussed and reflected upon, leading to new questions and directions for future research. The chapter ends with a discussion of the implications of this study for teaching and learning history in secondary education.

7.1 Summaries

The summaries presented below contain descriptions of the design, the implementation and the main findings of the studies. For a detailed discussion of the results and limitations of each study and the embedding of the findings in existing literature, we refer to the conclusions in the previous chapters and the other sections of this chapter. As a result, no literature references are included in the summaries.

Chapter 2 presents a framework of aims and methods that can be employed for designing and implementing curricula for relevant history education. 'Relevance' was distinguished from the more commonly used concept of 'historical significance'. Operationalizations of historical significance refer to the importance of historical events for people in the past (for example the Black Death as a disastrous rupture in the life of medieval man) as well as to the importance of historical events from a contemporary viewpoint. The concept of relevance refers to the importance of (narratives of) the past in the latter sense only.

Based on insights from educational philosophy, historical philosophy and cognitive learning theory, we distinguished three dimensions of the relevance of history, i.e., relevance in view of (1) building a personal *identity*; (2) becoming a *citizen*; and (3) understanding the *human condition*. In our definition, relevant history teaching allows

students to recognize and experience what history has to do with themselves, with today's society and their general understanding of human existence.

History contributes to *identity* building in two ways. On the one hand, it offers students insight into ways in which their personal identity connects to the history of the communities of which they are part (e.g. family, nation, religious denomination). On the other hand, history confronts students with a variety of life forms that differ from their own way of life which may stimulate critical reflection on their own values and evoke opinions and ideals delineating them as unique individuals vis-à-vis their own community. History can 'qualify' and 'socialise' students into *citizens*: qualify, for example, by providing insight into the historical dimensions of civics and the academic modes of historical thinking which are advantageous to political literacy and the development of a democratic disposition; socialise, for example, by explaining the origins and meanings of societal structures whose traditions, rules, values and norms students have to become familiar with in order to function as citizens. History provides insight into three aspects of the *human condition* which are closely connected to the temporal dimension of being human. First, through historical study students may experience their own existence as an existence 'in time': with a past that has transcended into history through contemporary narratives and a future that one day will become past. This may lead to a sense of one's own historicity. Second, history shows that many societal issues are not specifically time-bound and can therefore be regarded as typical of human existence. Cognizance of people's dealings with these enduring issues in the past expands the reservoir of experiences, approaches and solutions in the present. Third, history is a narrative of the past always constructed at a later moment in time, providing occasion to see how often human actions did not unfold as planned due to coincidence and unforeseen circumstances (contingency).

Pursuing the three aims of relevant history education implies the use of historical knowledge in personal and social contexts. We distinguished four pedagogical approaches to support this educational activity: (1) teaching with longitudinal lines, for example the origins and development of scientific thinking from antiquity to modern times; (2) teaching with historical analogies, for example between the Roman Empire and the European Union; (3) teaching with enduring human issues, such as the distribution of wealth in society or relationships between men and women; (4) teaching

with ‘decision making and future scenarios’, for example using knowledge of the Cold War to predict future developments in the relations between the United States and Russia.

The four approaches all contain elements of comparisons between the past and the present and all focus on the use of historical subject matter. Yet there are reasons to keep them apart. ‘Longitudinal lines’ are about long-term historical developments culminating in present-day affairs and therefore seem to fit well with ‘becoming a citizen’. ‘Historical analogies’ focus on parallels between past and present phenomena which also seems suitable for ‘becoming a citizen’. ‘Enduring human issues’ are often morally laden and probably lend themselves in particular for ‘personal identity building’. The ‘decision making and future scenarios’ strategy aims at extrapolation of historical developments to possible future developments, implying that this approach seems to fit well with the time-orienting dimension of the human condition.

The framework of relevant history education outlined in this chapter constitutes the theoretical foundation of this thesis. The other studies deal with the educational implementation of the framework’s aims and methods in order to give it a more solid empirical basis.

Chapter 3 reports the design and psychometric qualities of the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS) (Appendix A). The RHMS has been designed in the absence of appropriate tools for assessing students’ relevance views according to the three dimensions of relevance of our theoretical framework.

The first draft of the RHMS consisted of 32 items which corresponded to the three relevance dimensions. ‘Building a personal identity’ and ‘understanding the human condition’ each formed a subscale, and for the broad concept of citizenship (‘becoming a citizen’) two subscales were designed driven by the need for measurable constructs: one for the understanding of present-day phenomena and one for the substantiating of opinions about current affairs. For each subscale eight items were formulated, four of which were negative and four positive in order to avoid response tendency and enhance measurement reliability. The items were reviewed by secondary school students and teachers on issues of comprehensibility and validity. The first draft of the RHMS was piloted among 135 students to explore the reliability of the four subscales of the instrument.

As a result of all these checks, revisions of items took place which ultimately resulted in a questionnaire that could be subjected to a more thorough validation study. Participants in this study were 1459 secondary school students (aged 12-18) from 29 schools across the Netherlands. These students attended the middle level (HAVO) and pre-university level (VWO) of secondary education. The ratio between males and females and between HAVO and VWO students was in line with corresponding ratios in secondary education nationwide.

The construct validity of the RHMS was investigated by asking an expert panel of history teacher educators (N = 13) to assign the (randomly listed) 32 items to the four relevance subscales and by executing an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

The convergent validity was examined using the School Subject Experience Scale (SSES). The SSES is a validated questionnaire developed in the Netherlands for measuring students' experiences with school subjects (not history in particular) in terms of practical use, enjoyment, difficulty and interest. None of these aspects relates to the way relevance is defined in the RHMS, but the SSES 'practical use' subscale was used to calibrate the RHMS. In previous studies, this subscale had proven to represent a reliable and a discriminatory construct, revealing, for example, that students found English language and mathematics significantly more useful than history. Comparing students' response on the items of the SSES 'practical use' scale with their RHMS scores made it possible to explore the validity of the RHMS, assuming positive correlations between scales.

The known-group validity was examined by testing several hypotheses and assumptions. For example, based on literature, it was hypothesized that junior students would have lower appraisals of the relevance of history than senior students. The RHMS was also filled-out by first-year university students in history teacher education and by first-year university students in elementary school teacher education, assuming that the former group would find history more relevant than the latter.

Data analysis confirmed the convergent and known-group validity of the RHMS, implying, for example, that its subscales positively correlated with the SSES subscale, that junior students considered history significantly less relevant than senior students and that the history teacher trainees found history significantly more relevant than the

elementary school teacher trainees. Results of the expert panel's sorting of items substantiated the construct validity of the subscales, but factor analyses yielded three instead of four subscales, as the items of the two scales of 'becoming a citizen' merged into one scale. Factor analysis also resulted in the elimination of eight items due to low factor loadings or high cross loadings. Thus, the final version of the RHMS comprised three subscales (one for each relevance dimension) with 24 items of which 12 were negatively and 12 positively formulated. Cronbach's α for each subscale was above 0.80, indicating sufficient reliability.

Using the validated RHMS questionnaire, it was then mapped out how Dutch students think about the relevance of history. Their relevance appraisals on all three domains appeared to become more positive as students grew older, with a relatively steep increase between the age of 14 and 16 for the domains of 'human condition' and 'becoming a citizen'. Out of the three strands of relevance domains, the importance of history for personal identity building was valued the lowest by all students, regardless of age, which is in line with literature claiming that the evolution of psychological characteristics of the self occurs late in adolescence. In sum, this validation study resulted in a psychometrically sound measurement instrument which can be used to gauge secondary school students' appraisals of the relevance of history.

Chapter 4 examines the implementation of three pedagogical approaches of relevant history teaching as defined in our theoretical framework: teaching with longitudinal lines, with enduring human issues and with historical analogies. Explorations took place in three case studies (one for each approach) conducted in two secondary schools with 135 students and four teachers as participants. The approaches were applied within the boundaries of existing lesson programs to find out whether implementation is feasible without major curriculum revisions. Three indicators were used to examine this feasibility: (1) the extent to which students used historical knowledge in their orientation on current affairs; (2) teachers' experiences with integrating the approach in their daily teaching practice; and (3) the extent to which the approaches affected students' appraisals of the relevance of history. Data were collected using student questionnaires with statements about present-day phenomena related to the taught historical subject matter (indicator 1) (Appendix B); a questionnaire for collecting teacher experiences (indicator

2) (Appendix C); interviews with both teachers and students (indicator 1 and 2); and the RHMS (indicator 3). The statement questionnaires were administered in a pre-test/post-test setting enabling us to measure the extent to which students used lesson content knowledge to substantiate their views on current affairs. The RHMS was also conducted in a pre-test/post-test setting.

In case study 1, ninth-grade middle level (HAVO) and pre-university (VWO) students (N = 56) studied an enduring human issue within the context of eight regulars lessons about the Cold War. The issue focused on the extent to which imposing value systems with a universal validity claim (e.g. communism and democratic capitalism) can be justified. During the lessons, historical subject matter (e.g. the Truman Doctrine, the Berlin Wall or the future of communism in China after the fall of the Soviet Union) was used to encourage students to reflect on this issue. In case study 2, tenth-grade middle level students (N = 20) studied longitudinal lines dealing with the origins and evolution of citizenship in Western society from ancient to modern times. Four aspects of citizenship were studied diachronically in twelve lessons: 'subjects who obey', 'citizens who govern', 'civil rights and freedoms' and 'civic duties'. 'Subjects who obey', for example, regarded the subjection of people to higher authorities in Mesopotamian city states, in France during the reign of Louis XIV and in Germany during Nazi rule. In case study 3, the historical analogy approach was explored in two groups of eighth-grade students (N = 59) from the lower pre-vocational track (VMBO). These students made several analogies between past and present phenomena in the context of eight lessons about the First and Second World War. For example, they compared characteristics of the First World War with the war against the so-called Islamic State by US-led coalition forces (this war was going on during the lessons) in order to decide whether the latter conflict could be considered a world war.

The findings of the case studies showed that students were not inclined to use historical subject matter in their reflections on current affairs spontaneously, and even when prompted, not all students referred to lesson content knowledge. In the interviews, however, students went into more detail on the usefulness of what they had learned about the past, which suggests that the data collection method (writing or talking) may have had some influence here. Moreover, students who drew analogies used historical knowledge more often than students who worked with longitudinal lines and enduring

issues, which suggests that knowledge transfer also depends on the applied pedagogical approach. According to the teachers, the nature of the lesson content played a role as well, as the relatively abstract topics of study 1 and 2 made it more difficult for students to identify and engage.

All teachers reported that participating in this research was beneficial for their daily teaching practice and all but one teacher had noticed that students were more interested as a result of making connections between past, present and future. Integrating the approaches into existing programs did not cause serious problems according to the teachers, but they experienced a tension between implementing the method and complying with curriculum demands, especially with regard to adequately preparing the students for the regular history tests. The teachers involved in case study 3 observed that students were motivated and engaged while drawing analogies between past and present, while the teacher in case study 2 reported that teaching longitudinal lines was a demanding endeavor and not very motivating for students.

The RHMS measurements revealed that application of the enduring human issue approach in case study 1 had a positive effect on students' appraisals of the relevance of history in all three relevance domains. In case study 2, no shifts of relevance perceptions were detected, while students in case study 3 scored higher on the post-test than on the pre-test, but not significantly higher.

Based on the three indicators (i.e. the use of historical subject matter, teachers' experiences and students' relevance perceptions), it was concluded that teaching with historical analogies can be easily implemented and seems to have a strong potential for stimulating students to use history in reflections on present-day affairs. Embedding longitudinal lines and enduring human issues in the usual chronologically ordered curricula entails more difficulties. A fruitful implementation of each of these methods probably requires major curriculum revisions.

Chapter 5 reports the effects of a large-scale quasi-experimental implementation study combining the historical analogy and enduring human issue approaches of our framework. Participants in this study were grade 10 to 12 middle level (HAVO) and pre-university (VWO) students ($N = 1022$) from 24 secondary schools in various parts of the Netherlands. Building on the findings reported in chapter 4, we designed a lesson unit

with an enduring human issue as a leading principle. Because of the potential of the historical analogy method, we selected analogous cases of the enduring issue from different periods which students had to compare using general concepts and questions. The design of this implementation study was, therefore, underpinned by two educational principles: analogic or case-comparison reasoning and concept-based instruction. Scholarly literature in the field of cognitive psychology and history education has shown that both principles are conducive to knowledge transfer and the derivation of meaning from descriptive knowledge. We hypothesized that using them in the context of relevant history teaching would affect students' relevance perceptions in a positive way. Examining this premise was the main aim of this study. As teaching about an enduring issue through case-based learning is an innovative practice in Dutch history education, we also investigated students' experiences, learning performances and situational interest (i.e. interest triggered at a particular moment stimulated by environmental factors such as clarity of tasks or perceived value of lesson content).

Subject of the lesson unit was the issue of migration and integration. Five refugee groups from early modern times onwards served as exemplary cases: (1) Protestants leaving the Catholic southern Netherlands for the Protestant north during the Dutch Revolt (16th century); (2) persecuted Jews seeking refuge in the Dutch Republic (17th century); (3) Belgians fleeing from First World War violence towards the neutral Netherlands; (4) Germans being expelled from former German territory in Eastern Europe after the Second World War; (5) Cubans leaving for the US after the communist takeover by Fidel Castro in 1959.

Based on research literature, two experimental conditions were designed: a *case-comparison condition*, in which students (n = 460) explicitly compared the five historical refugee cases and drew analogies between these cases and a present-day refugee example, and a *separate-case condition* in which students (n = 273) studied the same refugee cases separately and sequentially (one at the time) without making mutual comparisons and drawing analogies with the present. Lesson goals in the case comparison condition were targeted at the use of knowledge of refugee issues in the past in reflections on refugee issues in the present. Learning activities in this condition were supported by using stages of the 'guided analogy training' model developed by Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson (2003) and by using a framework of key questions and

concepts. Lesson goals in the separate-case condition aimed at deepening students' knowledge about the historical contexts of the five refugee examples (e.g. the Dutch Revolt and the Cold War) which were part of the national history standards. Based on research literature, we assumed students would study the refugee examples in their isolated historical contexts without drawing analogies of their own accord.

In both conditions the unit comprised six lessons with a fifty minutes duration: one introduction lesson and one lesson for each refugee example. In the introduction lesson, students in the case-comparison condition studied issues concerning a present-day refugee group (Syrians in the Netherlands in 2016) using the conceptual framework which was designed to make comparisons in the lessons to come. Students in the separate-case condition were practicing historical thinking skills and tested their prior knowledge of the historical contexts of the five refugee examples. Each refugee lesson referred to exactly the same content subject matter in both conditions. Historical sources, texts and illustrations were identical, except for the assignments which differed in accordance with the divergent lesson goals of the conditions (Appendices D-E).

We tested the extent to which the intervention in both experimental conditions affected students' (1) appraisals of the relevance of history; (2) situational interest; (3) views on the complexity of this type of teaching; and (4) acquisition of subject matter knowledge. Based on the theories underpinning the design of this study, we hypothesized that students' relevance perceptions and situational interest would be positively affected to a greater extent in the case-comparison condition than in the separate-case condition. We also assumed that students in the case-comparison condition would have fewer problems with a lesson unit containing several different historical cases from different periods than the students in the separate-case condition, because comparing the cases aided by a conceptual framework would enable them to see more connections between the cases. Last, we expected no differences between both conditions in terms of acquisition of lesson content knowledge. Given the effectiveness of comparison activities, as described in the literature, it seemed unlikely that students in the case-comparison condition would underperform in this respect, even though they spent a considerable part of their time on past-present analogies whereas students in the separate-case condition focused exclusively on learning about the past.

The four hypotheses were tested using closed-format questionnaires as measures (see Appendices A, H-J). The RHMS was used for testing hypothesis 1 in a pre-test/post-test setting. The RHMS outcomes of the two experimental groups were not mutually compared, but independently with RHMS outcomes of a comparable group of 10-12 grade students (n = 289) who did not participate in the experiment but followed regular history education. Because both the case-comparison and the separate-case condition were experimental, it made sense to set their outcomes against those of a non-treatment group.

Multilevel regression analysis was used for calculating measurement outcomes, controlling for students' background variables (e.g. educational level, grade, age, historical knowledge level). Set again the results for the non-treatment group, case-based history teaching in the context of an enduring issue had small but significant positive effects on students' views on the relevance of history in both experimental conditions. The case-comparison group showed significant positive effects for the relevance domains 'building a personal identity', 'becoming a citizen' and 'understanding the human condition', whereas the separate-case group showed effects for 'becoming a citizen' only. Thus, as expected, students' relevance perceptions were positively affected to a greater extent in the case-comparison condition than in the separate-case condition. The situational interest of both groups did not differ in terms of attention, engagement and enjoyment, but the case-comparison group deemed the lessons more valuable than the separate-case group. As expected, the case-comparison group found case-based history teaching less complex and did not underperform in terms of knowledge acquisition.

Chapter 6 describes the experiences of students (N = 444) and teachers (N = 15) who participated in the case-comparison condition of the intervention study described in chapter 5. In order to learn more about the practical feasibility of case-comparison teaching, we collected students' and teachers' views on three issues (1) the need to focus on the past as well as on the present in view of school history relevance; (2) the complexity of case-comparison teaching; and (3) the desirability of this type of history teaching. Closed-format questionnaires and interviews with teachers (n = 4) and students (n = 22; in dyads) were used for data collection. The interview questions corresponded

with the questionnaire items, so the quantitatively and qualitatively acquired information could complement each other. Teachers' experiences and views were collected after the completion of the lesson intervention and before the results (see chapter 5) were made known to them. This allowed us to compare teachers' expectations of the results with the actual outcomes. The interview data were analyzed using the three issues under examination as pre-ordinate categories for collecting and compiling data across respondents.

With regard to the first issue whether history teaching should focus on the past as well as on the present, findings indicated that both students and teachers preferred history education that includes the present. The teachers argued that connecting the past to the present enhances student engagement and allows students to see the point of studying the past. They had noticed more engagement during the lesson intervention, but, in contrast with the actual outcomes, had no high expectations of the effects of the case-comparison intervention on students' relevance appraisals. The reasons students gave for the need to link the past to the present were grouped into three categories: the fulfillment of personal interest and engagement; connectedness to the present as a means to better understand historical subject matter; and the use of the past to orientate on the present and future. The first two reasons comply with scholarly literature in the field history education and cognitive learning theory. Regarding the third reason, many students conceived historical events as precepts that should guide actions in the present, which is a common mode of how people deal with the past.

Regarding the second issue, the findings showed that students in general did not encounter difficulties with case-comparing teaching, which was in line with teachers' expectations. The framework of key questions and concepts appeared to be supportive for comparison activities. However, some students suggested that case-comparison teaching is a complex endeavor as studying cases from different eras requires a good understanding of the historical contexts involved in order to prevent anachronisms.

Regarding the third issue, it appeared that students had no preference for the case-comparison history teaching compared to traditional history teaching. In general, both students and teachers favored a combination of both ways of teaching, for example by using the extant frame of ten eras and their characteristic features as a base for teaching about analogous cases from past and present times. The teachers acknowledged the

dilemma between the duty of encountering the past on its own terms and making the study of the past useful. However, they argued that without making connections with the present history has no meaning for students. Students used knowledge of the past in their reflections on current affairs, although the elaborations on past-present analogies varied from the straightforward copying of 'lessons of the past' to more abstract generalizations evoking new insights and questions.

In sum, implementation of case-comparison history teaching in view of an enduring human issue is feasible in senior secondary education. Students and teachers were quite unanimous in their conviction that history should be about the past as well as the present. Teachers reported that students had not encountered difficulties with the applied method, which was in accordance with students' experiences. The case-comparison approach triggered students to use history in their orientation on present and future, although the connections they made varied in terms of academic quality and cognitive depth.

7.2 General conclusions

Relevant history teaching allows students to actively use knowledge of the past in their orientation on the present and future. As usefulness of school knowledge in 'real life' is what students deem important in valuing the relevance of school subjects, it was hypothesized that relevant history teaching would positively affect students' views on the benefits of history. The research question was:

What are the aims and methods of relevant history teaching, explicitly focusing on connections between the past, the present and the future, and how does this type of teaching affect students' appraisals of the relevance of history?

As aims of relevant history teaching we have defined: (1) building a personal identity: seeing oneself as an individual with a personal past and developing one's own values, opinions and ideals vis-à-vis those of the historically shaped communities to which one belongs; (2) becoming a citizen: enhancing political literacy and understanding the origins of social institutions, conventions and present-day phenomena in order to function as a citizen in society; (3) understanding the human condition: becoming aware of one's own historicity and supplementing one's experiences with past approaches to

human issues. Measurements with the RHMS questionnaire, specially developed for the purpose of this research, showed that students associate the usefulness of history considerably less with their own personal development than with the other two relevance domains. Findings also revealed that students conceive of 'becoming a citizen' and 'understanding the human condition' in a rather pragmatic way, as if history teaches direct lessons, although there were also indications that some students gain deeper insights.

As methods of relevant history teaching we have explored: (1) teaching with enduring human issues that have been addressed by people in past and present times either in similar or different manners, such as issues of crime and punishment; (2) teaching with longitudinal lines describing long-term political, socio-economical or cultural developments, such as the emergence of national states; (3) teaching with historical analogies between the past and the present, for example an analogy between the Roman Empire and the European Union; (4) teaching with a focus on decision making and future scenarios, for example using knowledge of the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War to predict the viability of communism in China. Our findings indicate that implementation of the longitudinal lines approach is difficult to realize, whereas teaching with analogies and enduring human issues seem promising strategies in terms of feasibility and efficacy, especially when they are combined in curricula that are designed according to the learning principles of analogical reasoning and concept-based instruction.

Measurements with the RHMS as well as other more qualitative means of evaluation show that history teaching with an explicit focus on making connections between the past, present and future can positively affect students' views on the relevance of history. Much depends on the method applied, with 'longitudinal lines' yielding no measurable effects and 'historical analogies' and 'enduring human issues' producing positive effects, both in lower and upper secondary education. In lower secondary education larger shifts in relevance perceptions seem possible, which is explainable because students in upper secondary education find history more relevant to begin with, which limits the scope for improvement.

7.3 Discussion

In this section, the general conclusions are discussed in detail in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the findings of this research. Four aspects will be considered: (1) the theoretical framework of relevant history teaching; (2) measuring students' views on the relevance of history; (3) case-comparison learning in the context of an enduring human issue; and (4) using the past to orientate on the present and the future. In the wake of discussing these aspects, the limitations of this research and directions for further investigation will be addressed as well.

7.3.1 Theoretical framework of relevant history teaching

The use of the concept 'relevant history teaching' may give the wrong impression that there is also such a thing as meaningless history education that serves no purpose. As soon as students learn about the past, however, meaning is irrevocably present, because learning takes place in an educational context. When students read their history textbook, there is meaning also because all texts bear elements of social or cultural position, regardless of whether the writers tried to be unbiased (Jenkins, 2010; Seixas, 2000). If students are taught how to interpret historical sources, knowledge becomes meaningful while it is produced according to the rules and procedures of the historical discipline (Barton & Levstik, 2011). We deliberately used the concept of 'relevant history teaching' to emphasize that this type of teaching explicitly focuses on the personal and social meanings of history elicited through the making of connections between past, present and future. Using knowledge of the past in contemporary contexts that are contributive to students' civic education is a rare learning activity in regular history education (Barton & Levstik, 2011; Davies, 2000; VanSledright, 1997), but potentials of schooling in this respect are recognized in history education literature (Haydn & Harris, 2010; Lee & Ashby, 2000; Shemilt, 2000).

The use of 'relevance' instead of 'historical significance' should be understood in the same way, even though the distinction between the two concepts is not watertight. We argued that historical significance refers to both 'meaning for the present' and 'meaning for the past', without making a clear distinction, whereas relevance only regards 'meaning for the present'. It should be noted, however, that every insight about the impact of historical events on the lives of people in the past is contemporary as a matter

of fact, meaning that determining historical significance always relates to the present. Nevertheless, we employed relevance to avoid misunderstandings and to emphasize that history teaching should be about narratives of the past which are socially meaningful.

There is some overlap between the aims of our theoretical framework that needs to be addressed. For example, ‘contingency’ is one of the aspects of the relevance aim 'understanding the human condition', but it can also be linked to ‘becoming a citizen’ as awareness of the role of coincidence and the interplay between intentions and unintended consequences fosters attitudes which are essential in democratic society. The overlap between aims complies, to a certain extent, with the outcomes of the validation study of the RHMS questionnaire. Factor analysis confirmed the existence of three separate subscales corresponding to the three aims, but these subscales substantially correlated, which is probably inevitable because all three relate to the relevance of history. Acknowledging the overlap, the three aims were kept separated for three reasons. First, the RHMS factor analysis outcomes allowed to measure students’ views on all three aims independently. Second, the aims originated from different theoretical sources: historical philosophy regarding ‘understanding the human condition’ and educational philosophy and cognitive learning theory for ‘building a personal identity’ and ‘becoming a citizen’. Third, our three domains of relevance are only three aspects to which more aspects of relevance could be added. By distinguishing them as separate aspects, we stress the idea that we are not pretending to have covered ‘relevance of history’ as a complete whole.

Both relevance aims and methods involve historical subject matter elements to a greater or lesser degree. It should be emphasized, that the methods are not to be understood as learning strategies per se but also represent approaches for organizing curricula targeted at connecting past, present and future. Teaching with enduring human issues as implemented in the main intervention study of this research (chapter 5), for example, took the issue of migration as a theme and several refugee groups from past and present as examples. Learning strategies in this intervention were analogic reasoning and concept-based instruction. Therefore we have chosen the term of ‘pedagogical approach’ to describe our interventions, and not just ‘method’, because all approaches in our framework relate to the application of certain educational strategies as well as the selection and organization of historical subject matter.

Our empirical findings provided indications that some methods align better with certain aims than others, as was hypothesized in our theoretical framework. For example, teaching with enduring human issues positively associated with students' relevance appreciations in view of 'understanding the human condition'. However, this teaching method affected students' perceptions in the other two relevance domains as well, albeit to a lesser degree. It is, therefore, too premature to make firm statements about what at first sight seemed to be plausible mutual connections between aims and methods of relevant history teaching. Their interdependence needs further research.

This is also true for teaching with 'decision making and future scenario's', the fourth method of relevant history teaching. Predicting the future course of events seems to be a powerful tool for mobilizing historical knowledge, but one that is easily susceptible to speculation and unrealistic scenarios (Shemilt, 2000). An assignment that we carried out in the wake of one of the case studies showed that students instinctively rely on their everyday knowledge to support decisions for the future, which is in accordance with other research (Lee, 2004). The design of multiple, plausible and non-deterministic future scenarios requires thorough subject matter knowledge, which students usually do not have (Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008). This calls for further research.

7.3.2 Measuring students' views on the relevance of history

The RHMS has proven to be a reliable and valid questionnaire for gauging students' thinking about the relevance of history. As this questionnaire has been developed and validated in the Netherlands, it is unclear whether it is suitable for use in other countries. It seems unlikely, however, that the RHMS could not be applied in other Western countries with a similar educational system and pedagogical culture, considering the similarities in students' attitudes towards history as has been shown by comparative international surveys (Angvik & Von Borries, 1997; Grever, Pelzer, & Haydn, 2011).

It should be emphasized that the RHMS relates to three relevance aims which were specifically formulated in the context of this research, implying that the questionnaire does not include all conceivable domains of relevance. Validation procedures led to the removal of items that belonged to the original draft of the RHMS, reducing the initial scope of the scale constructs which correspond to the three relevant domains. This has

been to the detriment of the original design, but it was necessary from a statistical point of view in order to realize reliable and valid RHMS subscales (Spector, 1992).

RHMS measurements among a large sample of 12-18 year old secondary school students showed that junior students attribute less value to history than their senior peers with regard to all three relevance aims. This was according to expectation and in line with scholarly literature about the interdependence between age and metacognitive thinking (e.g. Wigfield, Byrnes, & Eccles, 2012) and age and historical insight (Lowenthal, 2000). It should be noted, however, that the senior students had opted for a curriculum that included history, while history was compulsory for the junior students of the sample. This may have influenced the relevance perceptions of both junior and senior students, although there are reasons for not overestimating this effect. First, the outcomes for junior students correspond to findings of other studies indicating that many junior students have difficulty in seeing the point of studying the past (Haeberli, 2005; Haydn & Harris, 2010, VanSledright, 1997). Second, the senior students opted for a curriculum, either Culture and Society or Economy and Society, of which history is just one out of several compulsory school subjects. This means they may not have deemed history relevant in advance, which applies in particular to students in the Economy and Society curriculum, which focuses less on the humanities. Third, further analyses of our sample data showed that grade 10 pre-university students who had not yet opted for a curriculum did not find history less relevant than grade 10 middle level students who had chosen a curriculum which included history.

All students of the sample, regardless of age, associated the relevance of history much less with building a personal identity than with becoming a citizen and understanding the human condition. Apparently, students are not inclined to associate history with their personal lives in terms of behavior, moral beliefs and the personal self. This is in line with findings from other surveys on students' attitudes towards history (Fink, 2005; Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008; Haeberli, 2005; Van der Kaap & Folmer, 2016). Students valued the usefulness of history for their own identity higher as they age, which accords with the notion that developing characteristics of the self in the process of identity building occurs late in adolescence (e.g. Steinberg & Morris, 2001). With regard to these findings, it probably makes sense to distinguish between 'formal' history taught at school and 'informal' history students encounter in their personal life. Rosenzweig and Thelen

(1998) asked 1500 Americans about their interests in history and how it influenced their daily lives and expectations for the future. School history left most people cold, but people assembled personal past experiences into narratives that formed identities and gave direction to life. Thus, even if students did not see any personal interest in school history, they may have felt emotionally attached to history outside school. However, this informal, personally related history did not play any role in the empirical studies. This can be regarded as a limitation of this research, as the personal-past factor is part of the identity relevance domain of the theoretical framework.

7.3.3 Case-comparison learning in the context of enduring human issues

The main intervention study of this research gives reason to believe that case-comparison learning in the context of an enduring human issue is an effective approach in view of relevant history teaching. Comparing analogous cases from different periods, organized around problem-based issues, allows students to reflect on similarities and differences between past and present and to use history in meaningful ways. Three issues concerning the intervention study need to be discussed.

First, although the intervention positively affected students' relevance perceptions, effects sizes were small. Several explanations for this have been given in the discussion section of chapter 5, such as the short duration of the intervention, the relatively high RHMS pre-test scores (leaving little room for improvement) and the focus on cognitive learning activities whereas factors such as motivation or ability play an equally important role in attitude and opinion change (e.g. Mason, 2001; Petty & Wegener, 1998; Wood, 2000). In addition, we need to bear in mind that the intervention aimed at making connections between the past, present and future and not at teaching students about the relevance of history. It was hypothesized that the use of historical knowledge in contemporary contexts would stimulate students to reflect on the benefits of history. More direct, explicit teaching about the purposes and functions of history, comparable to the 'use of history' which is part of the Swedish and Norwegian curriculum (Nordgren, 2016), may well sort out larger effects. Explicit teaching strategies can have positive effects on ways in which students think and reason historically (Stoel, 2017). Research conducted by Haydn and Harris (2010) has shown that in schools where teachers taught about the goals of school history, students were better able to explain why history

matters. The explicit approach seems attractive and certainly deserves further investigation.

A second point to be addressed is the extent to which the efficacy of the case-comparison method depends on the topic that is selected as an enduring human issue. The case studies (chapter 4) indicated that 'impersonal' topics such as politics and citizenship constrain students' engagement and competence to attribute meaning. This complies with research literature showing that students (1) tend to relate the past to the present when they are personally involved (Grant, 2003; Seixas, 1994), and (2) show interest in topics that involve human agency, emotions and morality and allow for personal identification (e.g. Barton, 2008; Den Heyer, 2003). The topic of the main study – dealing with refugees in past and present times – was selected to meet these requirements for engagement and meaning making. This topic was subject of debate at the time of the intervention due to Syrian refugees seeking asylum in Europe, which may have affected the outcomes – either in a positive way by triggering students' engagement or in a negative way by evoking feelings of aversion or saturation. No retention study has been conducted to see whether the observed effects of the intervention would hold on the longer term. An application of the same method, but with a different enduring issue, did not take place either. This makes it difficult to properly assess the extent to which the topical lesson content affected the results. Further research should, therefore, deploy various enduring issues and repeated measures in order to test the retention of the effects found in the intervention study.

Last, alongside the case-comparison condition a separate-case condition was designed in which students studied the same historical cases of the enduring human issue, but one at the time without explicit attention being paid to comparing them or drawing analogies with the present. The type of lesson goals and assignments in the separate-case condition were similar to the goals and assignments students were familiar with, i.e., targeted at using frame of reference knowledge to contextualize historical data and practicing historical thinking skills. It should be emphasized, however, that the applied teaching approach in this condition was novel too because the regular curriculum is not organized around themes exemplified by cases from different periods. The separate-case condition, therefore, did not function as a control condition but was actually seen as a second experimental group. Students in this condition also received an experimental

treatment program and it is plausible that this approach had an effect on their relevance perceptions. Consequently, the results in both experimental groups were set against RHMS measurements in a comparison group comprising students who received no treatment at all and followed the regular history curriculum. As these students were sampled from different grades and educational tracks (similar to the grades and tracks of the experimental conditions), they were taught various regular historical topics, ranging from the Enlightenment to the Cold War. It was assumed that the 'usual' history education in the comparison group would not significantly affect students' relevance views. This could have been the case if a certain topic or teacher's approach would have stirred students' thinking about the benefits of history, but as there were many different topics and teachers, this could go either way, with regular teaching negatively affecting students' relevance perceptions as well. In this way, potential effects of lesson content or teachers' approaches were considerably neutralized.

7.3.4 Using the past to orientate on the present and the future

The case studies (chapter 4) indicated that students were not inclined to use knowledge of the past beyond subject-specific contexts spontaneously, which is in line with other research findings (e.g. Foster, Ashby and Lee, 2008; Mosborg, 2002; Shreiner, 2014). Apparently, it never occurred to them that history could be used for that purpose. This may have been due to the fact that these studies were embedded in existing lesson programs which primarily taught students to memorize factual knowledge in order to understand the past. Knowledge transfer does not easily occur in educational settings predominantly focused on lecturing, memorizing and replication (Illeris, 2009; Russell & Pellegrino, 2008). Students' epistemological beliefs about history may also provide a clue, because junior students in particular conceive of history as a given body of facts and dates about a world which no longer exists and therefore can bear no meanings for their own life. They perceive a historical account as a copy of the past – not as the outcome of historical research resulting in narratives that meet present-bound needs and interests (e.g. Lee, 2005; Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004; Stoel, Logtenberg, Wansink, Huijgen, Van Boxtel, & Van Drie, 2017).

In order to encourage knowledge transfer, it is more effective to design a curriculum with the methods of relevant history teaching as leading principles. Students in the case-

comparison condition of the intervention study referred to a greater extent to what they had learned about the past in their consideration of present-day affairs. It should be noted, however, that these were senior secondary students whose epistemological beliefs were probably more sophisticated. Even in this study, in which explicit comparisons were made between the past and the present on very concrete issues, not all students used lesson content knowledge to substantiate their opinions and views. This may have been due to the available lesson time, which was limited, in some occasions leaving less room for exchanging and discussing the results of the past-present analogies. In order to achieve larger effects, some teachers suggested to spend less time on processing historical knowledge and more time on comparison and active learning activities in order to achieve larger effects.

Although the drawing of academically valid analogies between the past and the present was not an aim of this research, some remarks in this respect must be made. Students employed history in a way which Rüsen (2004) has called 'exemplary', i.e. they conceived of the past as a strong guidance for decision making in the present – a common mode of how people think about the meaning of history (e.g. MacMillan, 2008; Rosenzweig & Thelen, 1998). In some occasions, this encouraged presentism and a neglect of differences between past and present times, which according to scholars like Lowenthal (2000) is the downside of teaching problem-based themes instead of chronologically ordered epochs. This would argue for restraining or even avoiding the teaching of past-present analogies in order to prevent history being abused. In Lowenthal's view, the 'otherness' of the past should play a pivotal role in history teaching, which may imply that history should not serve goals originating outside the discipline itself. The focus will then be on the pedagogy of historical thinking, which aims at the mastering of epistemological concepts such as evidence, causality and change or what Shemilt (2000) has called the 'form of knowledge'. Relevant history teaching as proposed in this research, however, advocates a more instrumentalist view on education in which history holds a reservoir of narratives that can be socially meaningful in view of preparing students for citizenship. This implies that the goals of the school subject originate in part from outside the academic discipline, which is in line with the work of other scholars (e.g. Barton & Levstik, 2004; Davies, 2003; Laville, 2002; Thornton & Barton, 2010). According to Rüsen (2017), presentism is inherent in the construction of

historical narratives and, as a matter of fact, trying to exclude the 'present' would undermine the orienting function of historical knowledge. That said, the historical thinking pedagogy may bolster students' competence in connecting the past and the present, in particular regarding the mastering of epistemological concepts such as change, development and continuity, which probably are conducive to these kind of mental operations (Blow, 2009; Foster, Ashby, & Lee, 2008; Shemilt, 2000). Emphasizing the 'otherness' of the past can foster students' awareness of time-bound differences, which may prevent them from drawing simplistic analogies that favors their own point of view (Boix-Mansilla, 2000). According to Rüsen (2017), experiencing a discrepancy between past and present is even required to evoke the use of knowledge of the past as an orienting tool. All of this needs further research, but it seems plausible that sophisticated epistemic stances are conducive to the ability to connect the past, present and future and stimulate reflections on the benefits of history.

Rüsen's (2004) four modes of historical consciousness – traditional, exemplary, critical and genetic – were presented as a possible aid in supporting students making connections between past, present and future. The first three modes were clearly recognizable in the writings and statements of students, but none showed genetic historical consciousness, which is in line with the findings of a study conducted by Chapman & Facey (2004). According to Rüsen, the four modes cannot be strictly separated because people often deal with the past in various ways simultaneously. However, it is tempting to see them as development stages ranging from naïve or 'traditional' epistemological ideas about history (the past account as authority) to sophisticated or 'genetic' ideas (the past account as a dynamic interplay between past, present and future). This has not been elaborated in this research because Rüsen's model does not seem to be without complications from a pedagogical point of view. It remains to be seen whether the genetic mode can be operationalized and whether pursuing this complex stance of historical consciousness is feasible in educational practice. The critical stance (i.e. challenging traditional narratives, drawing attention to deviations from exemplary rules) does not seem to represent a cognitive level like the other three modes, which made Rüsen (2017) to exempt this stance as a separate level of competence in historical learning. Lee (2004) wonders whether the four modes of historical consciousness represent different levels of historical thinking. Students may distance

themselves from a traditional narrative – and thus show a critical historical awareness – because of what he has heard from others and not as a result of own research. Lee therefore advocates teaching disciplinary ideas and concepts within a framework of diachronic themes using general concepts in order to help students to make general inferences about societal issues. This resembles the case-comparative method developed and tested in the main study of this research. In short, Rüsen's theory provides good starting points, but further research is needed to gain a better understanding of the complex interplay between historical consciousness, epistemological thinking and the use of generic concepts in making connections between the past, present and future.

7.4 Implications for the educational practice

In research about the pedagogy of history teaching, much attention is being paid to ways in which students learn to think and reason historically (e.g. Ercikan & Seixas, 2015; Lévesque, 2008; Seixas & Morton, 2013; Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2008). This field of research is unmistakably valuable and useful, because historical thinking entails epistemological knowledge and skills that may foster democratic convictions and may help students to operate as critical citizens in society. Therefore, historical thinking plays an important role in relevant history teaching. However, relevant history teaching should also focus on something that is usually not the subject of research, i.e., the usefulness of factual historical content in view of citizenship education. Research into the societal relevance of content knowledge is much needed, because it may be assumed that in daily educational practice much time is being spent on teaching historical content, also if its relation to pedagogical functions – like qualification, socialization and subjectification (Biesta, 2010) – of education is unclear.

The present research has yielded tools that practitioners and researchers can use to design curricula that allow students to use knowledge of the past to orientate on present and future. Pursuing this orienting function of history may help tackling the difficulties that many (young) students have in articulating the benefits of studying the past. It has become apparent that it is feasible to positively influence students' appraisals of the relevance of history, which is important because school-subject value awareness has a favorable effect on student motivation and engagement (Brophy, 1999; Eccles, 2004; Martin, 2003; Pintrich, 2003). This research has also yielded a valid and reliable

instrument (RHMS) for gauging students' appraisals of the relevance of history, in case teachers would like to evaluate the results of their efforts to renew the curriculum. To date, no such measurement instrument was available.

Applying the design principles that this research has provided is no sinecure. It requires a reconsideration of the goals and methods of teaching history. The present objectives of the history curriculum already provide important means that can be supportive of a new kind of history teaching. Framework knowledge of ten eras can help students to orientate in time while drawing analogies or distinguish longitudinal lines. A number of historical reasoning skills are very useful not only to distinguish causes and consequences or continuity and change but also to avoid anachronisms – a danger that may arise when comparing past and present. Yet important revisions of the history curriculum will be necessary to really honor the principles of relevant history teaching.

A traditional approach to teaching feudalism, for example, would focus on the replacement of Roman rule based on public institutions and values by a system of government based on personal loyalty of a vassal to a lord. Typically, the lessons would deal with the fall of Rome in 476, the rise and development of the Frankish empire, the coronation of Charlemagne in Rome in 800 and the division of the Carolingian empire between the three sons of Louis the Pious according to the Treaty of Verdun in 843. A relevant history teaching approach would focus on general mechanisms and concepts underpinning the phenomena of feudalism and vassalage, such as the personal allegiance in exchange for the protection of someone stronger, a phenomenon still occurring today in parts of the world where there is insufficient functioning public authority (e.g. warlords in countries like Somalia and Afghanistan or capos of the Mafia). In such an approach, making comparisons would be a core teaching activity in order to increase students' understanding of social and political phenomena. Based on experiences of teachers and students who participated in the studies of this research, implementing this pedagogical approach is feasible and worth pursuing. However, it presupposes a certain type of history education teachers are not familiar with.

Teachers are used to teaching chronologically ordered historical topics or in-depth knowledge of certain historical themes. They are not familiar with making comparisons between historical periods or past and present. They are not used to discerning the deeper conceptual frameworks behind historical phenomena. Yet, this is what they need to

create a new kind of history teaching. A history teaching in which students are confronted with intriguing questions like: 'Why did the 1914 crisis result into a first world war and why did the 1962 Cuban missile crisis not end up in a third world war?' 'Is there a general pattern in revolutions, from moderate changes to radicalism to a final compromise of acceptance of dictatorial rule? – a question which could be studied in the context of the French, Russian and Chinese revolutions. The results of this research show that teaching such questions can positively affect students' perceptions of the relevance of history.

In order to realize this kind of history teaching, changes are needed in the curriculum, in teacher education and in assessment methods, including national examinations. In the curriculum more time should be devoted to comparative historical themes and working with conceptual frameworks. In teacher education, student teachers should be thoroughly trained in analyzing historical content in such ways that comparisons can be made and factual phenomena can be interpreted in the contexts of enduring human issues. In school assessments and national examinations students should be tested on their ability to draw analogies and make comparisons between a range of historical situations. All of this would open up perspectives on a new type of history education, not only appropriate for the shaping of responsible citizens of 21st century democracies, but also solving the problems of teachers struggling to explain their students why they should learn about things about a distant past seemingly dead and gone.

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APPENDIX A
The Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS) (chapter 3).

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = a little disagree
4 = a little agree
5 = agree
6 = totally agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	History has nothing to do with how I behave.	o	o	o	o	o	o
2	History is of little use if you want to know what will happen in the future.	o	o	o	o	o	o
3	History does not help us to solve today's problems.	o	o	o	o	o	o
4	History enables us to imagine what the world might look like later on.	o	o	o	o	o	o
5	History teaches me words that I can also use in everyday life.	o	o	o	o	o	o
6	History teaches me little about myself.	o	o	o	o	o	o
7	History is of little use if you want to understand the news.	o	o	o	o	o	o
8	History enables me to develop personal opinions about things.	o	o	o	o	o	o
9	You can't use history to predict the future.	o	o	o	o	o	o

10	History does not change my opinion.	o	o	o	o	o	o
11	I find history useful because it often plays a role in conversations.	o	o	o	o	o	o
12	Because of history I know the difference between facts and opinions.	o	o	o	o	o	o
13	History makes me understand the news better.	o	o	o	o	o	o
14	History is of little use if I want to substantiate my opinions.	o	o	o	o	o	o
15	History makes me understand better what is happening in the world.	o	o	o	o	o	o
16	History affects the way I behave.	o	o	o	o	o	o
17	In history lessons we learn words that are not very useful.	o	o	o	o	o	o
18	History enables you to imagine what will happen in the future.	o	o	o	o	o	o
19	History helps me to get to know myself better.	o	o	o	o	o	o
20	History is of little use if I want to develop an opinion about something.	o	o	o	o	o	o

21	History helps me to understand what is good or bad for me.	o	o	o	o	o	o
22	History relates to what happens to me in my life.	o	o	o	o	o	o
23	I can't really use history to understand what is going on in the world.	o	o	o	o	o	o
24	History has no bearing on what happens to me in my life.	o	o	o	o	o	o

APPENDIX B
Student questionnaires (chapter 4); translated from Dutch.

Case study 1 (pre-/post-test):

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neutral
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I think every country has the right to protect and defend its own way of life. Explain your answer:	o	o	o	o	o
2	If a country believes that its own way of life is beneficial for all humans, I think it has the right to impose this way of life on people around the world. Explain your answer:	o	o	o	o	o
3	I think that a country should never use violence against citizens who pose a threat to its way of life. Explain your answer:	o	o	o	o	o

Case study 2 (pre-/post-test):

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neutral
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

		1	2	3	4	5
1	People who reject democracy mu be deprived of their right to vote.	o	o	o	o	o
	Explain your answer:					
2	People cannot live without authority: a strong government that tells them what to do.	o	o	o	o	o
	Explain your answer:					
3	Only people who make every effort to inform themselves about politics must have voting rights	o	o	o	o	o
	Explain your answer:					
4	Democracy is always the best form of government.	o	o	o	o	o
	Explain your answer:					
5	I think in the future people will have more and more rights and freedom.	o	o	o	o	o
	Explain your answer:					
6	The Netherlands will always be a democracy	o	o	o	o	o
	Explain your answer:					

Case study 3 (post-test):

		agree	disagree
1	I think the war against the so-called Islamic State (IS) can be called a world war. Explain your answer:	o	o
2	If you want to know what the struggle against IS will result in, it is useful to know how the US, the Soviet Union and Great Britain defeated Germany and Japan in the Second World War. Explain your answer:	o	o

APPENDIX C

Teacher questionnaire for evaluating the case study project (chapter 4); translated from Dutch.

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = agree
4 = totally agree

		1	2	3	4
1	As a result of this way of teaching (connecting the past, present and future) students were more interested.	o	o	o	o
2	Participation in this project was useful for my teaching practice.	o	o	o	o
3	Because of this project, I know how to make better connections between the past, present and future in class.	o	o	o	o
4	Because of this project, I make more connections between the past, present and future in class..	o	o	o	o

1 = not important
2 = a little important
3 = important
4 = very important

	1	2	3	4
One of the goals of this project was to develop and test lesson materials in collaboration with teachers and embedded in the existing history curriculum. How important is this goal to you?	o	o	o	o

APPENDIX D

Example of lesson materials used in the *case-comparison condition* of the main intervention study (chapter 5); translated from Dutch.

Lesson 3: Jews in the Dutch Republic, 1585-1700

1 An advice and a decision

Source 1 How should the authorities react to the arrival of the Jews in the Republic? The Estates of Holland asked advice from the lawyer Hugo de Groot (see fig.). Here follows the summarized content of his advice (1615):

'In this advisory report I discuss three questions: firstly whether it is desirable for Jews to settle here; secondly, whether they can practice their religious traditions; and thirdly to what extent damage to Christianity and the state by their presence can be limited.
On the first question I reply that it is desirable that they settle here because in all the countries where they have established it yielded economic benefits rather than economic disadvantage. We could also benefit from them through their knowledge of Hebrew, which enables us to better understand the Old Testament of the Bible.
On the second question I reply that humanity commands us to allow them to practice their religion. The apostle Paul, after all, writes in Romans 11 that God has not rejected his people Israel. There is still a chance that they will convert to Christianity. Jesus himself and the apostles were also of Jewish descent. I therefore support the Jews and I am against compelling them to wear a sign on their clothing or to concentrate them in ghettos.
On the third question I answer that rules must be set that ensure that our Christian faith does not suffer any harm. Jews are allowed to practice their religion, but not too ostentatiously. Furthermore, Jews must not be allowed to have administrative functions and they should not marry Christians. They must also absolutely be forbidden to harm or contaminate the Reformed religion. They must not be allowed to distribute inflammatory pamphlets and do not try to convert Christians to Judaism. The number of Jewish families must be limited to 200 per city, in Amsterdam to 300. '

Source 2 Eventually the Estates of Holland could not agree on the policy towards the Jews. They left it to the city councils in the Provinces to make their own decisions. In 1616 the Amsterdam city council drew up the following rules:

'It has been clearly established that some of the Jews maintain very free and unrestrained contact with the women and daughters of this country. We believe that such matters should no longer be tolerated and allowed [...] The Jews are again warned not to speak or write in terms that could be libelous to our Christian religion and not to try to circumcise any Christian or to bring down our Christian religion. Furthermore, they should not have carnal intercourse with Christian women or daughters, even if they are women of light morals. Furthermore, they should behave in all modesty towards the people of this city according to the Placards of the country [...].'

1a Select two questions from the key questions framework that you can answer with the advice of De Groot (source 1). Write down the answers.

1b Which question from the framework is well applicable to the Amsterdam rules (source 2)? Note only the question number.

1c Compare the position of Hugo de Groot and that of the Amsterdam city council with contemporary discussions about refugees. Whose position is most similar to that of present-day 'progressive' politicians (e.g. D66) and whose position is most similar to that of 'conservative' politicians (e.g. the PVV)?

1d Do you also see an important difference between the views of seventeenth-century citizens and the views of present-day politicians?

2 Restrictions or no restrictions

Source 3 In the beginning of the 17th century, some Dutch city councils tried to persuade Jews to settle in the city by offering them favorable conditions. For example, Alkmaar and Haarlem tried to attract Amsterdam Jews, but without much success. Later (since 1632) Jews were denied economic city rights, which amounted to the closure of most professions organized through guilds (with the exception of the brokers, book printers, booksellers and surgeons guilds). There were also restrictions on the retail business and in principle only grocery and tobacco shops were allowed to Jews.

Source 4 Engraving of Romeyn de Hooghe depicting the inauguration of the Portuguese synagogue in Amsterdam in 1675. On the cloud to the right the Republic (see the seven shields) and the Religious freedom and on the left the Jewish people. On the cloud is the saying "The freedom of conscience, the growth power of the Republic." A poem in the engraving states: "Do not fear conscience coercion, nor torture nor killing."

2a First competing for the Jews, later imposing all kinds of restrictions (source 3). What is this all about: tolerance principles and human rights, or economic advantages and disadvantages?

2b Can you imagine a situation nowadays where cities would compete for the settling of refugees or migrants? Explain your answer.

2c Should the opening of a house of prayer for refugees who are allowed to stay in the Netherlands today be celebrated just like the opening of the Portuguese synagogue in 1675 (source 4)? In your answer, also take note of the motto of the engraving: 'Freedom of conscience is the growth power of the Republic'.

3 Discrimination as well

Source 5 Whenever Jews were less adapted to the prevailing culture in the Republic, there was also more discrimination. For example, the small Jewish street traders were always suspected of cheating their customers and earning their money unfairly. They were ridiculed for their crooked pronunciation of Dutch with a German-Yiddish accent and use of many Yiddish loanwords (of which, for that matter, many have ended up in Dutch, such as 'tof', 'goochem' or the word with which the small merchants were referred to: 'touts').

3 Which questions from the key question framework can you properly relate to source 5?

4 Concluding assignment

4a Discuss assignments 1a to 1d and 2b and 2c together with one or more classmates.

4b Use the key question framework for the following questions:

- Which factors are important to determine how the Jews were treated in the Dutch Republic?

- What similarities and differences do you see between the treatment of the Jews and the treatment of refugees from the Southern Netherlands in the Dutch Republic?

APPENDIX E

Example of lesson materials used in the *separate-case condition* of the main intervention study (chapter 5); translated from Dutch

Lesson 3: Jews in the Dutch Republic, 1585-1700

1 An advice and a decision

Source 1 How should the authorities react to the arrival of the Jews in the Republic? The Estates of Holland asked advice from the lawyer Hugo de Groot (see fig.). Here follows the summarized content of his advice (1615):

'In this advisory report I discuss three questions: firstly whether it is desirable for Jews to settle here; secondly, whether they can practice their religious traditions; and thirdly to what extent damage to Christianity and the state by their presence can be limited.
On the first question I reply that it is desirable that they settle here because in all the countries where they have established it yielded economic benefits rather than economic disadvantage. We could also benefit from them through their knowledge of Hebrew, which enables us to better understand the Old Testament of the Bible.
On the second question I reply that humanity commands us to allow them to practice their religion. The apostle Paul, after all, writes in Romans 11 that God has not rejected his people Israel. There is still a chance that they will convert to Christianity. Jesus himself and the apostles were also of Jewish descent. I therefore support the Jews and I am against compelling them to wear a sign on their clothing or to concentrate them in ghettos.
On the third question I answer that rules must be set that ensure that our Christian faith does not suffer any harm. Jews are allowed to practice their religion, but not too ostentatiously. Furthermore, Jews must not be allowed to have administrative functions and they should not marry Christians. They must also absolutely be forbidden to harm or contaminate the Reformed religion. They must not be allowed to distribute inflammatory pamphlets and do not try to convert Christians to Judaism. The number of Jewish families must be limited to 200 per city, in Amsterdam to 300. '

Source 2 Eventually the Estates of Holland could not agree on the policy towards the Jews. They left it to the city councils in the Provinces to make their own decisions. In 1616 the Amsterdam city council drew up the following rules:

'It has been clearly established that some of the Jews maintain very free and unrestrained contact with the women and daughters of this country. We believe that such matters should no longer be tolerated and allowed [...] The Jews are again warned not to speak or write in terms that could be libelous to our Christian religion and not to try to circumcise any Christian or to bring down our Christian religion. Furthermore, they should not have carnal intercourse with Christian women or daughters, even if they are women of light morals. Furthermore, they should behave in all modesty towards the people of this city according to the Placards of the country [...].'

1a From the advice of Hugo de Groot (source 1) the kinship between Judaism and Christianity comes to the fore. Give two examples.

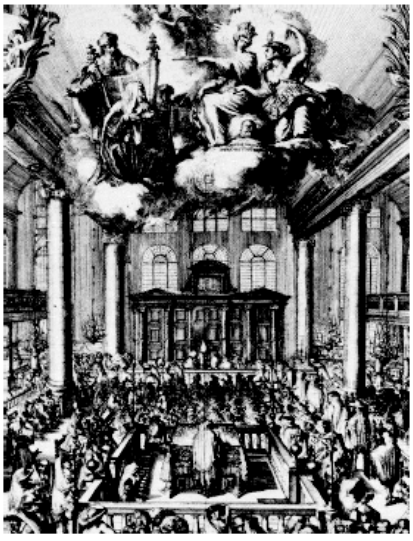
1b Who was more tolerant towards the Jews: Hugo de Groot or the Amsterdam city council? Explain your answer.

1c In the end the Estates of Holland did not agree. Was it logical or illogical, in view of the constitutional structure of the Republic, that such decisions were not taken by the States-General or even the Provincial States, but by a city council? Explain your answer.

2 Restrictions or no restrictions

Source 3 In the beginning of the 17th century, some Dutch city councils tried to persuade Jews to settle in the city by offering them favorable conditions. For example, Alkmaar and Haarlem tried to attract Amsterdam Jews, but without much success. Later (since 1632) Jews were denied economic city rights, which amounted to the closure of most professions organized through guilds (with the exception of the brokers, book printers, booksellers and surgeons guilds). There were also restrictions on the retail business and in principle only grocery and tobacco shops were allowed to Jews.

Source 4 Engraving of Romeyn de Hooghe depicting the inauguration of the Portuguese synagogue in Amsterdam in 1675. On the cloud to the right the Republic (see the seven shields) and the Religious freedom and on the left the Jewish people. On the cloud is the saying "The freedom of conscience, the growth power of the Republic." A poem in the engraving states: "Do not fear conscience coercion, nor torture nor killing."



2a Many cities wanted to have Portuguese Jews as residents, but after the arrival of German Jews more restrictive measures were announced. Give an explanation.

2b What would be meant by 'Freedom of conscience, the growth power of the Republic' (source 4)?

2c "Do not fear conscience coercion, nor torture nor killing." What does this say about the treatment of Jews in other European countries?

2d Explain what the engraving wants to make clear about the foundation of the Portuguese synagogue in Amsterdam.

3 Discrimination as well

Source 5 Whenever Jews were less adapted to the prevailing culture in the Republic, there was also more discrimination. For example, the small Jewish street traders were always suspected of cheating their customers and earning their money unfairly. They were ridiculed for their crooked pronunciation of Dutch with a German-Yiddish accent and use of many Yiddish loanwords (of which, for that matter, many have ended up in Dutch, such as 'tof', 'goochem' or the word with which the small merchants were referred to: 'touts').

3a What should the Jews have done to assimilate to the prevailing culture?

3b Many prejudices against Jews had to do with the professions they exercised. What could this have to do with the denial of economic city rights to Jews (see source 3)?

3c How were Jews treated in the Republic compared with what was standard in 17th-century Europe?

3d How were they treated in the Republic compared to today's standards?

3e What standards should a historian use: those of the past or those of today? Explain why.

APPENDIX F

Key questions framework for analyzing and comparing refugee cases in past and present times (case-comparison condition) (chapter 5 and 6); translated from Dutch.

GENERAL	POLITICS	ECONOMY	SOCIOCULTURAL
G1) Are the refugee numbers large or small in proportion to the size of the population of the host country?	P1) What kind of conflict forces people to flee?	E1) Are people (also) fleeing for economic reasons (employment opportunities, welfare, future perspectives)	S1) Do religious differences or similarities between refugees and the population in the host country play a role?
G2) Are the refugees planning to settle permanently in the host country?	P2) Do human rights or humanity play a role in the reception of refugees?	E1) Do refugees provide economic benefits to the host country?	S2) Do differences in habits and behavior play a role?
		E3) Does the population in the host country feel economically disadvantaged?	

APPENDIX G
Student questionnaire: *Historical Knowledge* (pre-test) (chapter 5); translated from Dutch.

		TRUE	FALSE
1	The Battle of Stalingrad was won by Germany in 1943.	O	O
2	The 'Watergeuzen' fought on the side of the Spaniards.	O	O
3	The Auschwitz concentration camp was located in Germany.	O	O
4	The Axis powers in the Second World War were Germany, Italy and Japan.	O	O
5	The United States participated in the First World War from the beginning (1914).	O	O
6	For the Dutch East India Company (VOC), the Moluccas were important for the slave trade.	O	O
7	The Treaty of Versailles (1919) stipulated that Germany had to surrender territory to France.	O	O
8	Spain and the Republic of the United Netherlands never officially concluded peace.	O	O
9	After the Vietnam War, South and North Vietnam were reunited under a communist government.	O	O
10	During the Cuban crisis, Roosevelt was president of the United States.	O	O
11	Characteristic of Dutch painting in the 17th century were scenes of military battles and royal life.	O	O
12	Stadholder Maurits van Oranje won important military victories over the Spanish army.	O	O
13	The religious conflict between 'remonstrants' (liberal Protestants) and 'contra-remonstrants' (orthodox Protestants) was won by the 'contra-remonstrants'.	O	O
14	On the Reichstag of Worms, Martin Luther was restored to favour by the German Emperor.	O	O

15	France and Russia were allies during the First World War.	O	O
16	Catholics were allowed to build churches in the 17th century Dutch Republic and to assemble in those churches.	O	O
17	In the First World War the tank was used as a military weapon.	O	O
18	In the 'Petition of Nobles' (1566), Margaretha van Parma was asked to stop the severe persecution of Protestants.	O	O
19	The Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand was murdered by a Turkish nationalist.	O	O
20	In the time of the Cold War, Poland and Czechoslovakia were members of NATO.	O	O
21	Italian fascism was less anti-Semitic than German national socialism.	O	O
22	Stalin ordered the building of the Berlin Wall.	O	O
23	In the 17th century the Dutch Republic conducted some trade wars with England.	O	O
24	Calvin was a Protestant reformer from France.	O	O
25	The collectivization policy in the Soviet Union meant that private farms were merged into large state-owned enterprises.	O	O
26	The February strike in the Netherlands (1941) arose as a result of large food shortages.	O	O
27	The Berlin Wall fell in 1995.	O	O
28	In the time of the Habsburg king Charles V, Brussels was the administrative center of the Netherlands.	O	O
29	Hitler was appointed chancellor in 1929.	O	O
30	The Iconoclasm in the Netherlands prompted Luther to make his criticism of the Catholic Church public.	O	O
31	In Europe, the Second World War began in 1939.	O	O

32	Around 1560 the Netherlands were part of the Burgundian kingdom of Philip the Good.	O	O
33	After the Bolshevik revolution led by Lenin, Russia stepped out of the First World War.	O	O
34	The ‘mother trade’ in the 17th century means the VOC trade in Asia.	O	O
35	The Franco-German war of 1871 can be seen as a deeper cause of the First World War.	O	O
36	The Munich Conference in 1938 was about the Sudeten Germans in Czechoslovakia.	O	O
37	The American containment policy was directed against the expansion of communism in Europe and Asia.	O	O
38	In 1970, communists led by Mao Zedong took over power in China.	O	O
39	Sovereignty (the highest authority) in the 17th century Dutch Republic belonged to the regional states.	O	O
40	Immediately after the First World War, Germany was occupied by British, French, American and Russian troops.	O	O

APPENDIX H

Student questionnaire: *Situational Interest* (post-test) (chapter 5); translated from Dutch.

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neutral
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Lessons about a subject through time (as with the refugees) is exciting.	O	O	O	O	O
2	In the lessons about refugees we did things that grabbed my attention.	O	O	O	O	O
3	The lessons about refugees often made history a lot of fun.	O	O	O	O	O
4	The things we have learned about refugees in history are important to me.	O	O	O	O	O
5	The lessons about refugees were so entertaining that it was easy to pay attention.	O	O	O	O	O
6	What I have learned in history about refugees is fascinating.	O	O	O	O	O
7	I am excited about what we have learned about refugees in history class.	O	O	O	O	O
8	I like what we have learned in the history lessons about refugees.	O	O	O	O	O

9	I find the subject of refugees in history very interesting.	O	O	O	O	O
10	What we have learned about refugees in history is useful for me to know.	O	O	O	O	O
11	What we have learned about refugees in history can be applied to real life.	O	O	O	O	O
12	We have learned valuable things in the history lessons about refugees.	O	O	O	O	O

APPENDIX I

Student questionnaire: *Pedagogical Approach* (post-test) (chapter 5); translated from Dutch.

1 = totally disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neutral
4 = agree
5 = totally agree

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Lessons about topics from different times are confusing.	o	o	o	o	o
2	Teaching a theme with topics from different times (like in the refugee lessons) is more difficult than the history teaching we are used to.	o	o	o	o	o
3	In the refugee lessons, there were so many different topics that it was difficult to understand them	o	o	o	o	o

APPENDIX J

Student questionnaire: *Lesson Content Knowledge* (post-test) (chapter 5); translated from Dutch.

		TRUE	FALSE
1	In 1914, approximately one million Belgian refugees came to the Netherlands.	O	O
2	The Portuguese Jews were more discriminated against in the Dutch Republic than the German Jews.	O	O
3	The United States admitted a very limited number of Cuban refugees.	O	O
4	In Holland people often thought of the refugees from the Southern Provinces as conceited and vain.	O	O
5	At the end of the Second World War the so-called Heimatvertriebene fled to western Germany for economic reasons.	O	O
6	In 1914, few Dutch municipalities were prepared to receive Belgian refugees.	O	O
7	At the end of the war, the Allies (Americans, British and Russians) tried to prevent Germans from being expelled from their territory.	O	O
8	The Jews were better treated in the Dutch Republic than in many other European countries.	O	O
9	The refugees from the Southern Provinces provided an important impulse for the economy in the Dutch Republic.	O	O
10	Antwerp was reconquered by the Spaniards in 1585.	O	O
11	The population of the American state of Florida was not worried about the influx of Cubans to their country.	O	O
12	The Dutch government found that the Belgian refugees in 1914 were entitled to protection and shelter.	O	O
13	City governments of the Dutch Republic were afraid that the Jews would harm the Christian religion.	O	O
14	Because the Heimatvertriebene were German and spoke the language, they did not face discrimination in Germany.	O	O

15	Fidel Castro took over power in Cuba in 1959.	O	O
16	The Heimatvertriebene came from the areas in Germany occupied by the Americans, French and British.	O	O
17	In the Dutch Republic, administrators believed that religious tolerance (for example towards the Jews) was good for the country.	O	O
18	According to liberal Protestants, the Calvinists from the South were a threat to religious tolerance in the Dutch Republic.	O	O
19	Most Belgian refugees stayed in the Netherlands until the end of the war.	O	O
20	In the first years after Castro's takeover of power, mostly rich, well-to-do Cubans fled their country.	O	O
21	Because Jews in the Republic were excluded from most guilds, they were often active in the street trade.	O	O
22	In the Netherlands there are still a number of monuments that remind us of the stay of the Belgian refugees.	O	O
23	In total there were about two million Heimatvertriebene.	O	O
24	In view of the Cold War, the flight of Cubans to the United States was beneficial for the American government.	O	O
25	Cities in the Dutch Republic offered favorable conditions for settling refugees from the Southern Provinces.	O	O
26	In Amsterdam only the German Jews were allowed to build a synagogue.	O	O
27	Germany attacked Belgium in 1914 because Belgium had joined the war in France.	O	O
28	The Heimatvertriebene also came from old German communities in Central and Eastern European countries such as Hungary and Romania.	O	O
29	The American government had little understanding of why Cubans fled their country.	O	O
30	Around 1650 about 1% of the population of the Dutch Republic was of southern Netherlands descent.	O	O

SAMENVATTING (SUMMARY IN DUTCH)

Relevantie van geschiedenis is in het voortgezet onderwijs dikwijls een probleem. Leerlingen in de onderbouw begrijpen veelal niet waarom ze zoveel moeten leren over mensen 'die toch allemaal al dood zijn', terwijl leerlingen in de bovenbouw vaak wel de potentiële relevantie van geschiedenis inzien, maar dan vaak ervaren dat het bestaande curriculum in onvoldoende mate voorziet in zinvol en relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. In dit proefschrift staat dit probleem van relevantie centraal. Het doel is enerzijds om te beschrijven in welke opzichten geschiedenis kan bijdragen aan de persoonlijke en maatschappelijke vorming van leerlingen en welke didactische strategieën daarbij kunnen helpen, en anderzijds om de werkzaamheid van die methoden empirisch te onderzoeken. Een belangrijke vraag is in hoeverre het verbinden van verleden, heden en toekomst in de geschiedenisles van invloed is op de mate waarin leerlingen geschiedenis relevant vinden.

Hoofdstuk 1 belicht de achtergronden, de doelen en de opzet van het onderzoek. Sinds de invoering van geschiedenis in het Nederlandse onderwijs halverwege de negentiende eeuw zijn de functies van het vak altijd onderwerp van debat geweest. Vanaf de jaren zestig van de twintigste eeuw verschoof het accent van het kweken van nationaal gezinde staatsburgers naar het beheersen van methoden van historisch onderzoek. Het staatsburgerperspectief verdween echter nooit geheel uit zicht, zoals bleek uit de invoering in 2010 van een canon van vijftig items uit de Nederlandse geschiedenis waar leerlingen als toekomstige burgers van dit land weet van zouden moeten hebben. Enige jaren daarvoor was het curriculum reeds grondig herzien door de invoering van een algemeen kader van tien tijdvakken waarmee leerlingen zich in de tijd kunnen oriënteren. Ten behoeve van het eindexamen geschiedenis werd later besloten historische feitenkennis nader te specificeren in historische thema's die verschillende tijdvakken en kenmerkende aspecten omvatten. Dit alles heeft geleid tot een hybride geheel aan doelen die met het Nederlandse geschiedenisonderwijs beoogd worden. Aan de ene kant is er het streven leerlingen in te wijden in de denkwijzen van het vak (historisch denken en historisch tijdsbesef), aan de andere kant worden leerlingen geacht te beschikken over specifiek omschreven historische kennis (canon en examenthema's).

Dit onderzoek neemt de ontwikkeling van historisch tijdsbesef als uitgangspunt van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. Historisch tijdsbesef duidt op de onderlinge samenhang tussen verleden, heden en toekomst die inherent is aan het denken over tijd en die richting geeft aan het menselijk handelen. Van nature baseren mensen hun handelen en verwachtingen voor de toekomst op ervaringen in het verleden die zij zich herinneren. Dit 'ongeschoolde' historische tijdsbesef beperkt zich meestal tot de eigen persoonlijke omgeving en omspant meestal niet meer dan enkele generaties. ‘Geschoold’ historisch tijdsbesef daarentegen heeft betrekking op doelgerichte bestudering van de geschiedenis van menselijke samenlevingen en culturen die duizenden jaren omvat en in mentaal opzicht ‘ver’ van leerlingen af kan staan. Deze studie vergt veel meer inspanning dan de spontane, ongeschoolde omgang met het verleden. Zij levert historische narratieven of verhalen op waarvan de betekenis voor leerlingen vaak minder duidelijk is dan die van verhalen die betrekking hebben op de geschiedenis van hun eigen leven.

In onderwijsprogramma’s in binnen- en buitenland is de ontwikkeling van historisch tijdsbesef een belangrijk doel, met name in de context van burgerschapsvorming. Eindtermen omschrijven weliswaar welke onderwerpen leerlingen moeten leren in hun oriëntatie op het verleden, maar ze geven niet aan hoe leerlingen deze onderwerpen kunnen gebruiken in hun oriëntatie op heden en toekomst. Blijkbaar gaat men ervan uit dat leerlingen uit zichzelf relaties leggen tussen wat ze bij geschiedenis leren en de wereld buiten school. Onderzoek suggereert echter dat leerlingen daartoe niet geneigd of vanzelf in staat zijn. Daar is onderwijs voor nodig dat leerlingen helpt verbindingen te maken tussen verleden, heden en toekomst. Dit onderzoek wil aan de ontwikkeling van dergelijk onderwijs een bijdrage leveren. De hoofdvraag luidt:

Wat zijn de doelen en methoden van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs dat zich expliciet richt op het leggen van relaties tussen verleden, heden en toekomst, en hoe beïnvloedt dit type onderwijs de mate waarin leerlingen geschiedenis als relevant ervaren?

Relevant geschiedenisonderwijs is onderwijs dat leerlingen in staat stelt om te ervaren wat geschiedenis te maken heeft met henzelf, met de samenleving waarin zij leven en met hun algemene inzicht in het menselijk bestaan. In dergelijk onderwijs gebruiken leerlingen historische kennis in hedendaagse maatschappelijke en persoonlijke

contexten, iets wat volgens de leerpsychologie gelegenheid biedt ‘buitenschoolse’ betekenis toe te kennen aan ‘schoolse’ leerstof. De hypothese van dit proefschrift is dat geschiedenisonderwijs dat zich expliciet richt op verleden, heden en toekomst een positieve uitwerking heeft op de mate waarin leerlingen geschiedenis een nuttig vak vinden. Dit is een belangrijke didactische kwestie, omdat onderzoek uitwijst dat het inzien van nut en waarde van een schoolvak de betrokkenheid en motivatie van leerlingen in de les vergroot.

Dit proefschrift omvat een theoretische en vier empirische studies. De theoretische studie presenteert een raamwerk voor relevant geschiedenisonderwijs dat bestaat uit drie onderwijsdoelen en vier didactische strategieën die leraren en leerlingen kunnen gebruiken om in de geschiedenisles relaties te leggen tussen verleden, heden en toekomst (hoofdstuk 2). De tweede studie heeft betrekking op de totstandkoming en validatie van een vragenlijst waarmee kan worden gemeten hoe leerlingen denken over de relevantie van geschiedenis zoals gedefinieerd in het theoretisch raamwerk (hoofdstuk 3). De derde studie beslaat drie casestudy’s waarin onderzocht wordt in hoeverre toepassing van de didactische strategieën van het theoretische raamwerk binnen bestaande lesprogramma’s haalbaar en uitvoerbaar is (hoofdstuk 4). De bevindingen van deze casestudy’s dienden als basis voor een grootschalig experiment waarin twee strategieën gecombineerd werden toegepast in een speciaal voor dit onderzoek ontwikkelde lessenserie die onafhankelijk van bestaande lesprogramma’s werd gegeven. Hoofddoel van deze vierde studie was het meten van effecten van deze experimentele lessen op de waardering van de relevantie van geschiedenis door leerlingen (hoofdstuk 5). De vijfde en laatste studie peilt de meningen en ervaringen van leerlingen en leraren die deelnamen aan het experiment van studie 4. Hier ging het om de vraag of leerlingen en leraren het leggen van relaties tussen verleden, heden en toekomst volgens de gehanteerde didactische aanpak wenselijk en haalbaar achtten (hoofdstuk 6). Hoofdstuk 7 vat de resultaten van de vijf studies samen en bespreekt de betekenis ervan in het licht van bestaande wetenschappelijke literatuur. In dit hoofdstuk staan suggesties voor vervolgonderzoek en worden implicaties van dit onderzoek voor de onderwijspraktijk besproken.

Hoofdstuk 2 presenteert een raamwerk van doelen en didactische strategieën voor het realiseren van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. Het begrip 'relevantie' wordt daarbij

onderscheiden van het in de geschiedenisdidactiek gangbare begrip 'historische significantie'. Bestaande operationaliseringen van historische significantie verwijzen zowel naar het belang van historische gebeurtenissen voor mensen in het verleden (bijvoorbeeld de rampzalige demografische gevolgen van de Zwarte Dood in de late middeleeuwen) als naar het belang van historische gebeurtenissen voor mensen in het heden (bijvoorbeeld de historische achtergronden van het huidige Palestijns-Israëlisch conflict). In het besef dat het vaststellen van het belang van gebeurtenissen voor mensen in het verleden óók vanuit hedendaags perspectief plaatsvindt, verwijst 'relevantie' in dit onderzoek alleen naar de betekenis van het verleden voor het heden. Door relevantie te gebruiken in plaats van historische significantie wordt in deze studie extra benadrukt dat het gaat om het gebruik van historische kennis in contemporaine contexten.

Op basis van inzichten uit de onderwijsfilosofie, historische theorie en cognitieve leertheorie zijn drie domeinen van relevante geschiedenis voor leerlingen in het voortgezet onderwijs onderscheiden: (1) relevantie voor de *vorming van een eigen identiteit*; (2) relevantie voor het *functioneren als burger* in de samenleving; en (3) relevantie voor het *inzicht in het menselijk bestaan*.

Geschiedenis draagt op twee manieren bij aan *identiteitsvorming*. Aan de ene kant biedt zij leerlingen inzicht in manieren waarop hun persoonlijke identiteit aansluit bij de geschiedenis van de gemeenschappen waarvan zij deel uitmaken (familie, etniciteit, religieuze denominatie). Aan de andere kant confronteert geschiedenis leerlingen met een grote verscheidenheid aan levensvormen die verschillen van hun eigen manier van leven, waardoor een kritische reflectie op eigen waarden kan worden gestimuleerd, alsook de ontwikkeling van eigen idealen en opvattingen. Leerlingen ontwikkelen zo een bepaalde uniciteit en autonomie ten opzichte van de eigen gemeenschap.

Geschiedenis kan leerlingen kwalificeren en socialiseren tot *burgers*: kwalificeren door bijvoorbeeld inzicht te verschaffen in historische dimensies van staatsvorming en staatsinrichting en in historische denkwijzen die politieke geletterdheid en democratische gezindheid bevorderen; socialiseren door bijvoorbeeld de oorsprong te verklaren van maatschappelijke structuren, conventies, waarden en normen waarmee leerlingen vertrouwd moeten zijn om als burgers te kunnen functioneren.

Geschiedenis verschaft inzicht in drie aspecten van het *menselijk bestaan* die nauw verbonden zijn met het besef van tijd. Ten eerste kunnen leerlingen door geschiedenis

hun eigen bestaan ervaren als een bestaan 'in de tijd': met een verleden dat doorwerkt in het heden en een toekomst die op een dag tot het verleden zal behoren. Dit kan leiden tot een besef van eigen historiciteit en tot een zekere distantie tot de eigen tijd – tot het inzicht dat de eigen tijd niet eeuwig voortduurt of 'absoluut' is, maar onderhevig aan verandering. Ten tweede laat de geschiedenis zien dat veel maatschappelijke vraagstukken niet specifiek tijdgebonden zijn en beschouwd kunnen worden als kenmerkend voor het menselijk bestaan. In alle tijden en culturen hebben mensen bijvoorbeeld nagedacht over zaken als misdaad en straf, het bovennatuurlijke of de verdeling van politieke macht. Door kennis te nemen van manieren waarop mensen in het verleden met zulke tijdloze kwesties zijn omgegaan vergroten leerlingen het reservoir aan ervaringen en oplossingen waaruit geput kan worden bij de aanpak van zulke kwesties. Ten derde wordt bij geschiedenis vanuit een later tijdsperspectief teruggekeken op wat vroeger gebeurd is. Dat laat leerlingen zien dat er een discrepantie kan zijn tussen wat mensen beogen en wat uiteindelijk gerealiseerd wordt. Geschiedenis biedt leerlingen op die manier inzicht in de rol van toeval en contingentie.

Het nastreven van de drie doelen van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs (voor de vorming van een eigen identiteit, voor het functioneren als burger in de samenleving en voor het verkrijgen van inzicht in het menselijk bestaan) kan worden bevorderd door historische kennis te gebruiken in hedendaagse persoonlijke en maatschappelijke contexten. In deze studie worden vier didactische strategieën onderscheiden die hiervoor gebruikt kunnen worden: (1) werken met *longitudinale lijnen*: langdurige ontwikkelingen die tot iets hedendaags hebben geleid, zoals de vorming van nationale staten of de ontwikkeling van wetenschappelijk denken van Oudheid tot Moderne Tijd; (2) werken met *historische analogieën*: het trekken van parallellen tussen verschijnselen in het heden en verleden, bijvoorbeeld - in het kader van het samenleven van verschillende volkeren – het Romeinse Rijk met de Europese Unie; (3) werken met *algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken*, zoals de verdeling van welvaart in de samenleving of de verhouding tussen man en vrouw; (4) werken met *besluitvorming en toekomstscenario's*, bijvoorbeeld op basis van kennis van de Koude Oorlog voorspellen hoe de betrekkingen tussen de Verenigde Staten en Rusland zich in de toekomst zullen ontwikkelen.

Hoewel deze strategieën worden gepresenteerd als vier afzonderlijke categorieën, overlappen ze elkaar gedeeltelijk omdat ze alle historische kennis in hedendaagse contexten gebruiken en gebaseerd zijn op vergelijkingen tussen verleden en heden. Toch worden ze van elkaar onderscheiden omdat ze mogelijk verschillende doelen dienen. *Longitudinale lijnen* betreft historische ontwikkelingen op de lange termijn die culmineren in hedendaagse verschijnselen en processen en daarom goed lijken te passen bij het burgerschapsdoel van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. *Historische analogieën* gaat over parallellen tussen historische en hedendaagse verschijnselen met als doel die hedendaagse verschijnselen beter te begrijpen en te relativeren, waardoor ook deze strategie in de eerste plaats past bij het burgerschapsdoel. *Algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken* passen goed bij het derde relevantiedoel, omdat ze licht werpen op wat mensen in diverse tijdvakken met elkaar verbindt; omdat dergelijke vraagstukken dikwijls een morele dimensie bevatten, kunnen ze leerlingen aanzetten tot meningsvorming en waardenbewustzijn stimuleren; daardoor lijken ze ook te passen bij het identiteitsvormende doel van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. De methode *besluitvorming en toekomstscenario's* richt zich op extrapolatie van historische ontwikkelingen naar eventuele toekomstige ontwikkelingen, waardoor deze benadering aansluit bij de tijdsdimensie van het menselijk bestaan.

Hoofdstuk 3 beschrijft de totstandkoming en psychometrische eigenschappen van de *Relevance of History Measurement Scale* (RHMS). De RHMS is een vragenlijst die speciaal voor dit onderzoek ontworpen is om te kunnen meten hoe leerlingen denken over de relevantie van geschiedenis. Een dergelijk meetinstrument was nodig om vast te kunnen stellen of experimenten met relevant geschiedenisonderwijs effect hebben op de relevantiebeleving van leerlingen. De RHMS werd gebruikt in de interventiestudies van dit onderzoek (zie hoofdstuk 4 en 5).

De eerste versie van de RHMS bestond uit 32 items die correspondeerden met de drie domeinen van relevantie zoals gedefinieerd in het theoretisch raamwerk (hoofdstuk 2). Deze versie bevatte vier subschalen: een voor het domein 'identiteitsvorming', een voor 'inzicht in het menselijk bestaan' en twee voor 'burgerschapsvorming'. Voor burgerschapsvorming werden twee subschalen geconstrueerd om de meetbaarheid van dit brede concept te vergroten. Een subschaal had betrekking op de relevantie van

geschiedenis voor het verklaren van het heden en een op de relevantie van geschiedenis voor meningsvorming en argumenteren.

Voor elke subschaal werden acht items geformuleerd, waarvan vier negatief en vier positief om antwoordtendentie te voorkomen en de betrouwbaarheid van metingen te verhogen. De items betroffen uitspraken over geschiedenis waarop leerlingen konden reageren met antwoorden variërend van 'helemaal mee oneens' tot 'helemaal mee eens'. Ze werden voorgelegd aan veertien onderbouwleerlingen en veertien leraren in het voortgezet onderwijs (VO) met het oog op begrijpelijkheid en validiteit. De eerste versie van de RHMS werd vervolgens getest onder 135 VO-leerlingen om de betrouwbaarheid van de vier subschalen te onderzoeken.

Op basis van de testfase vonden herzieningen van items plaats die uiteindelijk resulteerden in een vragenlijst met een 6-punts Likertschaal die aan een grondiger validatieonderzoek kon worden onderworpen. Deelnemers aan deze validatiestudie waren 1459 havo- en vwo-leerlingen (in de leeftijd van 12 tot 18 jaar) van 29 scholen verspreid over negen Nederlandse provincies.

De constructvaliditeit van de RHMS werd onderzocht door een panel van deskundigen te vragen de willekeurig geselecteerde 32 items in te delen bij de vier subschalen. Daarnaast werd een exploratieve factoranalyse (EFA) uitgevoerd om na te gaan of er genoeg empirische grond bestond voor het destilleren van subschalen uit een schaal van items die allemaal zijn ontworpen om de relevantie van geschiedenis te meten. De passing van het factormodel dat uit de EFA naar voren kwam werd vervolgens getoetst met een confirmatieve factoranalyse (CFA). De daarbij gebruikte fit-indices waren: $\chi 2$; CFI; TLI; RMSEA; SRMR.

De convergente validiteit van de RHMS werd onderzocht met behulp van de zogenoemde Vakbelevingsschaal die in de jaren 1980 door het CITO is ontwikkeld om te meten in hoeverre leerlingen een schoolvak 'nuttig', 'leuk', 'moeilijk' en 'interessant' vinden. Geen van deze aspecten heeft betrekking op de manier waarop relevantie is gedefinieerd in het onderhavige onderzoek, maar de subschaal 'nuttig' van de Vakbelevingsschaal kon worden gebruikt om de RHMS te valideren. Door de acht items van deze subschaal toe te voegen aan de RHMS-vragenlijst werd het mogelijk om de scores van leerlingen op deze schaal te vergelijken met hun scores op de RHMS-

subschalen. Aangenomen werd dat beide typen scores positief zouden correleren, wat de validiteit van de RHMS zou bevestigen.

Tot slot werden met behulp van de RHMS-data enkele hypothesen getoetst aangaande verschillen tussen groepen respondenten die uit eerder empirisch onderzoek naar voren waren gekomen (zogenaamde ‘known-groups validity’). Een van de aannames was bijvoorbeeld dat onderbouwleerlingen geschiedenis minder relevant zouden vinden dan bovenbouwleerlingen. De RHMS-vragenlijst werd ook ingevuld door eerstejaars studenten van een tweedegraads lerarenopleiding geschiedenis en door eerstejaars PABO-studenten. Aangenomen werd dat de eerste groep geschiedenis relevanter zou vinden dan de tweede groep.

Data-analyse leverde een bevestiging op van de convergente en ‘known-groups’-validiteit van de RHMS. De categorisering van items door het expertpanel onderstreepte de constructvaliditeit van het meetinstrument. De factoranalyses leverden echter drie in plaats van vier subschalen op, aangezien de items van de twee subschalen voor ‘burgerschap' bleken samen te vallen en dus één schaal vormden. De factoranalyses resulteerden ook in de eliminatie van acht items vanwege lage factorladingen of hoge cross-factorladingen. De uiteindelijke versie van de RHMS bestond dus uit drie subschalen (één voor elk domein van relevante geschiedenis: identiteitsvorming, burgerschapsvorming en inzicht in het menselijk bestaan) met 24 items waarvan er twaalf negatief en twaalf positief waren geformuleerd (zie Appendix A). Voor elke subschaal was de Cronbach’s α hoger dan 0.80, wat duidt op een hoge betrouwbaarheid.

De validatiestudie leverde zo een psychometrisch deugdelijk meetinstrument op. Met behulp van dit instrument is vervolgens in kaart gebracht hoe Nederlandse leerlingen denken over de relevantie van geschiedenis. Naarmate leerlingen ouder worden neemt hun relevantiebeleving op alle drie relevantiedomeinen toe, met een relatief steile toename tussen de leeftijd van 14 en 16 jaar voor de domeinen 'burgerschap’ en ‘inzicht in het menselijk bestaan’. De relevantie van geschiedenis voor de vorming van een eigen identiteit werd het laagst gewaardeerd door alle leerlingen, ongeacht leeftijd, wat in overeenstemming is met de literatuur waarin wordt gesteld dat persoonlijke identiteitsontwikkeling zich laat in de adolescentie voordoet.

Hoofdstuk 4 presenteert de resultaten van drie casestudy's waarin de werkzaamheid van drie didactische strategieën (een casestudy per strategie) van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs werd onderzocht. Het betrof lesgeven met algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken, met longitudinale lijnen en met historische analogieën. De casestudy's werden verricht op twee middelbare scholen met in totaal 135 leerlingen en vier leraren als participanten. De strategieën werden toegepast binnen bestaande lesprogramma's die onderdeel waren van het huidige chronologisch-thematisch geordende geschiedeniscurriculum. Het doel was om uit te zoeken in hoeverre inpassing in het bestaande geschiedenisonderwijs zonder meer haalbaar is of dat daarvoor curriculumherzieningen nodig zijn. Deze haalbaarheidsvraag werd onderzocht met behulp van drie indicatoren: (1) de mate waarin leerlingen historische kennis gebruikten in hun oriëntatie op actuele zaken; (2) de ervaringen van leraren met de implementatie van de strategie in hun dagelijkse onderwijspraktijk; (3) mogelijke effecten van de strategieën op het denken van leerlingen over de relevantie van geschiedenis. Gegevens werden verzameld met behulp van gesloten vragenlijsten, waaronder de RHMS, en semigestructureerde interviews met leraren en leerlingen (zie Appendices A t/m C).

In de eerste casestudy bestudeerden 56 leerlingen in het derde leerjaar van havo en vwo een algemeen-menselijke kwestie in het kader van acht reguliere lessen over de Koude Oorlog. De kwestie richtte zich op de vraag in hoeverre het aan mensen opleggen van ideologische waardenstelsels met een universele waarheidsclaim (zoals communisme en democratisch-kapitalisme) kan worden gerechtvaardigd. Tijdens de lessen werden aspecten van de Koude Oorlog (bijvoorbeeld de Truman-doctrine, de Berlijnse muur of de toekomst van het communisme in China na de val van de Sovjet-Unie) aangegrepen om leerlingen te stimuleren om over dit vraagstuk na te denken. In de tweede casestudy kregen twintig 4-havo-leerlingen twaalf lessen over de ontwikkeling van aspecten van burgerschap in de westerse samenleving van Oudheid tot Moderne Tijd. Ze bestudeerden bijvoorbeeld de onderwerping van onderdanen (als contrast met burgers) aan een hogere autoriteit in de Mesopotamische stadsstaten, in Frankrijk onder Lodewijk XIV en in Duitsland tijdens de nazi-heerschappij. Daarbij maakten ze gebruik van het in het geschiedenisonderwijs vigerende kader van tien tijdvakken. In de derde casestudy gingen 59 leerlingen in het tweede leerjaar van het vmbo aan de slag met analogieën tussen verleden en heden in de context van acht reguliere lessen over de

Eerste en Tweede Wereldoorlog. In een analogie met de Eerste Wereldoorlog gingen ze bijvoorbeeld na in hoeverre de oorlog tussen de zogenaamde Islamitische Staat en de door de Verenigde Staten geleide coalitietroepen in 2015 een wereldoorlog genoemd kon worden.

De resultaten van de casestudy's lieten zien dat leerlingen niet uit zichzelf gebruikmaakten van historische kennis in het nadenken over actuele zaken, ook niet wanneer daar expliciet om gevraagd werd. Wel verwezen leerlingen die gewerkt hadden met historische analogieën vaker naar wat ze in de lessen hadden geleerd dan leerlingen in casestudy's 'algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken' en 'longitudinale lijnen'.

De leraren vonden deelname aan het onderzoek vruchtbaar voor hun dagelijkse onderwijspraktijk. Op één na merkten ze op dat de leerlingen meer geïnteresseerd waren omdat er koppelingen met het heden werden gemaakt. Inpassing van de strategie in het bestaande lesprogramma leidde volgens hen niet tot grote problemen. Wel ervoeren sommigen een gebrek aan tijd, vooral om leerlingen goed voor te bereiden op reguliere toetsen. De leraren die betrokken waren bij de derde casestudy constateerden dat het werken met historische analogieën de motivatie en betrokkenheid van leerlingen sterk verhoogde. De lerares van de tweede casestudy ervoer daarentegen dat werken met longitudinale lijnen voor leerlingen veeleisend en weinig motiverend was.

De RHMS-metingen brachten aan het licht dat leerlingen die hadden deelgenomen aan de eerste casestudy (algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken) de relevantie van geschiedenis significant positiever gingen waarderen. In de tweede casestudy (longitudinale lijnen) werden geen verschuivingen in relevantiepercepties waargenomen. In de derde casestudy (historische analogieën) waren de RHMS-scores in de nameting weliswaar hoger dan in de voormeting, maar de verschillen waren niet significant.

Op basis van de drie casestudy's, die exploratief en beperkt van omvang waren, werd geconcludeerd dat werken met analogieën tussen verleden en heden goed in het huidige geschiedeniscurriculum ingepast kan worden. Deze didactische strategie kan leerlingen motiveren en stimuleren om opvattingen over actuele zaken te onderbouwen met kennis van het verleden. Inpassing van 'algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken' en 'longitudinale lijnen' is complexer. Leerlingen leken moeite te hebben om feitelijke en chronologisch geordende leerstof te verbinden met algemeen-abstracte zaken die voortvloeien uit de

conceptuele en diachrone aanpak van deze twee strategieën. Vruchtbare implementatie van beide strategieën vergt waarschijnlijk aanpassing van het curriculum.

Hoofdstuk 5 rapporteert de effecten van een grootschalig quasi-experiment met relevant geschiedenisonderwijs, waarbij de strategieën 'historische analogieën' en 'algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken' gecombineerd werden aangeboden. 1022 Bovenbouwleerlingen havo en vwo afkomstig van 24 scholen verspreid over Nederland namen deel aan dit experiment. Het sloot aan op de bevindingen van de casestudy's uit hoofdstuk 4, die aantoonden dat inpassing van 'algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken' in het bestaande geschiedeniscurriculum nogal wat voeten in de aarde heeft. Daarom werd besloten om een lessenserie te ontwerpen waarin zo'n vraagstuk het leidende principe was en geïllustreerd werd door typerende casussen uit heden en verleden. Vanwege het potentieel van de historische analogiestrategie voorzag het experiment in systematische vergelijkingen tussen de casussen met behulp van een raamwerk met algemene concepten en vragen. Aan de lessenserie lagen derhalve twee onderwijskundige principes ten grondslag: comparatief of analoog redeneren en conceptueel leren. Uit de literatuur is bekend dat beide principes bevorderlijk zijn voor kennistransfer en het afleiden van algemene betekenissen uit beschrijvende kennis. Daarom werd aangenomen dat relevant geschiedenisonderwijs op basis van deze principes de percepties van leerlingen over de relevantie van geschiedenis positief zou beïnvloeden. Het onderzoeken van deze hypothese was het hoofddoel van deze studie. Omdat dit type geschiedenisonderwijs innovatief is, is ook gekeken naar de effecten op de door leerlingen ervaren moeilijkheidsgraad, hun leerprestaties en hun 'situationele interesse'. Dat laatste slaat op interesse die opgewekt wordt door factoren in de les, zoals de duidelijkheid van leertaken of de aantrekkelijkheid van de lesinhoud.

Onderwerp van de lessenserie was het tijdloze vraagstuk van migratie en integratie. De lessen gingen over vijf vluchtelingengroepen in de Vroegmoderne en Moderne Tijd: (1) protestanten uit de Zuidelijke Nederlanden die tijdens de Nederlandse Opstand naar de Noordelijke Nederlanden trokken (zestiende eeuw); (2) vervolgde Spaans-Portugese en Oost-Europese joden die hun toevlucht zochten in de Nederlandse Republiek (zeventiende eeuw); (3) Belgen die in 1914 wegens oorlogsgeweld naar Nederland vluchtten; (4) Duitsers die aan het eind van de Tweede Wereldoorlog van voormalig

Duits grondgebied in Oost- en Midden-Europa werden verdreven; (5) Cubanen die na de communistische machtsovername door Fidel Castro in 1959 hun heil in de Verenigde Staten zochten.

Op basis van inzichten uit de cognitieve leerpsychologie werden twee experimentele condities onderscheiden: (1) een *case-comparison* conditie, en een (2) *separate-case* conditie. In de eerste vergeleken leerlingen (n = 460) de vijf historische vluchtelingengroepen onderling en trokken zij analogieën met hedendaagse vluchtelingen in Nederland; de vergelijkende leeractiviteiten werden ondersteund door het 'guided analogy training'-model (Gentner, Loewenstein, & Thompson, 2003) en een raamwerk van algemene concepten en vragen (zie Appendix F). In de *separate-case* conditie bestudeerden leerlingen (n = 273) de vijf historische vluchtelingengroepen afzonderlijk zonder ze onderling te vergelijken en zonder analogieën met het heden te trekken. Leeractiviteiten in deze conditie waren gericht op het oefenen van historische redeneerwijzen en op de verwerving van kennis van de casussen, mede in het licht van de zogenoemde historische contexten die leerlingen voor het examen moesten leren. Hoewel leerlingen met dit type leeractiviteiten vertrouwd waren, moet benadrukt worden dat de *separate-case* conditie óók experimenteel was, omdat het bestaande geschiedeniscurriculum niet is georganiseerd rond algemene vraagstukken die besproken worden aan de hand van voorbeelden uit verschillende tijdvakken. Het viel niet uit te sluiten dat de aanpak in deze conditie van invloed was op de mening van leerlingen over de relevantie van geschiedenis, ook al werd op basis van de literatuur aangenomen dat zij de vijf casussen in hun geïsoleerde historische context zouden bestuderen zonder uit zichzelf doelgerichte vergelijkingen te maken. Door twee experimentele condities te ontwerpen, kon worden nagegaan of het naast elkaar houden van parallelle historische situaties zonder expliciete vergelijkingsactiviteiten op zichzelf al iets oplevert, of dat voor een positief rendement echt expliciete vergelijkingsactiviteiten nodig zijn.

Omdat zowel de *case-comparison* als de *separate-case* conditie experimenteel was, werd de relevantiebeleving van beide groepen niet onderling vergeleken, maar met die van een vergelijkbare groep leerlingen (n = 289) die niet aan het experiment hadden deelgenomen. Deze leerlingen kregen les over verschillende reguliere historische onderwerpen, variërend van de Verlichting tot de Koude Oorlog. Omdat zij het gebruikelijke onderwijs genoten, werd aangenomen dat hun relevantiebeleving niet

significant zou veranderen. Dit had het geval kunnen zijn als een bepaald historisch onderwerp of een bepaalde benadering van de leraar leerlingen zou stimuleren na te denken over de relevantie van geschiedenis, maar omdat er veel verschillende onderwerpen en leraren waren, kon dit beide kanten op: de relevantiebeleving zou zowel positief als negatief beïnvloed kunnen worden. Op deze manier werden potentiële effecten van lesinhoud of benaderingen van leerkrachten aanzienlijk geneutraliseerd.

In beide experimentele condities bestond de interventie uit zes lessen van elk vijftig minuten: één introductieles waarin de doelen en werkwijze uiteengezet werden, en één les per historische casus. Voor de casuslessen werden in beide condities dezelfde leerteksten gebruikt om te waarborgen dat alle leerlingen dezelfde informatie kregen. De opdrachten waren, overeenkomstig de verschillende doelen van beide condities, niet identiek. In de *case-comparison* conditie waren ze gericht op reflectie op hedendaagse vluchtelingenkwesties in een analogie met de historische casussen, in de *separate-case* conditie op kennisverwerving en vaardighedentraining (zie Appendices D-E).

Op basis van de leercognitieve inzichten die aan beide condities ten grondslag lagen, werd een aantal hypothesen geformuleerd. Aangenomen werd dat de waardering van de relevantie van geschiedenis en de situationele interesse in de *case-comparison* groep sterker zouden worden beïnvloed dan in de *separate-case* groep. De *case-comparison* groep zou minder problemen ondervinden met het leren van exemplarische casussen uit diverse historische tijden dan de *separate-case* groep, omdat de eerste groep de casussen vergelijkenderwijs bestudeerde met behulp van een conceptueel raamwerk dat samenhang en structuur zou moeten bieden. Ten slotte zouden zich tussen beide condities geen significante verschillen voordoen in het verwerven van feitenkennis over de vijf historische casussen. Gezien de effectiviteit van analoog leren, zoals beschreven in de literatuur, leek het onwaarschijnlijk dat leerlingen in de *case-comparison* conditie in dit opzicht zouden onderpresteren, ondanks het feit dat ze een aanzienlijk deel van hun tijd hadden besteed aan vergelijkingen tussen verleden en heden, terwijl leerlingen in de *separate-case* conditie zich voornamelijk bezig hadden gehouden met het leren van historische feiten.

De hierboven genoemde hypothesen werden getest met behulp van gesloten vragenlijsten (zie appendices A, H-J), waaronder de RHMS voor het meten van de mening van leerlingen over de relevantie van geschiedenis. Een multilevel-analyse van

de data, waarbij statistisch werd gecontroleerd voor eventuele invloed van achtergrondvariabelen, bevestigde de meeste hypothesen. De relevantiepercepties van leerlingen in de *case-comparison* conditie werden sterker positief beïnvloed dan de relevantiepercepties van leerlingen in de *separate-case* conditie. De *case-comparison* groep vond de gehanteerde aanpak minder complex dan de *separate-case* groep. Er waren geen verschillen ten aanzien van de verwerving van feitenkennis. Wat de situationele interesse van de leerlingen betreft, deden zich tussen beide groepen geen verschillen voor ten aanzien van interesse, betrokkenheid en plezier. De *case-comparison* groep vond de lessen echter wel waardevoller dan de *separate-case* groep.

Hoofdstuk 6 beschrijft de ervaringen van leerlingen en leraren die deelnamen aan de *case-comparison* conditie van de interventiestudie beschreven in hoofdstuk 5. Om meer te weten te komen over de haalbaarheid van de *case-comparison* strategie in het licht van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs, werd onderzocht wat zij vonden van de wenselijkheid en complexiteit van deze aanpak. Er werden gesloten vragenlijsten afgenomen onder vijftien leraren en 460 leerlingen (na aftrek van onvolledig of niet ingevulde vragenlijsten bleven er 444 geldige metingen over). Vier leraren en 22 leerlingen werden op semigestructureerde wijze geïnterviewd.

De leerlingen en de leraren waren in grote meerderheid van mening dat het geschiedenisonderwijs zich op het verleden én op het heden moet richten. De leraren voerden aan dat aandacht voor het heden de betrokkenheid en motivatie van leerlingen vergroot en leerlingen helpt bij het leren van geschiedenis. Dat waren ook de redenen die leerlingen gaven. Daarnaast vonden leerlingen oriëntatie op heden en toekomst een belangrijke functie van geschiedenis. Zij beschouwden het verleden als een moreel kompas voor het handelen in het heden, vooral in termen van het vermijden van fouten die vroeger zijn gemaakt. Er waren echter ook leerlingen die op basis van wat ze in de lessen over vluchtelingen in de geschiedenis hadden geleerd het huidige vluchtelingenvraagstuk in een ander daglicht gingen zien. Kennis van het verleden leidde in deze gevallen tot nieuwe inzichten en het stellen van vragen over het heden.

Over het algemeen ondervonden de leerlingen geen noemenswaardige problemen met de *case-comparison* methode, wat in overeenstemming was met de ervaringen van leraren. De leerlingen verklaarden baat te hebben gehad bij het raamwerk van algemene

vragen en begrippen. Enkele leerlingen uit vwo 6 vonden de gehanteerde aanpak echter tamelijk veeleisend. Zij voerden aan dat bij het maken van vergelijkingen in de tijd gedegen historische kennis nodig is om anachronismen te voorkomen. Omdat leerlingen uit havo 4 en 5 geen problemen constateerden, is het verleidelijk om hun ervaringen in verband te brengen met hun niveau van historisch redeneren. Volgens de literatuur vereisen inzichten in dit domein een zekere mate van cognitieve rijping en volwassenheid. Het kan dus zijn dat leerlingen geen problemen signaleerden omdat ze zich niet ten volle bewust waren van de eisen die vanuit wetenschappelijk oogpunt aan het maken van historische analogieën gesteld worden.

De leerlingen bleken geen duidelijke voorkeur te hebben voor de *case-comparison* methode (in de context van een algemeen-menselijk vraagstuk) boven de aanpak die ze gewend waren. Zowel leerlingen als leraren stelden voor om beide aanpakken te combineren, bijvoorbeeld door het kader van tien tijdvakken als basis te gebruiken voor lessen rond algemene vraagstukken die aan de hand van casussen uit verschillende tijden bestudeerd worden. De leraren stonden positief tegenover het opnemen van comparatief-diachronische thema's in het examenprogramma geschiedenis havo en vwo. Zij waren zich terdege bewust van de spanning die kan ontstaan tussen het wetenschappelijk recht doen aan het verleden en het trekken van analogieën tussen heden en verleden. Ze voerden echter aan dat zonder oriëntatie op het heden geschiedenis voor leerlingen betekenisloos blijft.

Op basis van ervaringen en opvattingen van leerlingen en leraren kan geconcludeerd worden dat geschiedenisonderwijs waarin historische en hedendaagse casussen van een algemeen-menselijk vraagstuk worden vergeleken haalbaar is in de bovenbouw van havo en vwo. Leerlingen en leraren benadrukten het belang van oriëntatie op het heden in de geschiedenisles. Leerlingen hadden geen moeite met de gehanteerde aanpak, al dient daarbij te worden aangetekend dat zij zich mogelijk onvoldoende bewust waren van de vereisten van wetenschappelijk deugdelijke historische analogieën, zoals ook bleek uit hun neiging lessen uit het verleden onverkort op het heden toe te passen.

In **hoofdstuk 7** worden de algemene conclusies van het proefschrift getrokken en bediscussieerd, richtingen voor vervolgonderzoek aangegeven en implicaties voor de onderwijspraktijk besproken.

Algemene conclusies

Het onderzoek heeft willen voorzien in een empirisch onderbouwd raamwerk van doelen en methoden van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs dat zich expliciet richt op het leggen van relaties tussen verleden, heden en toekomst. Relevante geschiedenis draagt bij aan de persoonlijke identiteitsvorming van leerlingen, aan hun functioneren als burger in de samenleving en aan het vergroten van hun inzichten in het menselijk bestaan. De kwantitatieve en kwalitatieve metingen in dit onderzoek tonen aan dat Nederlandse leerlingen in havo en vwo de relevantie van geschiedenis meer gaan waarderen naarmate ze ouder worden. Van de drie bovengenoemde doelen van relevantie, schatten leerlingen de waarde van geschiedenis voor de eigen identiteit het laagst in. De relevantie van geschiedenis voor ‘burgerschap’ en ‘inzicht in het menselijk bestaan’ slaan leerlingen hoger aan.

Didactische strategieën voor relevant geschiedenisonderwijs zijn lesgeven met algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken, met longitudinale lijnen, met historische analogieën tussen verleden en heden en onderwijs waarin leerlingen op basis van historische kennis besluiten nemen en toekomstscenario's schetsen. Dit onderzoek bevat sterke aanwijzingen dat lesgeven met longitudinale lijnen het moeilijkst realiseerbaar is. ‘Historische analogieën’ en ‘algemeen-menselijke vraagstukken’ lijken veelbelovende strategieën vanuit het oogpunt van haalbaarheid en werkzaamheid, vooral wanneer ze worden gecombineerd in curricula die zijn ontworpen volgens de principes van comparatief-analoog en conceptueel leren.

Dit onderzoek heeft laten zien dat geschiedenisonderwijs dat zich richt op verleden, heden en toekomst de opvattingen van leerlingen over de relevantie van geschiedenis positief kan beïnvloeden. In de onderbouw lijken grotere verschuivingen in relevantiepercepties mogelijk dan in de bovenbouw, omdat bovenbouwleerlingen geschiedenis bij voorbaat relevanter vinden, hetgeen de ruimte voor ‘groei’ dankzij interventies beperkt.

Discussie en wenken voor vervolgonderzoek

Het gebruik van de term relevant geschiedenisonderwijs suggereert ten onrechte dat er zoiets bestaat als irrelevant geschiedenisonderwijs. Elke vorm van intentioneel leren in een educatieve context heeft echter betekenis. Met de term ‘relevantie’ wordt benadrukt

dat betekenisvolle relaties tussen verleden, heden en toekomst niet spontaan ontstaan wanneer leerlingen geschiedenis leren. Daar is onderwijs voor nodig dat leerlingen stimuleert om historische kennis toe te passen in eigentijdse, persoonlijke en maatschappelijke contexten.

De drie doelen van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs overlappen elkaar gedeeltelijk, zoals ook bleek uit het feit dat de drie corresponderende subschalen die uit de RHMS-factoranalyses naar voren kwamen onderling samenhangen. Toch zijn ze van elkaar onderscheiden, omdat diezelfde factoranalyses daartoe gegronde aanleiding gaven en omdat zo wordt aangegeven dat er wellicht meer doelen van relevantie van geschiedenis te onderscheiden zijn dan deze drie. Dit onderzoek pretendeert immers niet dat de hier gehanteerde definities het hele terrein van relevantie dekken.

In het raamwerk van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs zijn mogelijke combinaties van doelen en bijpassende didactische strategieën verkend. Verondersteld werd bijvoorbeeld dat werken met longitudinale lijnen goed in dienst kan staan van het burgerschapsdoel, omdat het licht werpt op hedendaagse maatschappelijke verschijnselen en ontwikkelingen. De empirische studies in dit onderzoek geven weliswaar aanwijzingen voor mogelijke combinaties, maar meer onderzoek is nodig om hun onderlinge verwevenheid in kaart te brengen. Ook is onderzoek nodig naar de werkzaamheid van ‘besluitvorming en toekomstscenario’s’, de vierde didactische aanpak van het theoretisch raamwerk, die in de studies van dit proefschrift weinig aandacht heeft gekregen.

Dit onderzoek heeft een vragenlijst opgeleverd waarmee het denken van leerlingen over de relevantie van geschiedenis op betrouwbare en valide manier kan worden gemeten. Omdat de validatiestudie in Nederland plaatsvond, moet worden bezien of RHMS-vragenlijst ook in andere landen bruikbaar is. Op voorhand lijkt dat mogelijk in landen met een vergelijkbare onderwijscultuur, waarin leerlingen, zoals onderzoek laat zien, attitudes jegens geschiedenis hebben die vergelijkbaar zijn met die van Nederlandse leerlingen.

Uit de RHMS-metingen kwam naar voren dat bovenbouwleerlingen geschiedenis relevanter vinden dan onderbouwleerlingen. Dat lijkt op het eerste gezicht logisch omdat die bovenbouwleerlingen hadden gekozen voor een profiel waarvan geschiedenis deel uitmaakt. Toch ligt dat niet zo eenvoudig. Leerlingen kiezen een profiel waarin geschiedenis een verplicht vak is; het is dus geen uitgemaakte zaak dat ze geschiedenis

bij voorbaat relevant en nuttig vinden, wat vermoedelijk vooral geldt voor leerlingen met het profiel Economie en Maatschappij. Uit de metingen bleek bovendien dat 4-havisten die een profiel met geschiedenis hadden gekozen het vak niet relevanter vonden dan leerlingen in vwo 4 zonder profiel. Tot slot, de RHMS-uitkomsten met betrekking tot onderbouwleerlingen stemmen overeen met studies in binnen- en buitenland, waaruit blijkt dat jonge middelbare scholieren geschiedenis minder nuttig vinden (in algemene zin, dus niet volgens de domeinen van relevantie van dit proefschrift) dan oudere leerlingen. Deze overwegingen laten echter onverlet dat in komende RHMS-metingen ook bovenbouwleerlingen met een profiel zonder geschiedenis betrokken moeten worden.

Leerlingen brachten de relevantie van geschiedenis het minst in verband met hun eigen identiteit – met wie ze zijn en hoe ze zich (dienen te) gedragen. Hier past een kanttekening. Uit onderzoek is bekend dat mensen weinig plegen te hebben met 'formele' geschiedenis die op school gedoceerd wordt, maar wel persoonlijk en emotioneel betrokken kunnen raken zodra het buitenschoolse, 'informele' geschiedenis betreft waarmee ze in hun dagelijkse leven geconfronteerd worden. Deze informele geschiedenis speelt in de empirische studies van dit onderzoek echter geen rol. Dit is een beperking van het onderzoek, te meer omdat persoonlijk gerelateerde geschiedenis een van de facetten is van het identiteitsvormende relevantiedomein in het theoretisch raamwerk.

Het hoofdexperiment van dit onderzoek heeft laten zien dat de *case-comparison* aanpak in de context van lesgeven over een algemeen-menselijk vraagstuk effectief bijdraagt aan relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. Twee kanttekeningen zijn hier op hun plaats. Hoewel het experiment de relevantiebeleving van leerlingen deed toenemen, waren de gemeten effectgrootten statistisch gezien klein. Dat is misschien niet zo verwonderlijk gezien de korte duur van de interventie. Mogelijk worden de effecten versterkt als meer tijd besteed wordt aan comparatieve leeractiviteiten en minder aan verwerking van leerstof, zoals sommige leraren die bij de interventie betrokken waren suggereerden. Ook bleek dat de deelnemende bovenbouwleerlingen bij aanvang al redelijk positief dachten over de relevantie van geschiedenis, waardoor er niet veel ruimte was voor verschuivingen. Bovendien moet benadrukt worden dat effecten werden gemeten van onderwijs waarin heden en verleden met elkaar werden vergeleken en niet

van onderwijs dat zich direct richt op de functies en relevantie van geschiedenis. Het zou interessant zijn om de effecten van dergelijk onderwijs (dus over functies van geschiedenis) op de relevantiebeleving van leerlingen nader te onderzoeken. Een tweede kanttekening bij het hoofdexperiment is dat het onderwerp van de lessen (het vluchtelingenvraagstuk) de uitkomsten mogelijk beïnvloed heeft. Er was sprake van aandacht voor dit onderwerp in de actualiteit. Het is daarom de vraag of de *case-comparison* aanpak die effectief is gebleken bij dit specifieke onderwerp bij andere onderwerpen even effectief blijkt te zijn. Dat vraagt om vervolgonderzoek.

Hoewel dit onderzoek niet tot doel had leerlingen te onderwijzen in het trekken van wetenschappelijk deugdelijke historische analogieën, verdient deze kwestie enige aandacht. De kwaliteit van de vergelijkingen die leerlingen maakten liet namelijk soms te wensen over. Leerlingen redeneerden dan erg vanuit hedendaagse perspectieven en hielden onvoldoende rekening met verschillen tussen heden en verleden. Dat pleit voor terughoudendheid in het gebruik van verleden-heden analogieën of zelfs voor het vermijden daarvan. Leerlingen zouden bij geschiedenis juist moeten leren dat het verleden een totaal andere tijd is dan het heden, een die op zichzelf bestudeerd en gewaardeerd moet worden. Doelen van geschiedenisonderwijs zouden daarom in de aard van de discipline zelf gezocht moeten worden en niet daarbuiten. Dit proefschrift staat op het standpunt dat doelen van geschiedenisonderwijs zowel aan de discipline zelf ontleend moeten worden als aan de eisen die burgerschapsvorming aan het onderwijs stelt. Dat neemt niet weg dat de kwaliteit van door leerlingen getrokken analogieën tussen heden en verleden een belangrijk aandachtspunt moet zijn in vervolgonderzoek naar relevant geschiedenisonderwijs. Daarbij lijkt een belangrijke rol weggelegd voor onderwijs in historisch redeneren en in de epistemologische concepten van het vak.

Implicaties voor de onderwijspraktijk

Veel vakdidactisch onderzoek houdt zich bezig met historisch leren denken en redeneren. Het vergroten van inzichten en kennis in dit domein van 'geschiedenis leren' is belangrijk, omdat dit type leren bevorderlijk is voor de ontwikkeling van kritisch burgerschap en democratische gezindheid. Dit onderzoek houdt zich vooral bezig met de vraag hoe kennis van het verleden voor leerlingen betekenisvol kan worden gemaakt. Dit is een belangrijke vraag, omdat in de geschiedenisles doorgaans veel tijd besteed wordt

aan het leren van historische feitenkennis zonder dat duidelijk is waartoe die kennis in het licht van burgerschapseducatie dient.

Dit onderzoek heeft doelen en methoden opgeleverd waarmee leraren en onderzoekers onderwijs kunnen vormgeven waarin leerlingen kennis van het verleden gebruiken om zich te oriënteren op heden en toekomst. Dergelijk onderwijs kan ervoor zorgen dat leerlingen de relevantie van geschiedenis leren onderkennen, wat een gunstig effect heeft op hun motivatie en betrokkenheid in de les. Dit onderzoek heeft ook een valide en betrouwbaar instrument (RHMS) opgeleverd waarmee het denken van leerlingen over de relevantie van de geschiedenis in kaart gebracht kan worden. Tot dusverre was zo'n meetinstrument niet beschikbaar. Leraren kunnen het gebruiken om te peilen hoe hun leerlingen over het nut van geschiedenis denken. Ze kunnen de uitkomsten met hun leerlingen delen en samen met hen nagaan hoe geschiedenis waardevol kan zijn. Dat zou kunnen leiden tot andere leerstofordeningen en andere manieren van werken. Effecten van dergelijke ingrepen in de les kunnen vervolgens met behulp van de RHMS gemeten worden en aan leerlingen worden voorgelegd.

Het is geen sinecure om de ontwerpprincipes die dit onderzoek heeft opgeleverd in de praktijk te brengen. Het vereist een herbezinning op de doelen en methoden van geschiedenisonderwijs. Neem bijvoorbeeld lesgeven over zoiets als het ontstaan van het feodalisme in de middeleeuwen. Een traditionele benadering zou zich richten op de vervanging van het Romeinse bestuur, dat de openbare zaak diende en geschraagd werd door staatsinstellingen, door een bestuur dat stoelde op persoonlijke loyaliteit van een vazal aan een heer. De lessen zouden gaan over de val van Rome in 476, de opkomst van het Frankische rijk, de kroning van Karel de Grote in Rome in 800 en de verdeling van het Karolingische rijk tussen de drie zonen van Lodewijk de Vrome volgens het Verdrag van Verdun in 843. Een benadering volgens de uitgangspunten van relevant geschiedenisonderwijs zou zich richten op mechanismen en concepten die kenmerkend zijn voor feodalisme en vazalliteit, zoals persoonlijke loyaliteit in ruil voor de bescherming van iemand die sterker is, een fenomeen dat vandaag nog steeds voorkomt in delen van de wereld waar een effectief opererend staatsgezag nagenoeg afwezig is (bijvoorbeeld krijgsheren in landen als Somalië en Afghanistan). In zo'n benadering zouden leeractiviteiten gericht zijn op het maken van vergelijkingen tussen verleden en heden en minder op het leren van historische feiten. Op basis van ervaringen van leraren

en leerlingen die aan dit onderzoek hebben deelgenomen, is implementatie van deze aanpak haalbaar en wenselijk. Het veronderstelt echter een type geschiedenisonderwijs waarmee leraren niet vertrouwd zijn.

Om dit soort geschiedenisonderwijs te realiseren, zijn veranderingen nodig in het curriculum, in het programma van de lerarenopleiding en in de wijze waarop bij geschiedenis getoetst en geëxamineerd wordt. In het curriculum zou meer tijd moeten worden besteed aan vergelijkende historische thema's en aan het werken met conceptuele kaders. In de lerarenopleiding zouden studenten grondig moeten worden getraind in het analyseren van historische inhoud op een zodanige manier dat vergelijkingen kunnen worden gemaakt en feitelijke verschijnselen kunnen worden geïnterpreteerd in de context van tijdloze kwesties. Toetsen en centrale examens zouden leerlingen moeten testen op hun vermogen om vergelijkingen te maken tussen een reeks historische situaties. Dit alles zou perspectieven openen voor een nieuw type geschiedenisonderwijs, dat niet alleen geschikt is voor de vorming van verantwoordelijke burgers in de 21e eeuw, maar dat ook een oplossing kan bieden voor leraren die worstelen om hun leerlingen uit te leggen waarom ze dingen moeten leren uit een ver verleden dat hen ogenschijnlijk niets te bieden heeft.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Chapter 2

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R. (2016). Making history relevant to students by connecting past, present and future: a framework for research. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *48*(4), 479-503.

Dick van Straaten reviewed the literature, devised the framework and wrote the manuscript. Arie Wilschut provided important input for developing the main theoretical ideas. Arie Wilschut and Ron Oostdam supervised the design of the study and provided feedback on various versions of the manuscript.

Chapter 3

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R. (2018). Measuring students' appraisals of the relevance of history: The construction and validation of the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS). *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, *56*, 102-111.

Dick van Straaten reviewed the literature, devised the measurement instrument (RHMS), collected and analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. Arie Wilschut conceived the original idea for developing the RHMS. Arie Wilschut and Ron Oostdam supervised the design of the RHMS and provided feedback on various versions of the manuscript.

Chapter 4

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R. (2018). Exploring pedagogical approaches for connecting the past, the present and the future in history teaching. *Historical Encounters. A journal of historical consciousness, historical cultures, and history education, 5(1), 46-67*.

Dick van Straaten reviewed the literature, designed the case studies, devised the lesson materials, collected and analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. Arie Wilschut and Ron Oostdam supervised the study and provided feedback on the structure and various versions of the manuscript.

Chapter 5

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., Oostdam, R., & Fukkink, R. Fostering students' appraisals of the relevance of history by comparing analogous cases of an enduring human issue: a quasi-experimental study. Submitted to *Cognition and Instruction*, 16 January 2018 (first review received, revision in progress).

Dick van Straaten reviewed the literature, collected the data and wrote the manuscript. Dick van Straaten analysed the data under supervision of Ruben Fukkink. Dick van Straaten and Arie Wilschut designed the experiment and wrote the lesson materials. Dick van Straaten, Arie Wilschut and Ron Oostdam devised the measurement instruments (apart from the RHMS). All authors discussed the results and (apart from Van Straaten) commented on various versions of the manuscript.

Chapter 6

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R.. Connecting the past and the present through case-comparison learning in history: experiences and views of teachers and students. Submitted to *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 14 March 2018 (under review).

Dick van Straaten reviewed the literature, collected and analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. Arie Wilschut and Ron Oostdam supervised the design of the study and provided feedback on various versions of the manuscript.

RELEVANT PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Publications in peer-reviewed educational journals

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A, & Oostdam, R. (2018). Exploring pedagogical approaches for connecting the past, the present and the future in history teaching. *Historical Encounters: A journal of historical consciousness, historical cultures, and history education, 5(1), 46-67*.

Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R. (2018). Measuring students' appraisals of the relevance of history: The construction and validation of the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS). *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, *56*, 102-111.

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Van Straaten, D., Wilschut, A., & Oostdam, R. Connecting past and present through case-comparison learning in history: experiences and views of teachers and students. Submitted to *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, March 2018. (Resubmitted.)

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Conference contributions

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Wilschut, A., & Van Straaten, D. (February 2018). *The relevance of history for students: how to improve it?* Paper presented at the Convegno Prospettive per la Didattica della Storia in Italia e in Europa*,* Padua, Italy.

Van Straaten, D. (September 2017). *Using the past to orientate on the present and future: case studies*. Paper presented at the 14th annual conference of the History Educators International Research Network (HEIRNET). Dublin, Ireland.

Van Straaten, D. (March 2017) *Relevantie van geschiedenis: uitkomsten van een experiment* [Relevance of history: outcomes of an experiment]. Workshop held at the LOGO conference [Landelijk Overleg Geschiedenis Opleidingen/National Conference of History Teachers Educators]. Nijmegen, Netherlands.

Van Straaten, D. (November 2016) *Relevant geschiedenisonderwijs* [Relevant history teaching]. Workshop held at the conference 'Amsterdammerschap in the classroom' (citizenship education in the context of diversity) of the City of Amsterdam/Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences. Amsterdam, Netherlands.

Van Straaten, D. (September 2016). *The influence of history teaching on students' views on current affairs*. Paper presented at the 13th annual conference of the History Educators International Research Network (HEIRNET), Murcia, Spain.

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Van Straaten, D. & Wilschut, A. (June 2015). *Het meten van relevantie van geschiedenis voor leerlingen* [Measuring students' appraisals of the relevance of history.] Paper presented at the Onderwijs Research Dagen (ORD) [Education Research Days]. Rotterdam, Netherlands.

Van Straaten, D. (March 2015). *Relevante geschiedenislessen. Zin en betekenis van het verleden voor leerlingen.* [Meaningful history lessons. The use and meaning of the past for students.]. Workshop held at the VGN National Congress. Amsterdam, Netherlands.

Van Straaten, D. (February 2015). *Verleden, heden en toekomst in de klas: de relevantie van geschiedenis* [Past, present and future in history teaching: The relevance of history.]. Workshop held at the annual LOGO conference [Landelijk Overleg Geschiedenis Opleidingen/National Conference of History Teachers Educators]. Rotterdam, Netherlands.

Van Straaten, D., & Wilschut, A. (September 2014). *Edutainment and the relevance of history education*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the International Society for History Didactics (ISHD). Wroclaw, Poland.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Dick van Straaten (Alkmaar, 1964) studied History at the University of Amsterdam from 1983 to 1988. He graduated with a thesis about 'pillarization' in the Netherlands. From 1990 onwards, he is a history teacher educator at Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences (AUAS), Faculty of Education. His professional domains of interests are modern history, theory of history and teaching of history. Over the past twenty years, he co-authored and edited several history textbooks for secondary education. He is also co-author of a handbook on history teaching and editor and co-author of a handbook of historical thinking for student teachers, both of which are widely used in universities in the Netherlands and Belgium. Between 2013 and 2018, he was as a PhD researcher affiliated with the Centre for Applied Research in Education (CARE) of AUAS under supervision of Ron Oostdam and Arie Wilschut. His research explores aims and methods of history teaching that explicitly focuses on connections between past, present and future, thus enhancing the relevance of history to students. The main results of this research are described and discussed in this thesis.

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Using the past to orientate on the present and the future can be seen as one of history's main contributions to educating future citizens of democratic societies. This thesis defines and explores aims and methods that may support teachers and students in making meaningful connections between the past, the present and the future in history class. Measurements with the Relevance of History Measurement Scale (RHMS), which was specifically developed for the purpose of this thesis, revealed that this type of history teaching positively affects students' views on the relevance of history. This is an important outcome, because young students in particular have difficulty seeing the benefits of studying the past. Enabling them to see the relevance of history may be an important means to stimulate their motivation and engagement, because students' appreciation of the value of school subjects is key to their commitment in school work.

Dick van Straaten is a historian and history teacher educator at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences (AUAS), Faculty of Education. His research is being done under the auspices of the Centre for Applied Research in Education (CARE) at this university.