Juan Ramón Moreno-Vera /
José Monteagudo-Fernández /
Cosme Jesús Gómez-Carrasco (eds.)

Teaching history to face the world today

Socially-conscious approaches, activity proposals and historical thinking competencies

PETER LANG

Juan Ramón Moreno-Vera /
José Monteagudo-Fernández /
Cosme Jesús Gómez-Carrasco (eds.)

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This book develops the challenges that history teaching must face as a curricular subject at the beginning of the 21st century. These challenges are related, both to new epistemological approaches in history education, and also to the development of new activities, active-learning methodologies, and historical thinking competencies.

In terms of new approaches, this book suggests activities regarding invisible topics such as social and economic impacts in history, inequalities, church and science, gender equality, power and violence, prosecuted by justice, peasantry and the urban world, family and daily life, terror or travelers and their cross-currents.

Regarding the activities, the incidence of new technologies in social relations and the effects of globalization is very remarkable for our students. The authors highlight the need for changes in teaching and learning history.

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Movement

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Abstract: This book develops the challenges that history teaching must face as a curricular subject at the beginning of the 21st century. These challenges are related, both to new epistemological approaches in history education, and also to the development of new activities, active-learning methodologies, and historical thinking competencies. In fact, one of the most important targets of this book is to develop concrete actions and activities that teachers could easily adapt to their classrooms realities.

In terms of new approaches, this book suggests activities regarding invisible topics as social and economic impacts in history, inequalities, church and science, gender equality, power and violence, prosecuted by justice, peasantry and the urban world, family and daily life, terror or travelers and their cross-currents.

Regarding to the activities, the incidence of new technologies in social relations and the effects of globalization is very remarkable for our students. In this sense, active-learning methodologies are oriented towards know-how, without forgetting basic historical knowledge. Activities work with different information sources, historical evidences and problem-based exercises to make the students learn in an increasingly heterogeneous society. That way, the authors highlight the need of changes in teaching and learning history.

At this point, historical thinking competencies emerge as an educational path to follow, allowing new ways of learning: investigation of socially relevant problems, cooperation among students, critical thinking and the use of media, inquiries and scientific research, skills development and developing democratic values to improve the world today.

Keywords: Historical thinking competencies, history education, socially-conscious learning, ITC activities, globalization.

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No future? History Education in the digital and globalization era

Introduction

Don't be told what you want
Don't be told what you need
There's no future
No future
No future for you

In 1977 the Sex Pistols released "Never mind the bollocks (here's the Sex Pistols)" one of the most iconic albums of the punk movement. According to Albiez (2006) the Sex Pistols opened a new era and represented the "year zero" for Manchester rock scene. Their first performance connected easily with the upset of teenagers, youth and young adults. In the mid-1970s, young people was disperated: lack of work, wide swings of the energy prices, liberalization of the financial markets (Grigoriev, 2009) and the continuous thread of a nuclear attack by the URSS during the infinite cold war.

Not just musicians. Not just the arts. Even scientists and theorists were disappointed. According to McDonough (2002), Guy Debord wrote in his foundational 1957 "Report on the construction of situations" that "Dadaism wished to be the refusal o fall the values of bourgeois society". In the late 1970s, the situationist authors considered that the values of capitalism had failed: bankruptcy, financial crisis, inflation and highgrow up of energy prices. Inequalities increased among population and the arts and the theories just reflected the moment.

Something similar that we find at the beginning of the 2020s. After a severe financial crisis (2008–2014) where austerity was the answer, new threads appear on the horizon of youth people: post-COVID19 health crisis, unemployment, a great increase of the rental prices, the lack of energy because of the war in Ukraine and, lastly, a rising inflation.

There's no future again?

Studying history is one of the best weapons that we have to face the world today. The problems that we have to solve already appeared in precedent periods and we can learn a lot from them.

Learning from the past to improve our future. As Phil Connors (Bill Murray) did on Groundhog day (1993). When Phil realized that he was trapped in a time loop listening to Sonny & Cher's "I got you babe" in the clock radio, he started to learn from the past to seduce Rita (Andie MacDowell) using the loops to know more about her. He learnt how to save people from deadly accidents, how to play the piano, how to sculpt ice or how to speak French. Finally, the good actions convinced Rita to love Phil and, together, they overcome the time loop and continue their lifes.

Following Gómez-Carrasco and González Chicote (2022), in 1949, March Bloch wrote to his friend Lucien Febvre that we need to know the past to understand the present. Even, in 1982, the catalan historian Josep Fontana said that "we need to have a critical vision of the present that explain correctly issues like poverty, hunger or unemployment". Other historians have reflected about the target of learning history: E.P. Thomson wanted to rescue the "losers" of history. For him, history education must fight the closed narratives imposed by the powers and the states. Pierre Vilar considered that learning history has to be useful to interpret a newspaper.

Basically, the Council of Europe (2017) proposed that history education should integrate the knowledge about past experiences and the challenges of the future. History education nowadays should face: the teaching of the complex history of democracy; the activities of ordinary individuals, recognising that people of different cultural, religious and ethnic backgrounds have often been long establishe in societies; valuing multiple identities, providing historical sources and combatting manipulation, fake news and post-tructh, addressing issues that might be controversial or balancing the ethical dimension of learning history.

In relation to that, this book[1], titled "Teaching history to face world today" has as main targets: first, to reflect about the new approaches in history education

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in terms of active-learning methodologies, strategies and digital resources; and, second, to develop some concrete classroom-examples of designing activities to teach history following transversal and invisible topics and using the six historical thinking competencies.

The development of the transversal and hot topics is related to the book "Re-imagining the teaching of the European History: promoting civic education and historical consciousness" (Gómez-Carrasco, 2022). The topics are linked to: Landscapes, agriculture and peasants; The inequalities between bourgeoisie and peasantry; Family, daily life and social inequalities; Power, powers, democracy and oligarchies; violence and armed conflicts; persecuted by justice; women and gender equality; travel stories and cross-currents between cultures; churches, science and religions.

In that sense, the new approaches considered necessary that the students are not a passive element in the school system. On the contrary, they must suppose the key element, participating in a critical construction of knowledge. History education is crucial in this sense, as the students will develop the competence of searching sources, filter them, being critical with the information and, lastly, build their own knowledge according to scientific evidences.

But, at the same time, history education is not neutral. The topics, wars, characters, institutions, periods or contexts that we teach in our classes represented the values of the nation-states and the economic powers. Why do we still have "invisible topics" in history education? History education must be aligned to democratic values. In that sense, topics as economic inequalities, migrations, marginalization, gender equality, peasants and the rural world, prosecuted by justice, science and religion or victims of wars, should be shown in history classes just to build a better representation of our world and of our societies.

According to Gómez-Carrasco et al. (2018), the teaching of the social sciences faces three great challenges: the changes derived from teaching by competences, the prominence that the new information and communication technologies (ICT from now on) have acquired and, finally, the consequences of the current globalization. For these authors, the introduction of basic or key competencies in the curricula must go hand in hand with their adaptation to the content epistemology of each area of knowledge, so that, they are not shown as empty knowledge.

Thus, competency-based teaching has affected the way of teaching social sciences and the conception that is traditionally held or has been held. If the competencies are linked to skills a change is needed in the teaching methodologies based on inquiry and methods of social analysis that go beyond the mere

memorization of conceptual content, Tryning to incorporate the method of the historian, the geographer and other social researchers in education.

Regarding the role of ICT in information societies, the aforementioned authors defend that the Internet has become the main mean of communication nowadays and help to develope new forms of social organization. It has also accelerated the times and rhythms of life, making any event expiring soon, while traditional social institutions, including schools, have lost influence when it comes to accessing information.

Gomez-Carrasco et al. (2018) wonder, then, what is the meaning of social knowledge in a world demanding technology and technicians. The answer is given by the high presence of social and civic competencies in the curriculum. Moreover, we should add that the knowledge provided by the social sciences is related to the ability to analyze, judge and understand the problems of today's society. Students will understand the social environment in which they have to develop their vital activity and achieve a positive socialization. In consequence, student's education should facilitate their participation in daily situations teaching them to be, at the same time, producers and consumers of knowledge through a reflective, critical and creative formation. Making the students think will raise awareness of diversity and its respect, far from forging homogeneous and exclusive feelings of identity.

In fact, the Internet has opened the door to a massive dissemination of information, even using the expression of democratization of information. But it has also opened the floodgates of massive misinformation, widespread manipulation, fake news, and propaganda disguised as dispassionate analysis.

The impact of fake news has been that big that journalists, scientists and politicians in the last decade have extensively used the concept of post-truth, defined by the DRAE (2022) as "deliberate distortion of a reality, which manipulates beliefs and emotions in order to influence the public opinion and social attitudes." The debate around this became more evident in the electoral campaign of Donald Trump during the presidential elections in the United States of 2016, as well as the referendum in the United Kingdom that led to Brexit. Even The Washington Post published that, in his 4-year term, Donald Trump tweeted or retweeted 12 false tweets per day.

For all these reasons, there is a gradual attention to the problem of on-line misinformation. As weel, historians and history educators agree that media literacy efforts are important, since the use of reliable information is vital for the civic health of our students. Thriving democracies need citizens who can access, evaluate, and use reliable information to engage in public discourse. In this sense, there are those who defend the presence in the curricula of the so-called

high-quality digital literacy in order to guarantee the vitality of democracy and prevent the ability of students to participate in civic life from being the victim of misinformation (Breakstone et al., 2021).

The Internet is reshaping participatory politics, changing the way we learn about politics, communicate with our political representatives, and organize political protests. In response, civic education should, among other goals, prepare students to analyze and evaluate information in order to learn and investigate relevant civic and political issues (Kahne et al., 2016). That is why it is necessary to promote online civic reasoning (COR) in the classroom, which involves the inclusion of tasks in the classroom with real sources of information with the intention that the students evaluate them. In this sense, it is important to develop the ability to effectively search, value and verify social and political information online by asking questions such as: Who is behind the information? What is the evidence? What do other sources say? (McGrew et al., 2017, 2018).

But this media literacy is not enough on its own. The digital revolution calls for a fundamental reconsideration of how we teach all core school subjects. In the case of history, we must ask ourselves as educators what we are teaching when students can go online and find "evidence" that supports hoaxes. Technology can do many things, but it cannot teach discernment (Wineburg & McGrew, 2019).

According to Wineburg (2018), teaching history when everything is on the internet should not be done to strengthen memorization, but to raise problems, debates and provide students with a civic and active character (Journell, 2019). Therefore, it implies the development of a critical and democratic citizenship, which has been put into practice in the United States when analyzing conflicting issues in its history (Howard et al., 2020; Wineburg et al., 2013).

Indeed, traditional learning and teaching in times of post-truth and fake news, when the ability to critically analyze and cross-reference sources does not seem to be enough. History classrooms should promote, among other issues, the simulation of the historians' working method, as it allows questioning historical facts and testimonies. Thus, the use of historical evidences, in addition to the activity of contrasting sources, will contribute an attitude of questioning the sources, in the sense of understanding how, where, why and by whom they were produced (Magalhães & Freitas, 2019).

In relation to globalization, as noted by Miralles and Alfageme (2013), this has meant a strong tension between global economic dynamics -what counts- and local experiences -what matters to us. The interaction between them, the concept "glocal", arose to refer to the process by which the local gains meaning when competing globally for resources.

From an educational point of view, globalization has presented more shadows than lights. A curriculum focused on competencies, greater autonomy of the centers, lower knowledge and massive use of ICT, among other issues (Carrera & Luque, 2016) resulted from a more speculative economic model. In the field of higher education, the universitary inadequacy to the productive system, and the need to overcome this gap by putting "the company" in command, made necessary to increase the "autonomy" of the universities so that they compete each other. That produced a change in the nature and purposes of higher education. From forming democratic citizens (values, knowledge and capacities) in service to the needs of society and the advancement of science to build a better world, passed to the production of human resources endowed with flexible skills to adapt to the productive system and the values of the company (Moreno et al., 2012). Knowledge is transformed into one more good (Barberousse, 2002).

In addition to the drift towards an efficient model for the economic dominance, contemporary universities have also found themselves doomed to a trivialized routine of an intellectual life reduced to curricular functions, increasingly technified and bureaucratized. And what seems to be more negative, humanist contents with more formative aspects, have been left aside in pursuit of "profitable sciences" from a techno-economic perspective (Prats, 2016).

So that, the role that education keeps is to promote competitiveness and a more dynamic economy capable of greater sustained growth (Carrera & Luque, 2016). This is how the school, in general, and the university in particular, adapt to the demands of the economic system, so we can verify that education is not neutral. Each type of education responds to a specific social and political model. The educational model is coherent with its society model and can reproduce it but, also can transform what exists (Moreno et al., 2012).

To understand the consequences of globalization it is necessary to pay attention to two structuring concepts in the didactics of social sciences: space and time. Zygmunt Bauman uses the phrase "time/space compression" to refer to the continuous movement of liquid modernity that brings winners and losers. The former, whom he calls "tourists", are those who benefit from the fluidity of liquid modernity to the extent that they "float" freely, that is, they come and go at will throughout the world, existing in the time rather than space thanks to the Internet and transoceanic flights. On the contrary, what he calls "vagrants" are the losers of the system, those who do not have the possibility of moving, and are bound to remain stuck in places that offer few opportunities, or those who have forced mobility because they stay too long in one place and that space ends up being hostile to them (Thorpe et al., 2016).

These consequences, from the point of view of the didactics of the social sciences, entail, in the opinion of Miralles and Alfageme (2013) the need to redefine the study of geographic space, a new approach to the concept of media, the need for integration of scales, the combination of direct and indirect experience, and the revaluation of experience over the local; in such a way that the local and the global are interrelated, being essential to integrate both areas in teaching as aspects of the same reality.

But not only that, the effects of globalization have also been felt in two ways in relation to the social sciences. On one hand, the empowerment of multiculturalism and the need to teach democratic procedures for managing conflicts peacefully, developing empathy. On the other hand, this differs to the excluding movements renewing a teaching of the social sciences based on the national narrative. In the middle point, the social sciences exist as a key element to achieve the objectives proposed in both cases (Gómez-Carrasco et al., 2018).

Finally, and related to the aforementioned, another of the effects of globalization has been the loss of political power that nation-states are experiencing, and this reality is what has led certain authors to discuss what history contents teach and why. This is a central debate in times as challenging as the current ones (Carretero, 2018).

Related to this, and taking up the idea discussed above about the use of historical sources and the development of historian skills, the concept of "historical thought" has emerged, the center of theories and research on teaching and learning of history throughout the last decades when talking about education from a psychological and cognitive perspective, especially within the Anglo-Saxon sphere (Gómez-Carrasco & Sáiz, 2023).

It is a current topic with a clear practical and empirical profile. Based on the theoretical renewals in the theory of curricular and cognitive psychology, it has questioned the Piagetian perspectives that limited the progression of children's and adolescents' thinking in the learning of historical content and concepts. Starting from these premises, it has been discussed the dominant approaches to history teaching, which have traditionally focused on the mere transmission of information and the memorization of content. Instead, it explicitly advocates for innovative practices based, as already indicated, on the incorporation of the historian's method, ways of thinking, and work into daily classroom tasks, confirming the possibilities of progress for children and adolescents in learning historical skills and concepts (Lee et al., 1996; Lee & Ashby, 2000; Lee, 2005 and 2011; Chapman, 2011a and 2011b).

In this way, the conceptual framework defined by the research carried out in England on historical thought (Chapman, 2021), which distinguished between

substantive or first-order historical knowledge (factual, chronological, context-based) and second-order metahistorical knowledge. or disciplinary knowledge (time, causality, change, meaning, proof or evidence and interpretation), was of great importance and paved the way for an active and competency-based change in the teaching of history.

In this sense, and following Carretero (2019), there are currently several approaches to the study, development and implementation, both in classrooms and outside of them, of historical thought. Always based on the work carried out in England during the 1970s and 1980s of the 20th century, the first place that contributed to these new approaches was North America. On one hand, the works of Sam Wineburg (2001) in the United States and, on the other, the work of Peter Seixas (2017) in Canada.

The first emphasizes the teaching of historiographical methods, didactically adapted to the level of the students through the use of heuristic techniques to solve historical problems, such as corroboration, that is, the act of comparing documents with each other; checking the origin of the sources, and placing a document in the specific temporal and spatial context in which it was produced. So that, the second author brings the idea of historical consciousness, clearly influenced by German authors such as J. Rüsen, for whom history should be taught not only to provide an understanding of the past but also to generate a conscious position among students and citizens in general of the problems and possible futures of contemporary societies.

From Europe, the contributions made by Van Boxtel and Van Drie (2017) from the Netherlands through a dialogical framework are also highlighted. In their investigations they combine the work of historical thought using documents and evidence but adding the principles about the importance of interaction and dialogue from Vygotsky. In this way, the development of cognitive operations related to historical thought is carried out in a collective, dialogical way, through the comparison and evaluation of different points of view on the same historical topic.

Finally, Carretero highlights the work of his own work team (Carretero & Voss, 2004; Carretero, 2018). He focused on the importance of prejudices and stereotypes of students and citizens, in general, when understanding how historical concepts can be transformed into more complex and disciplinary representations of the past. There are difficulties when historical concepts are only approached from national master narratives, consisting of idealized and essentialist representations, and therefore being very anecdotal and simplistic.

Thus, in order to develop historical thinking, a methodological change in the classroom is necessary, as already has been debated in some countries (Gago,

2018; Navarro & De Alba, 2015; Pinto, 2017; Smith, 2019). This change implies moving from the domain that currently exists of expository teaching strategies, to a greater presence of inquiry strategies that help promote in students the development of their independence, critical spirit and autonomous learning.

The introduction of new teaching resources in the classroom could consolidate new teaching methodologies. Covering new strategies and based on new instruments, this introduction allows to improve learning processes, achieving better academic results, both in higher education (Gómez et al., 2019a; Gómez et al., 2020; Moreno-Vera et al., 2019) as well as in pre-university stages. The students are achieving positive assessments with the new strategies implemented. Also, we can find a substantial increase in student motivation and satisfaction and a greater perception of learning historical knowledge when working cooperatively (Moreno-Vera, Ponsoda & Blanes, 2021), researching with primary sources, artistic sources and images (Moreno-Vera & Cruz, 2022) or the use of digital resources and gamification (Gómez et al., 2019b; Gómez-Carrasco et al., 2021; Rodríguez-Medina et al., 2020).

In addition to this, Carretero (2019) includes another challenges that history education must face in the future:

1. The creation of an integrated model of thought and historical consciousness that also includes a dialogical and multi-perspective sense.
2. The incorporation of socially relevant issues for people who inhabit the planet: such as migration (Moreno-Vera & Leguizamo, 2022), globalization, gender equality, rights, racism, democratic values or climate change.
3. The use of critical tools that allow students and citizens to establish relevant relationships between the past and the present, overcoming essentialist and simplistic visions of the past.

Taking all into account, the target of this book is to interweave different proposals and experiences in the use of inductive learning methods for teaching certain hot topics in European history through the meta-concept of historical thinking.

In this sense, the book is divided into two clearly differentiated parts. The first one has 4 chapters in which, firstly, the authors expose the relationship between the different inquiry methods, that can be used in the classroom, and the teaching of history based on the theory of historical thought. Secondly, the changes in the role of teachers and students based on new teaching approaches thanks to new technologies, such as the Flipped-classroom, blended-learning or the gamification. The third chapter of this first part continues to abound in the possibilities of new technologies in teaching history, but this time from the relationship established between classrooms and museums and other cultural

spaces. This first part of the book concludes with an exposition of the advantages that emerging technologies bring in the teaching of history: we are talking about virtual reality, augmented reality and robotics.

The second half of the book shows different proposals on the teaching of History that have been developed by the different teams that are part of the project for the teaching of European history HistoryLab. Among them, we can find proposals for the use of primary sources through digital resources that introduce students to the historian's method. Exercises about historical reasoning and historical argumentation through digital resources or projects in a globalized and hyperconnected world. Likewise, we find initiatives for the development of second-order competences of historical thinking related to causes and consequences and change and continuity, the work of the historical perspective through virtual reality and augmented reality, the use of images and digital resources to work on multiculturalism and the ethical dimension of history, and, finally, the search for information on historical content and data processing in the history classroom.

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Part I. Methodological approaches through the use of digital resources in History classroom

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Chapter 1. Active teaching methods in history education: Inquiry strategies

Abstract: This chapter[1] focuses on the capacity of active learning methods to improve teaching and learning processes in history. In traditional education, the subject of history was originally conceived as a means of legitimating the nation-state and did not have an exclusively instructive purpose. However, historical science does not produce descriptive knowledge to be learned by heart, but rather interpretations which are prone to reinterpretation depending on the sources and the dominant trends. For this reason, an epistemological approach to the subject of history should be based on its critical and analytical function in terms of social reality. The implementation of active learning methods leads students to develop skills of observation, analysis, interpretation, comprehension and expression and helps them to exercise their memories and critical thinking skills. This chapter examines the main active learning methods based on inquiry.

Keywords: Active teaching methods, history teaching, inquiry strategies, educational methods, historical thinking

Introduction

Recent research has shown that Spanish students have a low level of historical literacy due to an old-fashioned epistemological conception of the subject, grounded in a mainly memory-based teaching model in which the methodological principles are deeply rooted in tradition (Miralles & Gómez, 2021). In the light of this situation, the need has arisen to redefine the two fundamental pillars which determine how history is taught in educational contexts: epistemology and methodology. This renewal has been determined by a trend which proposes a skills-based model of education favouring the development of historical thinking skills among students (Seixas & Morton, 2013; Lévesque & Clark, 2018; Thorp & Persson, 2020; Miralles & Gómez, 2021).

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In the traditional school context, the subject of history was originally conceived as a means of legitimating the nation-state and did not have an exclusively instructive purpose (Carretero & Kriger, 2004). This approach, based on positivist historiographical perspectives, has sustained and determined the teaching of history for many decades, leading to teaching principles built around specific dates, names and events, totally neglecting contents of a behavioural or procedural nature (Clark, 2011; Gómez et al., 2018b).

However, historical science does not produce descriptive knowledge to be learned by heart, but rather interpretations which are prone to reinterpretation depending on the sources and the dominant trends. For this reason, an epistemological approach to the subject of history should be based on its critical and analytical function in terms of social reality, particularly due to the fact that the job of the historian (the scientific point of reference in this context) is defined by the search for primary sources to bring the discipline closer to scientific knowledge with an empirical foundation.

In this regard, within the context of school tradition, in comparison with subjects such as history, which have been taught and learned based almost exclusively on the teacher's narrative and on reading and repetition on the part of the students, there have been other subjects which have focused more on active experimentation; in other words, subjects in which the contents have been taught inside a laboratory (Gómez & Miralles, 2017). This differentiation, far-removed from the scientific reality and possibilities of history, has meant that the scientific method is related with certain scientific subjects, while social subjects have been excluded from this category. Indeed, it is revealing to observe how rarely teaching actions are included in compulsory education, in historical archives and documentation centres, which are spaces of reference for the historian.

The teaching of social contents should be based on the methodological foundations of the subject, although such a claim does not imply that students should become experts (in this case, historians). Rather, they should learn to employ certain forms of historical thinking which, consequently, will enable them to question the parameters for understanding the world which have been presented to them since their education began (Ibagón et al., 2021).

This approach supposes that students are able to understand what society is, how it works, how it has been shaped over time and how human relationships have been modified and what consequences the actions of individuals and groups have had in both the past and the present (López-Facal, 2013). Knowledge of how narratives of the past are built must be learned from an early age, along with the tools used to interpret historical sources in an appropriate and critical way (Miralles & Gómez, 2021).

As there are no pure facts within the subject of history, a discourse of the past is built on the interpretation that historians make of the evidence they mainly gather from archives (Carretero & Montanero, 2008). Thus, it is essential that students learn to question such evidence. As far as education is concerned, the teaching of history should be based on a scientific method applied in the classroom via the re-ordering of data, the analysis of variables and the search for analogies. This scenario is considered both viable and necessary for students to develop critical thinking skills.

Ultimately, with a traditional, linear and memory-based teaching model in formal educational contexts, the need to intervene, not only in the aforementioned stages of education, but also in initial teacher training, is considered essential for the consolidation of a body of teachers who put active teaching strategies into practice in their classes (Lévesque & Zanazanian, 2015). Only in this way will it be possible to ensure that future teachers can guarantee an equilibrium between knowledge, abilities and skills (Sánchez-Fuster, 2017).

Within the epistemic framework of the teaching of historical contents, the authors have identified the existence of two levels of concepts which help to establish a dividing line concerning how to approach the teaching of this subject. On the one hand, there are first-order concepts, which seek to answer questions such as *What? Who? When?* and *Where?*

In other words, answers to questions linked to an acritical, linear and repetitive form of teaching in which specific dates and historical events provide structure to the knowledge. On the other hand, there is a second level of contents known as second-order concepts, which are related with developing different strategies, capacities and skills in the classroom, making it possible to obtain a more complex understanding of the past (Wineburg, 2001; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Lee, 2005; Seixas & Morton, 2013; VanSledright, 2014). The second-order concepts are related with how to do things and, by extension, with an active methodology, drawing students closer to the techniques employed by historians, such as searching for, selecting, analysing and handling historical sources, thus fostering historical perspective and empathy with other subjects of the past.

Consequently, the second pillar of the teaching of historical contents is constituted by methodological principles, i.e., the guidelines referring to how the teaching and learning processes should be carried out (Gómez et al., 2018a; Miralles et al., 2019). Therefore, when speaking of a methodological renewal in the classroom, it is relevant to recall the consolidation of skills-based education in Spain, following its implementation in 2006, via the Ley Orgánica de Educación (Organic Education Law, LOE), ratified in 2013 via the Ley Orgánica de Mejora de la Calidad de la Educación (Organic Law for the Improvement of Educational

Quality, LOMCE) and, finally, the Ley Orgánica por la que se modifica la LOE (Organic Law modifying the LOE, LOMLOE), which was passed in 2020. This legal context demonstrates the need to redefine the educational model of social knowledge, recommending the introduction of teaching methods which enable the progressive acquisition of contents. This is in line with the guidelines of education curriculums which defend the use of active learning methods for the acquisition of skills (Gómez et al., 2021).

In this context, however, it is necessary to be aware that, according to research, teachers, when beginning their professional activity, tend to resort to their prior experiences as a model (Parra & Fuertes, 2019). In other words, they resort to their memories of how their own teachers taught them (Estepa, 2017). Thus, there is a risk that they will perpetuate the (generally passive) methods they experienced during their own education (Sánchez-Fuster, 2017). The challenge, therefore, is to turn towards a model of teaching which fosters critical thinking among students via active methodologies, thus making it possible to leave behind teaching methods based on memorisation (Moreno et al., 2021; Martínez-Hita et al., 2022).

In recent decades, history teaching has been considered to have the basic function of forming critical and autonomous citizens (Carretero & Voss, 2004). Taking this premise into consideration, students are encouraged to understand processes of change in historical time, relating them with the present, i.e., encouraging them to learn to think historically (Carretero & Montanero, 2008). In this way, in the teaching process around which the subject of history takes shape, the aim is to stress the cognitive and disciplinary aspects of the teaching of history via the implementation of historical research methods (Lee, 2005; VanSledright, 2011; Seixas & Morton, 2013; VanSledright, 2014; Domínguez, 2015).

Thus, regardless of the educational context, the teacher finds him/herself in the unavoidable situation of having to generate a balance between concepts, procedures and attitudes. The main aim of teaching methods for the social sciences must be to encourage students to discover and understand the world around them, in the light of the complexity of their own social reality. The teaching methodology, therefore, must make reference to the issues put into play in order to develop learning in teaching processes, based on strategies, techniques and resources (Gómez et al., 2018b).

In this context, the implementation of active learning methods implies that students will develop observational, analytical and interpretative skills, the capacity for comprehension and expression, the exercise of memory and a critical sense. All of these are essential for the personal and professional development of any individual in present and future societies. For this reason,

from a methodological point of view, teaching how to historicise should seek to encourage students to reject the memorisation of dates, events and concepts and move towards the elaboration of hypotheses, looking for evidence, the contrasting of sources and the critical analysis thereof. As Schorske (2001) pointed out, thinking historically consists of employing the material of the past in order to guide us in the present. Therefore, the ultimate aim of school history education should be to provide students with the necessary tools for critical reflection which will help them to understand and gradually change their society (Santisteban, 2019).

Active learning methods, such as classroom research, problem-based learning, problem solving, simulation, debate, case studies, etc., make it possible to establish a close relationship between historical knowledge, the acquisition of competences and critical thinking. The teacher acts as a manager of learning situations with a variety of teaching strategies at his/her disposal, making it possible to recreate the most appropriate teaching environment. Thus, in order to improve the teaching of history, it is necessary for teachers to stimulate the development of historical thinking by applying alternative methodologies which are far-removed from epistemological conceptions which view history as a set of closed knowledge (Miralles et al. 2017). For this reason, the learning of history should be focused on strategies which enable students to develop more complex cognitive skills regarding the comprehension and explanation of historical phenomena (VanSledright, 2011), such as inquiry-based learning.

As pointed out by Van Boxtel et al. (2021), this active learning method, on which this chapter will focus, has acquired different names: "inquiry-based learning" (Pellegrino & Kilday, 2013; Voet & De Wever, 2017, 2018), "problem-based historical inquiry" (Brush & Saye, 2014), "document-based lessons" (Reisman, 2012) and "doing history" (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Levstik & Barton, 2015). However, independently of the name it is given, this type of learning consists of the student being able to interpret the past by responding to questions about history posed by the teacher (Van Boxtel et al., 2021). In order to achieve this, the student should read, analyse and synthesise multiple sources, among which can be found historical documents, objects and secondary sources.

In the context of education based on the implementation of active learning methods, the inquiry method presents a student-centred approach, as he/she participates in the process by reasoning and building his/her own narrative of the past or by evaluating a given narrative. In this regard, historical inquiry is clearly in opposition to passive perspectives in which students are only required to assimilate a prepared historical narrative which cannot be questioned at all. However, this is a complex process, with some authors insisting on the need

to introduce a solid foundation to the construction of historical knowledge in the classroom (Maggioni et al., 2009; Stoel et al., 2017). In any case, learning by inquiry does not mean that students have to build history, but that they should be willing to draw their own conclusions regarding specific historical phenomena, always with the help of a teacher (Van Boxtel et al., 2021).

One possibility within the context of history education is that students cooperate with each other about an open history question which, via the use of multiple sources of information, brings forth different perspectives on the issue at hand (Voet, 2017). Such a situation will enable students to build a reasoned response based on the different interpretations put at their disposal, thus reinforcing the use of second-order elements (Van Boxtel et al., 2021). In this way, students develop the ability to draw justifiable conclusions regarding complex processes of a historical nature, applying historical thinking skills such as continuity and change and causes and consequences (Seixas & Morton, 2013; Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2017).

However, this methodological shift also implies inquiring about the pedagogical benefits of this practice. According to specialists, historical inquiry enables students to develop a deeper understanding of the construction of historical knowledge, particularly as far as the historical thinking skills are concerned (Stoel et al., 2017). Normally, methodologies of an expository nature present historical contents as absolute truth which cannot be questioned by students. According to researchers, the use of historical inquiry in the classroom makes it possible for students to discover the existence of more than one plausible answer to validate their statements with arguments via the use of evidence (Nokes et al., 2007; Reisman, 2012). This type of practice is particularly relevant for students today. Indeed, the development of skills relating to the critical analysis of sources (not only in relation to history) can be considered essential in today's society due to the infoxication of the media with which we are confronted on a daily basis, particularly in terms of the prevalence of fake news on social networks and the broadcasting of discourse lacking in rigour on the part of the mass media as a whole (Castellví et al., 2021, González-Valencia et al., 2022).

Some authors have shown how, in carrying out inquiry-based studies, students have developed a greater awareness of different historical perspectives when working with historical sources (Monte-Sano & De La Paz, 2012) or employing the methods of the historian (López et al., 2021; Hughes, 2022). Furthermore, certain authors have stated that inquiry methods should be complemented with debates which include abstract historical concepts (Van Drie & Van de Ven, 2017) and the production of written work.

Ultimately, we consider that the use of inquiry strategies in educational contexts implies a pedagogical break from practices which have been dominant for generations in Spain. However, future teachers will only abandon their prior conceptions, built through their own experiences as students, if a change is brought about in their education, particularly at university, thus contributing to the generation of epistemological transformations. In this way, teachers will obtain real and effective training (be it initial or ongoing) so as not to be obliged to resort to past educational experiences when designing their own classroom teaching activities.

Some inquiry strategies

Why inquiry methods and not research methods or strategies? Sebastiá (2012) answers this question by stating that research implies a systematic activity aimed at discovering and developing a body of organised knowledge. Secondary education students, who are not specialists in any field of science, lack the necessary skills to increase the knowledge in a specific subject. Therefore, the correct term to use would be inquiry, as this points towards the formation of significant knowledge for students.

Having clarified this point, the different inquiry-based learning strategies detailed below have several points in common (Galindo, 2016; Quinquer, 2004). First of all, it could be said that all of them are aimed at the acquisition of knowledge, skills (regarding communication and creation) and values (commitment and responsibility). Secondly, they promote more active participation among students via a working procedure based on the teacher posing a significant challenge which students must aim to resolve by working in small groups to search for, contrast and apply information. Thirdly, the challenge should be connected as closely as possible with the students' context and reality so as to increase their levels of motivation and involvement. The fourth characteristic to be highlighted is that, in this way, critical, autonomous and creative thinking can be fostered among students and processes of metacognition can be encouraged. Finally, all of this implies that the teacher's role varies substantially, changing from being the centre of attention of the process to being a guide, facilitator or coach of the students' work. Below, some inquiry strategies will be outlined.

Problem-based learning

Problem-based learning (PBL) is a relatively recent approach which originated in the field of medicine in Canada in the 1970s, recently becoming more widespread

in the field of the humanities. In general, it is accepted that teachers incorporate this methodology at times into their classes. However, it is preferable for PBL to have a certain level of continuity throughout the school year.

In PBL, the teacher presents a situation or problem which requires the intervention of the student in order to seek possible solutions, thus obtaining the desired learning outcomes. Restrepo (2005) states that one problem of this approach could be the fact that students may be confronted with a variety of issues, ranging from understanding a complex phenomenon to resolving a mystery, clarifying a situation or relating variables of a conflictive situation. In any case, the situation should always stimulate learning as questions with no answers arise which become learning objectives, which, in turn, motivate students to be informed and to consult the relevant bibliography in order to provide answers to the questions and solve the problems (Gil, 2018).

Among the many advantages of employing this method can be highlighted the fact that it encourages the development of competences, fosters critical thinking and produces significant learning via interaction, cooperation and autonomy, leading students to relate ideas and build their own knowledge based on their own prior knowledge, research and activity (Del Valle & Villa, 2008). To these benefits must be added the fact that problem-based learning, related with historical thinking, implies presenting the true work of the historian to students, i.e., building problems and seeking answers when contextualising and interpreting primary sources (Aceituno, 2017). Along these lines, the experiment presented by Poch & Yousuf (2017) was aimed at students experiencing the subject of history as a historian would, using primary sources to tackle challenging questions concerning historical interpretation via the use of well-defined historical thinking skills. It is encouraging to note that, in this way, students increase the skills relating to what Poch & Yousuf call the "5Cs" of historical thinking: change over time, causality, context, complexity, and contingency. Indeed, given the nature of social studies, which often imply contradictory interpretations, students are stimulated to resolve these types of situations, offering positive results (Maxwell, 2020).

Project-based learning

In accordance with Quinquer's (1997, 2004) thesis, project-based learning implies direct contact with the object of study. Students are provided with a topic to work on or an idea to develop which they can choose themselves. The tasks necessary for achieving the objective are planned, the idea (final product) is executed or implemented via a project, a proposal, an exhibition or an object and is presented

to the class, the school or in another context, with the final result being evaluated. In this way, both skills and knowledge are developed and applied. Project-based learning has a long history, although in its present conception it is important to note the leading role played by students, the possibilities for interpersonal communication, the analysis and resolution of problems and the globalisation of contents.

In order to be able to carry out project-based learning in a satisfactory way, students must take the initiative and understand the task proposed, planning it, searching for information in different sources and working in teams to bring the project to fruition.

Experiences of the use of this approach in the teaching of history are not homogenous. On the one hand, some researchers have reported positive results in terms of student learning, not only regarding the enrichment and broadening of their knowledge, but also in that a greater level of motivation was achieved (Ihan, 2014). In addition, historical thinking skills were acquired, as the students were able to understand that history is more than the mere presentation of facts (Hernández-Ramos & De La Paz, 2009). On the other hand, Ciftci's (2015) experiment did not find significant differences among students employing project-based learning and those using a traditional approach.

However, according to the review of the literature carried out by Kokotsaki et al. (2016), a series of recommendations can be offered for the application of project-based learning to have the desired effect. Among these can be found support for both students and teachers, the importance of group work, a balance between direct teaching on the part of the teacher and autonomous experimentation by students guided by the teacher and the importance of self-evaluation, co-evaluation and continuous and reflective evaluation.

The case study

This strategy consists of the presentation of a specific real-life situation which must be analysed in order to offer a proposal for intervention, fostering reflection, analysis and discussion. It promotes guided discovery learning as students are encouraged to ask questions and formulate their own responses, as well as to infer principles from practical examples or experiences.

The case study method can be used for different purposes within the field of education, as it promotes the use of skills such as observation, analysis, synthesis and the reinforcement of concepts (Parra, 2003).

Prats & Santacana (2011) present the elements of a case study as follows:

- It makes it possible to go from macro to micro or vice versa, as it enables the construction of general reflections from particular aspects or taking general knowledge from particular aspects to the analysis.
- It works with tangible questions which are full of meaning due to their real existence and specificity, allowing students to have a high degree of conceptual or emotional meaning.
- It is holographic in nature as it makes it possible to see the dimension and depth of a specific reality. Out of one question, others arise with their own structural background.

The application of this approach in university experiments related with the field of education has provided positive results in teacher training for early years and secondary education (Gil & Ibáñez, 2013), primary education (Gómez-Carrasco & Rodríguez-Pérez, 2014) and in the fields of pedagogy and social education (Aramendi et al., 2014).

Challenge-based learning

Challenge-based learning (CBL) is an educational approach which actively involves students in a problematic real-life situation which is both significant and related with their own context, thus implying the definition of a challenge and the implementation of a solution (Tecnológico de Monterrey, 2016).

Rather than presenting students with a problem to be solved, CBL offers general concepts from which they obtain the challenges to be tackled. Furthermore, this approach fosters the use of web and mobile technologies such as collaboration tools and wikis. This model is frequently interdisciplinary in approach and promotes projects which involve the wider community (Apple, 2011). This combination enables students to choose their challenges and link them with community interaction, increasing their investment in a productive result.

Students' work with any of these tools can be presented for evaluation by the teacher in order to ensure that they are working. Once students are satisfied because they have obtained what they need from their research, they seek a solution and draw up a plan of action, collecting material as they progress. The images, audio and video recorded in the previous phases of the project provide the raw material for the final step: the publication of a video online with observations and reflections on the successes and failures of the project.

Experiments in initial teacher training (Abril-López et al., 2021) demonstrate the potential of this strategy for developing reflection and problem-solving skills among students.

Service-learning

Service learning is a method which brings together learning and social commitment. Through this strategy, students identify a situation in their local environment which they commit themselves to improve. They then carry out a project which puts into practice their knowledge, abilities, attitudes and values. It is an educational approach through which children can learn while acting upon real needs with the aim of improving a situation. One essential element of service learning is the balance which must be present between service and learning. This approach must be embedded within the curriculum and the action to improve the community must be true field work leading to learning processes (Mortari & Ubbiali, 2021).

Three of the key characteristics of service learning, are as follows. First of all, the true success of education consists of shaping good citizens who are capable of improving not only their personal curriculum, but also society. Secondly, children and young people are not the citizens of the future, they are already citizens who are able now to bring about changes in their environment. For example, they can contribute towards building a better world by fixing up the park near their school, providing company for their grandparents and telling stories to younger children. Thirdly, doing a service for the community helps others. It is one of the most effective learning methods as meaning is given to what they study when they apply their knowledge and skills to a project for a good cause.

Experiments with extremely positive results, such as those focused on the university education of future historians (Straus & Eckenrode, 2014), emphasise the fact that service learning opens up the way for the teaching of academic and professional skills, presenting civic commitment and interest in the community as key elements.

Simulations and strategies for empathy

According to Quinquer's (2004) definition, "we call empathic and simulation strategies to a wide range of activities (social simulation or dramatisation, empathy, role-plays, etc.), which make it possible to reproduce or represent a real or hypothetical situation in a simplified way, lie under the category

of simulations and strategies for empathy". Dramatisations and simulation strategies should form part of the teaching and learning context and of teaching plans. Simulation play at school can reproduce current economic, social, environmental, geographic and political situations. Students' decision-making plays a key role and their participation and motivation are encouraged due to the recreational element offered by these types of strategies (Galindo, 2016). Activities employing empathy help students to understand the intentions and motivations of historical agents, to clarify their conceptions and to understand relativism (Quinquer, 2004).

In relation to historical thinking, simulation exercises based on real-life situations have been used to evaluate the historical empathy of students in countries such as the United States (Pellegrino et al. 2012; Stover, 2007). However, the same good results have not been reproduced everywhere (Rantala, 2011; Rantala et al., 2015).

Educational field trips

According to Galindo (2016), field trips are one of the most complete strategies for teaching history and other social sciences. Direct contact with the reality of the surrounding environment helps students to contextualise, exemplify and apply different contents of the curriculum. As far as concepts are concerned, field trips make it possible to approach events, places, characters and phenomena. Regarding procedure, they favour the development of skills relating to direct observation, orientation, location and data collection. As for attitudes, they encourage students to respect, appreciate and preserve the environment. All of the above facilitates an integral and meaningful approach to historical contents, the socialisation of students and an increase in motivation.

As Cooper (2018) and Vilarrasa (2003) have pointed out, educational field trips are a good strategy for working with primary sources via visits to heritage assets within the students' immediate surroundings. However, trainee teachers recall that such trips in their own education were carried out as a complementary activity to a mainly traditional model of education and they perceive them as activities to be carried out as an added extra to other resources. It can, therefore, be supposed that this is how they would employ such activities in their professional careers (Felices-De la Fuente et al., 2020). This is in spite of the high value attributed to field trips as a strategy linked to the study of history and heritage in countries such as Spain and the United Kingdom (Gómez-Carrasco et al., 2020).

Conclusion

This chapter has sought to present a justification of a teaching model based on scientific (critical, tentative and constructed) thinking as a valid response to the current knowledge-based society. For its application to the teaching of history, it is necessary, first of all, to reflect both epistemologically and methodologically. Changing epistemological conceptions is essential in order to bring about a transformation in teaching methods. It should be understood that history is not merely descriptive knowledge of the past, which is to be memorised, but that it requires the interpretation of sources of the past, the understanding of public history and argumentation. To approach history in this way, it is necessary for a methodological transformation to take place, in which students are able to interpret and build their own knowledge.

It must be stressed that the idea is not to create historians, but to teach by doing history, taking part in the very characteristics and nature of this type of knowledge in order to generate the skills, values, attitudes and knowledge required to make citizens competent both professionally and in relation to life in today's democratic society.

The active learning methods in use at the present time (project-based learning, problem-based learning, inquiry strategies, etc.) fit in perfectly with the current education system for the two reasons which we have sought to identify in this chapter: Because they fit in with the type of knowledge required by today's society and because, from an epistemological point of view of the knowledge which makes up the education curriculum in the social sciences, they are supported by the very formulation and nature of this knowledge. Thus, it is possible to make a selection of (first and second-order) concepts without worrying about whether the subject matter is being taught.

Knowledge must not be dogmatic, infallible or definitive. It is this spirit which should be transmitted to students when teaching any kind of historical knowledge, as it is this attitude which will bring about a better understanding of the fast-paced changes regarding knowledge taking place at the present time as a result of today's information and knowledge-based society.

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Chapter 2. Implementation and analysis of a WebQuest-based teaching programme in social studies

Abstract: Information and communication technologies have spread widely in recent decades, with great multiplier effects and a high impact on interpersonal relations in modern societies. Their important influence has given rise to a great deal of research on innovative proposals that aim to involve both learners and educators in new ways of handling information, fostering communication and favouring the development of digital competences. The implementation of WebQuests clearly reflects the growth of Internet-based resources in education. The research[1] data have been collected through a questionnaire that has been designed ad hoc. The sample consisted of 80 trainee teachers. The data collected in the pre- and post-tests were analysed using XLSTAT. The results show that students are concerned about addressing and learning digital competences under this approach, in particular learning how to design and integrate WebQuests for educational purposes as a basis for promoting their future professional competences.

Keywords: History, competencies, teachers, primary education, secondary education

Introduction

The introduction of ICT has become a key criterion in a wide range of educational settings in an attempt to enhance teaching landscape and improve students' academic performance, while reducing the relevance of traditional methods. Indeed, ICT has meant a move away from direct instruction, where students were mere recipients of knowledge, replacing blackboards with digital whiteboards and integrating the use of smartphones, tablets and other devices for learning purposes in a more student-centred environment.

In this new context, the use of electronic resources enhances the value of online education, which favours the freedom of students to learn wherever they want, as

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they are not necessarily obliged to attend classes in a previously designated place. In addition, the widespread use of the Internet has created more opportunities to learn in a variety of creative ways, opening the way for innovative teaching approaches with which learners are more familiar. Nowadays, when teaching digital natives, it is essential to encourage the involvement and participation of learners, regardless of whether they learn in classroom or online courses, modules or programmes.

In this sense, web-based teaching proposals have been made available to students, especially during the pandemic period, which has put the focus on cooperative work, research and knowledge sharing as the most prominent and outstanding processes required of students. These current trends advocate a transition to new forms of learning that revolve around exploration and critical thinking, in contrast to the more passive learning experiences associated with traditional teaching methods. At present, there are various experiences and studies that establish the use of alternative resources to the school manual (over-exploited in history classrooms), which diversify the strategies employed based on educational innovation, mainly on research. Some of these are the use of historical sources, historical, artistic and cultural heritage, and video games (Corti et al., 2016; Rodríguez & Ruiz, 2016; Miralles et al., 2017). In this sense, Gómez & Miralles (2016) defend the learning of history understood from the work with historical sources (oral, documentary, artistic productions), that is, with those resources through which students can carry out an analysis of the information the resources present and so put into practice the skills and competences related to history. The use of these resources makes it possible to work in the classroom on the scientific method or the historian's method, where inferences and historical evidence as a competence of historical thinking is worked on: elaboration of hypotheses, argumentation and search for evidence, analysis of sources and reasoning (Seixas & Morton, 2013; Gómez & Sobrino, 2018). The primary and secondary sources available online are essential resources for teachers because they facilitate the teaching task. Website such as *HistoryLab for Civic Engagement* are therefore relevant.

Through these student-centred strategies and innovative resources, topics that are central to any national history curriculum can be taught. Topics such as the demography, gender history, family, the life cycle and inequality are fundamental historiographical subjects to understand the structure of present and past societies. The evolution of family dynamics, social relations and inequality (social groups and classes) over time has been a line of historiographical research with very prominent works, such as the two volumes published by Burguière et al. (1988), the three-volume compendium of European Family History

coordinated by Barbagli & Kertzer (2002) and the monographs on the evolution of the family in England (Abbott, 2003) and in Spain (Chacón & Bestard, 2011). These publications cover the evolution of different topics related to the family in the European framework from the 16th to the 20th century (legislation, kinship, demography, servitude, material resources…). More recent is the work by Sovic et al. (2015) focusing on Northern and Eastern Europe, which covers the evolution of changes in these regions, from the modern age to the present day, in relation to the life cycle, family structure (marriage and inheritance), household structures (material culture) and domestic life.

Today it is important that European history is built on an active methodology, digital resources and the teaching of cross-curricular content and historical thinking skills.

1.1 Brief description of WebQuests

In particular, the use of WebQuests is one of the clear examples reflecting the proliferation of technology-enhanced resources in education. These Internet-based educational resources were designed more than twenty years ago in 1995 by Bernie Dodge, who worked as a professor at San Diego State University, and promoted with the support of Tom March, who worked at the same university. Among the definitions of these online tools, Dodge (1995) highlights their potential to provide students with new forms of interaction between learners and educators through innovative research-based approaches, where interactivity and teamwork are essential for accessing and analysing information on the Internet in depth. In this regard, and given the wealth of information that can be accessed on the World Wide Web, they have proven to be beneficial in helping students acquire information and organise data beyond simple diagrams and graphs, through scaffolded activities that foster their organisational skills. Thus, in order for learners to reach their full potential while developing these soft skills, WebQuests provide learners with tasks that involve prioritising information, discarding irrelevant ideas and structuring data efficiently. This is accomplished by providing learners with scaffolded practice in the form of several steps, which provide an adequate explanation of what learners are expected to do and pave the way for what they should achieve at the end of the WebQuest.

WebQuests therefore enable learners to optimise information and to fully utilise and interpret content found on the Internet. In this way, learners are able to progressively acquire knowledge and understanding in their learning process by gathering information on the web and constructing meaning through

the development of higher order thinking skills, i.e., analysing, evaluating and creating.

In particular, Dodge (1995) identifies two different types of webquests: short term and long term. The time frame for completing short WebQuests is usually between one and three lessons. Their instructional goal is to expose students to a large amount of new information so that they can discover more about what interests them, gain understanding and achieve a mental grasp of it. Alternatively, long term webquests encourage students to accomplish the task by constructing new meaning from the information provided. By providing learners with new information, the purpose is not simply to acquire knowledge, but to extend and refine it beyond an instructional interest in understanding. The period for completing them are usually between one week and one month.

Dodge (1995) also delineated the main sections that a WebQuest consists of, namely:

1. An introduction to familiarise learners with this technology-enhanced format, introducing the topic, providing background information and outlining what the task is.
2. A task that clearly explains what students are expected to do in the form of online research proposals, multimedia presentations or website projects, among others. They should attract students' attention and be visually and intellectually engaging.
3. A process that consists of a clarification of the steps that learners must follow to accomplish the task. Links can be facilitated to guide their actions for developing effective learning.
4. Resources that consist of the material they need to access during their learning experience and are usually listed and ready for use. It is desirable for learners to be able to access all resources in order to successfully complete the task, otherwise they may feel lost and their engagement may be reduced.
5. Evaluation that helps to understand learners' performance. To evaluate students' work, educators usually provide a formal rubric detailing clear objectives to be met by them. The standards should be unambiguous and specific to the proposed tasks.
6. A conclusion that provides an opportunity to reflect on the WebQuest and helps to create a lasting overall image in the minds of the learners. This section can lay the groundwork for discussing best practices to enhance their learning experiences in different ways.

Consequently, for the WebQuests to be successful, the purpose is to find out whether the students are achieving what it sets out to do, whether progress is

proceeding as planned according to the steps described, and to identify what can be improved and how once students have met their goals.

1.2 Benefits and challenges of using WebQuests for educational purposes

This practical approach adopted by educators in different learning scenarios allows learners to address relevant problem-solving situations where complex ideas can be broken down into more manageable concepts through the completion of scaffolded tasks, providing a more comprehensive overview of a given situation.

However, some educators remain concerned about the use of these technological resources in their daily work routine, due to some key issues related to curricular flexibility and instructional design. In this regard, Tsichouridis et al. (2020), who evaluated WebQuests implemented in primary and secondary schools, found that educators had concerns regarding the curricular organisation needed to make use of WebQuests more frequently. Another challenge in question would be the ethical considerations regarding the exploitation of personal data. In fact, some researchers and educators using WebQuest have questioned the effectiveness of these online tools when it comes to including appropriate e-content web links that can be secure enough, in fact, spam websites, low authority sites and other low quality backlinks can attack, damage or compromise the students' system to some extent.

Despite these potentially unhelpful scenarios that malware can cause, there is a clear educational benefit in students navigating the Internet with a clear task in mind, as the WebQuest gives students the necessary direction and limits the availability of unsuitable sites, while the teacher retains most of the guidance through ongoing support and feedback.

Another relevant advantage related to their application is their flexibility, enhanced by the plethora of resources available on the Internet, which facilitates the adoption of diverse perspectives, as well as the consideration of possible solutions with respect to a particular case. In other words, the use of WebQuests helps learners to extend their reasoning beyond binary ways of thinking by offering a variety of viewpoints that can more accurately reflect the scope of a specific topic.

In this study, we will focus on the development of digital competences that are intrinsically related to the use of web-based instructional platforms. In this regard, some studies highlight the benefits of these technology-enhanced tools in terms of improving digital skills (Bazo & Francisco, 2019; Katayama

& Rojas, 2021; Rakerda et al., 2020). On this basis, Domingo (2011) examined the perceptions of Spanish undergraduate students when creating a WebQuest and found that their impressions were very positive due to the ease of use of the templates provided and the acquisition of organisational skills under this digital approach. In line with this research, Zhukova et al. (2021) analysed the development of undergraduate students' digital competence level by designing educational WebQuests in a digital-project framework. The results showed that these web-based projects improved not only the participants' digital competence, but also their pedagogical skills that would help them in their future professional careers. In this line, Corujo et al. (2020) examined the development of didactic competences among trainee teachers by designing a WebQuest. Their findings revealed that students' learning improved as they acquired more ICT skills, which is consistent with other results obtained in the aforementioned studies.

This study also focuses on students' self-perceived levels of motivation. In this sense, some studies suggest that educators can take advantage of these digital platforms to improve these levels (Halat, 2008). In fact, student participation in WebQuests can make students feel that their educators are interested in their growth and learning achievements, aligning students' priorities and needs with the expected learning outcomes, which undoubtedly increases their motivation (Berruz et al., 2022). Under this assumption, Elgeddawy (2018) analysed university students' self-perceived usefulness of WebQuests and ease of use in a scaffolded learning environment and concluded that feedback from their instructor while developing their web-based projects helped create an effective and motivating learning environment. Similarly, Savinova and Pozdnyakova (2020) examined the effectiveness of these instructional platforms in modern foreign language teaching and found that they enhanced not only students' motivation but also their creative ability in collaborative learning environments. Along these lines, Miralles et al. (2013) conducted research on the use of WebQuests in primary teacher training and their results revealed that students positively valued not only WebQuests as a motivational resource but also the development of teaching competences through the use of these digital resources.

There are not many studies on virtual teaching-learning in social studies, but there are even fewer studies on teacher training in this same subject (Vera & Pérez, 2004, 2008). Concern for teacher training in an increasingly online society, where web-based education is becoming more and more present, is the main reason that justifies researching on this issue. To yield positive results, pre-service teacher training should face the current challenges teachers address in the classroom in their daily practice, (in preference of being simply theoretical). To begin with, it is extremely relevant to know what competencies pre-service

Social Sciences teacher should acquire, in order to cope with a teaching model that is aimed at pupils who already use new technologies in a wide range of social settings, including school. In other words, how will pre-service teachers be able to manage parallel demands for digital competitiveness, social cohesion and effective online teaching in a technology-enhanced environment? Face with these challenges, teachers must be able to take advantage of the same resources in the classroom, otherwise they run the risk of being disconnected from workplace.

2. Method

2.1. Objectives

The research question on which this study is based revolves around two specific aspects on which our research focuses, namely the level of motivation of trainee teachers and the development of digital competences when creating a WebQuest, to teach history by analysing sources obtained from the website Historylab. Thus, the research question allows us to elaborate an analysis of the aforementioned learning experience, and is as follows What impact did the use of WebQuests have on students' self-perception of motivation and learning of digital competences according to their gender and previous experience?

Thus, this chapter proposes the need to carry out research on the degree of digital competence of pre-service Social Sciences teachers and their level of motivation to undertake this type of digital training.

Objectives

The aim of this chapter is to analyse the impact of the technology-enhanced use of WebQuests on students' level of motivation and learning. In order to achieve this goal, the following research objectives were defined:

RO1: To gauge the opinions of pre-service teachers on the impact that these digital platforms had on their motivation level; more specifically, to analyse their opinions about the impact that this web tool had on their motivation level according to the gender and the experience of the participants.

RO2: To examine participants' self-perceptions about their level of digital competence in the use of this digital resource, and, more particularly, to study their views on the level of digital competence required when using this technology-enhanced platform, following the basic steps for creating a WebQuest. according to their previous digital expertise and to the gender of the participants.

To formulate an adequate answer to this question, we adopted a quasi-experimental design by administering pre-test and post-test questionnaires, which were designed ad hoc to determine the effectiveness of this web-based resource in a higher education context.

2.2. Data collection tools

In this study, we adopted a quantitative methodology to determine the degree of achievement of the objectives set out in this research. To facilitate a directionality in the study, pre- and post-tests were administered to students before and after the implementation of this WebQuest proposal, which allowed us to collect data and test some particular dependent variables (motivational and digital) with some specific independent variables (experience, gender), paying particular attention to significant differences between respondents.

Thus, the pre-service teachers' perspectives on exploring the relationship between ICT and student learning through the design of WebQuests were collected through an ad hoc questionnaire, which was the main data collection tool for this research. This was done at two points in time at the beginning and at the end of an academic term on a sample of undergraduate students. Several advantages have been described in the use of this technique in social sciences in terms of reliability, representativeness and ease of use (Phellas et al., 2011). In fact, questionnaires are particularly useful to find out how much respondents agree with a particular proposal that has been put forward. In addition, its easy administration facilitates the collection of data from a large number of participants. It is also considered a fairly reliable research tool, as researchers do not need to be face-to-face with respondents to complete them, which means that there are different ways, such as digital, to fill them out. However, some limitations have been expressed due to potential risks in the design or lack of accuracy of the data collected that may misinterpret participants' responses and affect the validity of the information obtained (Curle & Derakhshan, 2022).

The ad hoc questionnaire used in this study consisted of four main sections: general instructions, personal information, a section dedicated to self-perceived motivation and a section dedicated to their views on the development of digital skills. Each of the last two sections contained twelve items divided into two main sub-sections: the effectiveness of the implementation of WebQuests in motivating and improving students' digital competences and their views on the impact of the main strategies and techniques adopted within this approach. The items in the last two sections were rated on a five-point Likert scale, where one was "(1) Strongly Disagree" and five was "(5) Strongly Agree", to measure the degree of participants' agreement with the statements presented.

The WebQuest proposal was implemented in the core unit of Didactics of Social Sciences, compulsory in the second year of the Primary Education degree at the University of Murcia, Spain. Eighty pre-service teachers from two groups agreed to participate in the study, they ranged in age from 19 to 46 years (M = 20.4, SD = 4.88) and the majority were female (61 = 76.25 %) compared to a minority of males (19 = 23.75 %). In addition, in this sample two students had repeated a year (2.5 %) and sixty participants (75 %) had never used WebQuests before. This study included the principle of informed consent, which was given by all trainee teachers before participating in this research.

The main objective of the core unit was to prepare students to be highly skilled, creative and committed to the education of children, reflecting on and acquiring knowledge of the different disciplines of social studies, with an emphasis on ICT development, teamwork and the acquisition of democratic values. In addition, students had to plan, implement and evaluate social studies lesson plans and describe the web-based approach adopted at a selected level of primary education. Consequently, according to this technological approach, their lesson plans had to revolve around the use of WebQuests for the acquisition of social content from an innovative perspective.

The core unit of Didactics of Social Sciences was taught in the first term of the academic year 2021/2022 (September–December). Face-to-face instruction and web-based teaching were designed to complement each other in order to increase student academic achievement. The digital methodology applied consisted of regular downloading of online resources from the HistoryLab.es website, to the creation of a WebQuest. These resources could take the form of videos, interactive games, learning sites, etc., and should include inquiry-oriented activities in which students work collaboratively.

Before creating their WebQuests, the pre-service teachers received a series of templates to introduce them to the format and style of these online resources on topics such as the history of the family in Europe, social inequality over time, gender history and demographic cycles. Once provided, they started to design their own WebQuests with the intention to focus and pay due attention to the interconnectedness and scope of the social studies areas for educational purposes. In this way, the students chose a central theme and designed activities so that primary school pupils could understand this content by analysing primary and secondary sources and working with other historical thinking competencies such as: the identification of causes and consequences and changes and continuities of historical events and the ethical dimension. These historical thinking competencies are common in the primary school history curriculum.

2.3. Procedure and data analysis

The data collected during this study were analysed using XLSTAT, a powerful data analysis tool in Microsoft Excel that helps to obtain meaningful results and to make interpretations based on the findings of the study.

The reliability and validity of the data collection instrument were calculated prior to data analysis. Internal consistency was measured using Cronbach's alpha to determine the degree of reliability of the instrument. In this regard, the scale reliability measure showed positive results ($\alpha = 0.87$), demonstrating that the multiple-question Likert scale questionnaire was reliable. Furthermore, the validity of the questionnaire was determined by Bartlett's test of sphericity with a significance level of 0.000.

3. Results

This section presents the findings obtained in this study, derived from the methods used for data collection and analysis, which can help to understand and consider the situation studied from different perspectives.

The results displayed in Tab. 1 are descriptive statistics and the results of Mann-Whitney non-parametric tests in relation to the gender of the respondents.

Tab. 1: Results of the Mann Whitney test in relation to undergraduate students' perspectives on motivation issues and their gender.

Motivation issues	**Men (n=19)**		**Women (n=61)**		**Mann-Whitney U**	**p**	**alpha**
	Pre-test M (SD)	**Post-test M (SD)**	**Pre-test M (SD)**	**Post-test M (SD)**			
Active methodologies	3.73 (0.87)	3.76 (0.99)	3.88 (0.73)	4.14 (0.77)	490.50	.123	.05
Enhance my future teaching practice	4.01 (0.99)	4.02 (0.81)	4.16 (0.75)	4.24 (0.72)	511.50	.474	.05
Help get better grades	3.68 (1.19)	3.73 (0.87)	3.73 (0.82)	3.98 (0,92)	575.50	.751	.05
Encourage more effort in class	4.26 (1.11)	3.89 (0,87)	4.11 (0.87)	3.90 (0.92)	623.50	.536	.05
Increase gamification	3.52 (0.80)	4.15 (0,83)	4.27 (0.75)	4.33 (0.70)	515.50	.335	.05
Give me more autonomy and control	3.44 (0.89)	3.77 (1.06)	3.95 (0.84)	3.93 (0.89)	587.00	.822	.05
Overall/Total motivation issues	3.77 (0.97)	3.88 (0.90)	4.01 (0.79)	4.08 (0.82)			

As can be seen in Tab. 1, female students rate the aspects related to motivation higher than male students, except for the item related to effort in class at the beginning of the term. Both groups rate the items more highly in the post-tests, except for the aforementioned item and the item related to autonomy, which is rated lower by the female students. The most highly rated items are those related to gamification and the relationship of this web proposal with their future teaching practice. No significant differences were identified between students according to gender.

Similarly, no significant differences were found in terms of participants' experience and motivation levels (see Tab. 2).

Tab. 2: Results of the Mann Whitney test in relation to pre-service teachers' perspectives on motivation issues and their experience within the webquest-based approach.

Motivation issues	**Experienced students (n=22)**		**Inexperienced students (n=58)**		**Mann-Whitney U**	**p**	**alpha**
	Pre-test M (SD)	**Post-test M (SD)**	**Pre-test M (SD)**	**Post-test M (SD)**			
Active methodologies	3.86 (0.83)	4.27 (0.82)	3.84 (0.76)	3.94 (0.84)	504.00	.111	.05
Enhance my future teaching practice	4.26 (0.71)	4.22 (0.75)	4.11 (0.85)	4.17 (0.75)	615.00	.990	.05
Help get better grades	3.66 (0.81)	4.09 (0.92)	3.75 (0.95)	3.86 (0.90)	548.00	.343	.05
Encourage more effort in class	4.01 (1.06)	4.01 (0.97)	4.01 (0.94)	3.86 (0.88)	574.00	.556	.05
Increase gamification	4.46 (0.63)	4.51 (0.59)	4.24 (0.77)	4.22 (0.77)	520.50	.187	.05
Give me more autonomy and control	3.73 (0.79)	4.01 (0.92)	3.86 (0.88)	3.86 (0.92)	590.00	.655	.05
Overall/Total motivation issues	4.01 (0.81)	4.18 (0.82)	3.96 (0.85)	3.98 (0.84)			

Specifically, the results show that students with experience in using WebQuests rated all aspects of motivation higher than inexperienced pre-service teachers, with averages above 4 in contrast to the latter with averages below 4. In particular, gamification and the implementation of active methodologies were the two most highly rated items among experienced participants, while the benefit of

these online platforms for their future teaching practice was rated higher among inexperienced respondents.

As we have observed in Tab. 2, participants felt that gamification motivated them more than other potential benefits when creating WebQuests, but to shed more light on this issue, participants were asked about the most effective strategies used when designing a WebQuest (see Tab. 3).

Tab. 3: Results of the Mann Whitney test in relation to the perspective of pre-service teachers on the strategies developed and their gender and experience.

Strategies used within this approach	Gender	N	Mann Whitney U	*p*-value	Experience	N	Mann Whitney U	*p*-value
Points obtained in Webquest assignments	Male Female	19 61	573.50	.478	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	544.50	.570
Kahoot!, Socrative quizzes	Male Female	19 61	513.50	.248	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	466.50	.043*
Blogs and learning gamification platforms	Male Female	19 61	442.00	.049*	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	447.50	.035*
Instructional videos	Male Female	19 61	462.50	.117	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	432.50	.021*
Small group activities	Male Female	19 61	617.00	.807	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	414.00	.012*
Practical classroom activities	Male Female	19 61	587.00	.698	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	516.50	.414

According to the gender of the students, significant differences are observed in the use of blogs and learning platforms, with female students valuing the use of these digital resources significantly more than male students. Similar differences were identified with respect to this item between students experienced and inexperienced in the use of WebQuests in favour of the former. In addition, more differences were found between these two groups regarding the use of Kahoot!, instructional videos and small group activities, with the former having a more positive perception of them than the latter.

As for objective 2, which focuses on the development of students' digital skills, the results are positive for both male and female students (see Tab. 4).

Tab. 4: Results of the Mann Whitney test in relation to participants' views on the development of digital skills and their gender.

Digital skills	Men (n=19)		Women (n=61)		Mann-Whitney U	p	alpha
	Pre-test M (SD)	Post-test M (SD)	Pre-test M (SD)	Post-test M (SD)			
I know how WebQuests work	3.21 (1.03)	3.38 (1.02)	2.86 (1.05)	3.89 (0.84)	442.00	.039*	.05
I know the basic sections of a WebQuest	3.11 (1.14)	3.42 (1.20)	2.85 (1.09)	3.88 (0.83)	499.00	.167	.05
I can complete a task in a WebQuest	3.73 (0.99)	3.81 (0.81)	3.49 (1.07)	3.94 (0.91)	555.50	.457	.05
I can interact online with my professor	4.05 (1.07)	3.91 (1.04)	3.85 (1.13)	4.05 (0.87)	583.00	.769	.05
I can interact online with my peers	4.42 (0.83)	4.14 (0.79)	3.93 (1.21)	4.08 (0.85)	634.50	.949	.05
The digital divide influences my digital competence	3.26 (1.14)	3.52 (1.16)	3.24 (0.69)	3.44 (1.31)	634.00	.873	.05
Overall/Total digital skills	3.63 (1.03)	3.69 (1.01)	3.37 (1.04)	3.88 (0.93)			

According to the results shown in Tab. 4, the students rated themselves as having gained more expertise about how a WebQuest works and what its main sections are at the end of the term. This is especially noticeable among females. Similarly, both subgroups feel more confident in completing a WebQuest task and interacting online with their professors and peers, except for male students. They also recognise that the digital divide may influence their digital competence development. Significant differences were identified with respect to the skills required to use a WebQuest effectively, with female students rating themselves as better prepared than male students to use this digital tool.

As to whether students' previous experience in using these online platforms can influence students' development of digital competences, the results obtained revealed some significant differences between the two subgroups (see Tab. 5).

Tab. 5: Results of the Mann Whitney test in relation to pre-service teachers' perspectives on development of digital skills and their previous experience within the webquest-based approach.

Digital skills	Experienced students (n=22)		Inexperienced students (n=58)		Mann-Whitney U	p	alpha
	Pre-test M (SD)	Post-test M (SD)	Pre-test M (SD)	Post-test M (SD)			
I know how WebQuests work	3.73 (0.96)	4.18 (0.91)	2.75 (0.96)	3.61 (0.87)	411.50	.009*	.05
I know the basic sections of a WebQuest	3.46 (0.99)	4.13 (0.99)	2.76 (1.07)	3.62 (0.91)	432.00	.018*	.05
I can complete a task in a WebQuest	4.41 (0.63)	4.09 (0.97)	3.33 (1.01)	3.84 (0.85)	522.00	.180	.05
I can interact online with my professor	4.42 (0.82)	4.27 (0.82)	3.73 (1.12)	3.91 (0.94)	499.50	.122	.05
I can interact online with my peers	4.51 (0.63)	4.22 (0.86)	3.92 (1.13)	4.05 (0.82)	554.00	.905	.05
The digital divide influences my digital competence	3.62 (1.12)	3.41 (1.14)	3.15 (1.26)	3.59 (1.26)	565.00	.420	.05
Overall/Total digital skills	4.02 (0.85)	4.05 (0.94)	3.27 (1.09)	3.77 (0.94)			

Although both subgroups scored higher in the post-tests, the experienced students' ratings are slightly higher than those of the inexperienced students, which is especially noticeable in the first two items. In particular, the experienced students rated themselves as having acquired significantly more knowledge about how a WebQuest works and what its main sections are than the inexperienced students when the term came to an end. It is also relevant that experienced students did not consider the digital divide to have had a particular impact on their digital literacy, as did inexperienced students, with the former rating this item lower on the post-tests than the latter.

To gain more insight into these issues, participants were asked which techniques or strategies they valued most in relation to their digital competence development under this Internet-based approach, as can be seen in Tab. 6.

Tab. 6. Results of the Mann Whitney test in relation to the pre-service teachers' perspective on the strategies that promoted their digital competences and their gender and experience.

Strategies used within this approach	Gender	N	Mann Whitney U	*p*-value	Experience	N	Mann Whitney U	*p*- value
Points obtained in Webquest assignments	Male Female	19 61	438.50	.032*	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	606.00	.725
Kahoot!, Socrative quizzes	Male Female	19 61	537.50	.482	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	424.00	.012*
Blogs and learning gamification platforms	Male Female	19 61	399.50	.013*	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	615.00	.132
Instructional videos	Male Female	19 61	349.00	.001*	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	377.00	.002*
Small group activities	Male Female	19 61	554.50	.697	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	552.00	.462
Practical classroom activities	Male Female	19 61	548.00	.591	Experienced Inexperienced	22 58	543.50	.351

As can be seen in Tab. 6, significant differences were identified between male and female respondents regarding gamification techniques and instructional videos, with female students considering them significantly more relevant for developing their digital skills than male participants. There are also significant differences between experienced and inexperienced respondents, with the former rating Kahoot! quizzes and instructional videos more highly for improving their digital skills than the latter.

Conclusions

In the present section, the results obtained in this study are interpreted in accordance with the initial research objectives described above. These objectives focus on the potential benefits of designing WebQuests among pre-service teachers in terms of motivation and digital literacy. As described above, the results of several studies have shown positive results in relation to the use of

WebQuests and the enhancement of motivation and digital skills, which can shed light on future classroom pedagogy and ICT practice (Bazo & Francisco, 2019; Katayama & Rojas, 2021).

In fact, university students and professors should build confidence to communicate and work together in face-to-face or digital environments, with the expectation of promoting suitable scenarios that favour more autonomous and independent learning processes. Specifically, according to students' perceptions, WebQuests allowed them to gain knowledge in an innovative way by developing a set of digital skills and abilities. Consequently, future teachers should have more online learning opportunities to strengthen not only their digital literacy, but also their creativity, critical thinking and a wide repertoire of learning skills within a collaborative environment (Blessinger & Wankel, 2012). For this reason, since every learner learns differently, educators need to provide clear guidance on how to address digital challenges, identifying the key issues and online requirements that pave the way for high quality learning and increased student achievement through these e-resources.

This has important educational repercussions for the initial training of teachers as it involves analyzing the university training programs that are being carried out and introducing new training models for teachers in which importance is given not only to disciplinary knowledge but also to didactic training related to the teaching disciplines that have received the least attention and to a historical education based on competences (Seixas & Morton, 2013). It is also essential to strengthen the actions for the continuous training of teachers so that teachers can update and innovate their teaching practices through the results of research carried out in the field of social science teaching and in the construction of historical knowledge. On many occasions, teachers do not have the necessary teaching resources to teach historical thinking competencies in the classroom. For this reason, the availability of a website, such as HistoryLab, where they can download iconographic, textual and audiovisual resources is essential to transform the teaching of history. Moreover, the teaching of history based on cross-country topics such as family, everyday life, social inequality, domestic economy, gender history or demography serves to overcome the barriers arising from curricula that focus on the teaching of a national identity history. In a globalized society like the current one, in which diversity is increasing, it is necessary that the teaching of history contribute to the learning of a critical, active and responsible citizenship.

Another finding that is confirmed by similar original research studies is students' increase of motivation thanks to the integration of gamification techniques and strategies under stimulating ICT approaches (Campillo et al.,

2020; Toledo et al., 2020). In fact, approaches and guidelines that aid the design, development and evaluation of gamification projects can be a key criterion for the success of solutions aimed at engaging and motivating students in their learning practice (Beranič & Heričko, 2022).

It should also be noted that more than half of the participants had not used WebQuests before, which highlights the importance of ICT in education, focusing on the need for a crucial adjustment in the context of higher education. Indeed, the integration of web-based proposals should serve as an element of improvement to fight the digital divide and adapt to the personal needs of undergraduate students (Gargallo, 2018; Marqués, 2013). Institutional collaboration is therefore needed to reduce the communication gaps that still exist between students and teachers in higher education. In this respect, priority should be given to the development of new approaches that unveil new e-learning opportunities between these two relevant groups.

In this study we have put the spotlight on pre-service teachers' perceptions of a number of variables related to motivation levels and digital skills, but we have not researched the impact of the implementation of WebQuests on educators who have developed this innovative proposal. This flow of ideas between educators and students could bridge the divide in future research and development of educational technology (Vera & Pérez, 2008). In addition, studying the impressions of educators and pre-service teachers over time would provide researchers with powerful insights into what applications of technology are most valued during their university education. These results would be useful in adapting the instructional design of core units and programmes, recognizing the needs and preferences of the students (Gómez et al., 2020).

The limitations of this study are those related to the appropriate population concerned in the conducted research. As noted above, pre-service teachers were only one of the core groups who voluntarily accepted to take part in the study. Bearing in mind the impressions of university professors would have broaden the scope of the research. In addition, on account of the reduced sample size, it is hard to define to what extent the findings can be generalized. Likewise, the results of this study are related to the impressions of pre-service teachers on the use of WebQuests, which do not necessarily reflect their academic achievement levels obtained in the core unit. With respect to the validation of the instrument used to collect the data, while the validation provided by ICT experts and social science researchers effectively evaluated the instrument, ensuring that the survey instrument captured the topic and that its questions could be easily interpreted and scored by participants, other techniques for assessing the instrument's reliability could have more clearly confirmed its consistency.

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Chapter 3. Emerging technologies: Virtual reality, augmented reality, and robotics[1]

Abstract: Emerging technologies are made up of state-of-the-art software and hardware whose developments converge in innovative procedures and practices capable of proposing methodological alternatives and contributing to educational efficiency. In recent years, abundant research and numerous national and international reports have tackled the most relevant technological trends and practices in educational contexts. This chapter explores virtual reality (VR), augmented reality (AR), and educational robotics (ER) as the main emerging technologies. The text defines and characterizes their scope, highlighting their possibilities and limitations for practical implementation. Remarkable benefits are observed in terms of improvements in interest, motivation, and academic results, among others. The importance of increasing training to bridge the gaps in teachers' knowledge, instrumental skills, and pedagogical practices is also emphasized. The chapter concludes by underscoring that educational administrations must make a firm commitment to these technologies, as a turning point to transform the quality of learning in the 21st century.

Keywords: Educational technology, virtual environments, immersive technologies, emerging software, educational technology

Introduction

Digital society is transforming. The role inspired by social networks, cloud learning, the semantic web, learning analytics, 3D printing, big data, digital transformation, virtual environments, and even new artificial intelligence systems, are proliferating at breakneck speed, becoming fundamental drivers and benchmarks of knowledge, in continuous technological development. The transmedia strategy or media convergence must acquire a fundamental role in educational progress, making use of the combination of technological

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advances and their languages. This task can be concretized in the irruption and consolidation of mobile technologies from an approach or prism that transforms the communicative environment, improves the creation of digital content, rewards the self-realization of students, values virtual interaction, and has an impact on society.

There is no denying that how human beings experience educational reality is changing thanks to technology, which has become a reliable driver of learning. The emerging technologies of the 21st century are moving through this kind of *digital convergence*, materialized in the form of video games, technological applications, gamified platforms, and other interactive experiences that give the user a leading role that he or she has never had before. Added to this is the emergence of robots as devices capable of undertaking operations or jobs that develop certain human skills and on which educational techniques and practices are implemented.

During the 21st century, the Horizon Report has become the main reference for many professionals interested in learning about the most relevant trends in educational technology. These observational guides are based on numerous predictions made by expert educational technologists about the impact of technology on teaching and learning. Some of these reports have focused on important developments in educational technology and practice across all stages of education, highlighting exciting developments applicable to the field. Kenneth and Wen (2022) present an updated picture of trends in K-12 educational technology in the past and near future, comparing predictions of technologies across seven Horizon reports in a way that identifies broader trends from individual predictions, all while assessing the accuracy of the prediction through bibliometric analysis. This paper identifies six influential technologies in educational practice: mobile, gaming, analytics technologies, maker technologies, artificial intelligence, and simulation technology, given that one should not rely solely on a single year's predictions, but on long-term trends that emerge from the most recent individual reports, which are influenced by the availability of new technologies that emerge or become prominent on a yearly basis. Within simulation technologies, this paper highlights the potential of augmented reality and virtual reality as technologies that have set and continue to set trends, highlighting the years between 2016 and 2019, as a result of Google's Glass project, advances in iOS and Android operating systems, the availability of affordable virtual and augmented reality via mobile phones, the development of platforms such as Oculus or Play Station, or the latest Head-Mounted Displays, which are setting trends in the sector. And on the other hand, within the framework of the maker movement, apart from spaces where

technology is not needed, the contribution of emerging technologies such as 3D printing or robotics is analyzed. In line with the evolution of the robotics industry, educational robotics is proposed as a trend in 2016 and 2017 with an impact on education in the medium and long term.

This chapter addresses this issue from a triple perspective -VR, AR, and ER-, defining and specifying the scope of study of each of these concepts that delimit the technological field of virtual environments and programming, as interesting spaces whose possibilities of implementation are paving the way to renewed trends and significant changes in terms of research and innovation.

Background of mixed reality environments

The technological emergence based on AR and VR is an irrefutable reality in the educational field. However, its irruption must be considered from its historical perspective, since the technologies that emanate from virtual environments have undergone a historical process of evolution, development, and maturation that allows us to understand that both its beginnings and its transition and consolidation in the sector have not been simple.

The first precedents that delimited the boundaries of virtuality appeared in 1931, the year in which Link, a pilot, and mechanical engineer, patented the first flight simulator. One of its main objectives was to provide a device for the training of aviators and students, so that they would be subjected to all the natural sensations of flight, as if they were in a real airplane, thus being able to acquire the experience to perform turns and movements in a device of this caliber (Link, 1931).

Based on the above, it is necessary to advance past the middle of the 20th century to highlight the legacy of Morton Heilig, philosopher, inventor, and filmmaker, considered the father of VR and AR, whose historical inventions marked the way forward in subsequent developments in mixed reality. In 1960, this author invented the Telesphere Mark, which he described as a stereoscopic television apparatus for individual use (Heilig, 1960). This instrument was considered the first *Head-Mounted Display* (HMD), a screen or display placed on the head, consisting of a hollow housing, a pair of lenses, two headphones, and two air transmission nozzles, whose functionality was to provide the user with a 3D view, complemented by air sensations and real stereo sound effects. Heilig also implemented in 1962 a prototype of an idea he had five years earlier, on a device that would stimulate the senses. In this way, he built a sensory immersion machine called *Sensorama*. Basically, it was a simulator that included various moving images with smell, real stereo sound, vibrations in the seat, and wind in

the hair, to create an optical illusion, under an exciting virtual reality experience (Heilig, 1962).

The developments and advances of the 1960s had a notable international influence, which converged in several advances whose zenith was not yet in sight. In this context, it is necessary to highlight the influence of Sutherland (1968), who presented the first unique AR mechanism. It was a very large helmet or HMD, hanging from the ceiling, whose fundamental idea was to present a virtual image in a perspective that changed as the user moved, reproducing polygons. It was the first mixed reality invention, as it allowed virtual images to be superimposed within the user's natural field of vision and, although it initially had many limitations, especially in terms of graphics, it marked the starting point for the main features on which AR and VR would later be based, namely: position sensors, 3D graphics, stereoscopy, navigation on the axis of an object, viewing in various positions, etc. These advances had a significant influence on the development of Head-Up Displays (HUD), which – from the military sector – would later evolve in the aviation and automotive industry. Undoubtedly, this technology marked the beginning of very interesting opportunities to project relevant information into a person's field of vision, enhancing their experiences with additional virtualized information.

Shortly thereafter, Heilig (1969) again patented a version of *Sensorama* for a wider audience. It consisted of a theater where the spectators could sit in armchairs and had access to the visualization of large hemispherical screens, with three-dimensional moving images and peripheral images, complemented with several loudspeakers placed inside the theater and with the possibility of feeling aromas, wind, variations in temperature and inclination of the support plane of the chairs, involving the spectators in a virtual movie that made them feel a real experience.

Figure 1 shows Heilig's patented inventions, as well as Link's flight simulator and the HMD described by Sutherland.

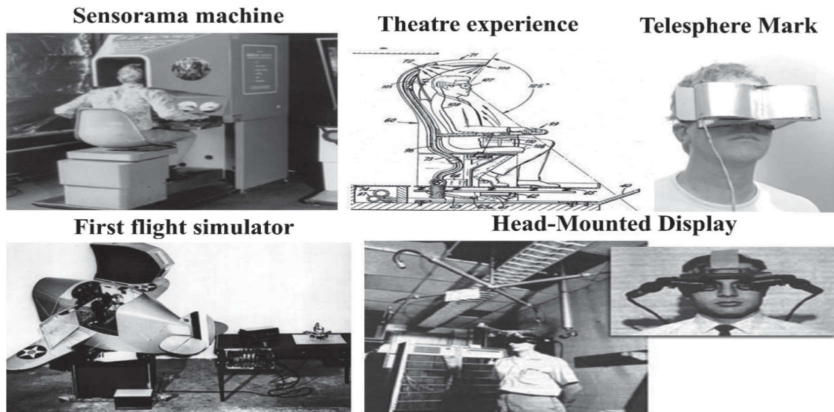

Figure 1: *Major historical mixed reality inventions*

Note. Adapted from Sensorama Simulator, *Experience Theater,* & *Stereoscopic-Television Apparatus for Individual Use*, by M. L. Heilig, 1962, 1969, 1960; *Combination Training Device for Student Aviators and Entertainment Apparatus*, by E. A. Link, 1931, & *Head mounted three-dimensional display*, by I. Sutherland, 1968. Creative Commons license.

The next breakthrough that laid the foundation for this symbiosis between the real and the virtual was *Videoplace*, created by Krueger in 1985. This was a room that allowed users to interact with virtual images for the first time, without touching them. The human-machine interface facilitated physical participation with graphic images, which were played through a video that the user made live, all in real-time (Krueger et al., 1985). This creation was well accepted during this era and led to decades of research and reworking of the system, highlighting its evolution into game controllers or even the development of more recent holographic techniques. Figure 2 shows an example of interaction through Videoplace.

Figure 2: *Krueger's Videoplace*

Note. Taken from Videoplace, de M. Krueger, 1985. Source: http://www.inventinginteractive.com/2010/03/22/myron-krueger/. Creative Commons license.

Other relevant and influential historical examples -which contributed to their mixed reality nuance- were films such as *The Terminator* (1984) and *RoboCop* (1987). In these films, reality and virtuality appear fused inside the bodies of their protagonists, as machines that could see the real world from their virtuality and interact with the environment with additional information being superimposed on their visual system, showing itself to the viewer.

This led to 1990, which marked a decade in which concepts such as AR (Caudell & Mitzell, 1992) or mixed reality were coined, formally embodying the main descriptive terms of immersive environments, as evidenced in the description of the virtuality continuum (Milgram & Kishino, 1994), a taxonomy that gathers all the existing visualization modalities, being able to juxtapose each other, so that real and virtual elements coexist in the same mixed reality space, with AR being located closer to the completely real environment than to the completely virtualized environment.

Throughout the 1990s, industrial and military applications were also developed, but the technical requirements for visualization of AR and VR were too costly and beyond the possibilities of the average user. However, at the end of the 20th century, a video-based AR conferencing system using markers and calibrated HMDs was created (Kato & Billinghurst, 1999). With this work, Kato would establish the basis of *ARToolKit*, a powerful library that allows programmers to design AR applications at lower cost and for all domains, thus giving rise to greater accessibility that would encourage the creation of other similar libraries (Mullen, 2011). Mixed environments were already a reality in

the consolidation of virtuality, which reached its apex in the last years of this century.

Virtual reality in education

VR consists of the representation of scenographies and images provided by a computer, in a way that simulates a real, three-dimensionally enhanced experience. Lissa and Bhuvaneswari (2022) define the term as the use of computer technology to design environments that allow the user to interact with the 3D universe, simulating senses such as sight, touch, hearing, or smell, so that an artificial environment is created to experience the world in three dimensions. In other words, thanks to VR it is possible to create a fictitious environment that functions as a scenario that has a realistic appearance with reconstructed or enlarged information, which facilitates users to move to any place or situation, creating a totally immersive sensory illusion.

The Educause report (Brown et al., 2020) states that the use of VR is in continuous growth due to the potential offered by its immersive characteristics, its accessibility, and the progressive reduction in costs which, together with new technical developments in mobile devices, enhanced wireless networks, and connectivity, increase the number of immersive experiences. The sensory experience that certain computing devices can provide is an unprecedented advance in educational technology. Today, a cell phone, a pair of glasses, a helmet, or any other visor are hardware devices that enrich access to information that, if worked well by educational institutions, can become knowledge, adding the value of doing so from a ubiquitous prism that simulates reality and improves it, for the benefit of students who demand new ways of learning and access to knowledge. Therefore, VR is a powerful tool to implement multisensory experiences in which the user makes the decisions and controls his own reality (Martín-Gutiérrez, 2017).

The three-dimensional contents that enter the scene in these experiences can be dynamic or static, that is, with or without animations. In addition, they may or may not be interactive, so that the user has more or less relevance in the virtual environment, and the experience has more or less realism. Examples range from simple 3D objects to video games, applications, or computer-designed virtual worlds. Virtual reality systems can be of three types: immersive, semi-immersive, and non-immersive, so that each has specific characteristics that users experience differently.

Immersive virtual reality systems represent the highest level of immersion. In these systems, the user observes the virtual world from within the environment

itself, developing a sense of presence and prominence, so that the scene is constantly updated as the user moves (Di Natale et al., 2020; Villena-Taranilla et al., 2022). Semi-immersive VR systems, on the other hand, are characterized by a total lack of presence in the digital environment. Flores et al. (2014) point out in this sense the importance of strengthening sensory inputs to improve the user experience with more active interactivity. Finally, non-immersive VR systems provide an external experience; that is, an environment of interactivity in a virtual world that can only be viewed through the screen of an electronic device, operated with a keyboard, mouse, or touch screen (Freina & Ott, 2015).

Among the features to take into account in these devices are the screen resolution, the refresh rate -expressed in Hertz-, the orientation sensors -gyroscope, accelerometer, and magnetometer-, the user's position tracking and the tracking latency that readjusts the image concerning its actual movement, the eye sensor, and the stereoscopic vision that enables the user for three-dimensional visualization. The latest HMD visualization devices (*HTC Vive*, *Oculus Rift*, *Samsung Odyssey*, or *Valve Index*, among others) favor a powerful degree of immersion in which users participate as the protagonists of a virtual setting that emulates presentiality and allows them to live experiences and visceral sensations as if they were physically in an environment that is not real. Even low-cost HMDs such as *Samsung Gear VR* or *Google Cardboard* allow access to experiences from the mobile device itself, facilitating the immersion.

In this field, immersive VR has been founded upon three elementary principles described by several authors (Freina & Ott, 2015; Gavish et al., 2015): immersion, interaction, and user involvement with the environment, so that they offer a very high potential providing more motivating and engaging learning. In fact, the approach of virtualized exercises allows students to retain more information and apply what they have learned in a more efficient way (Krokos et al., 2019).

These environments also allow students to inquire about new spatiotemporal realities and overcome certain difficulties of presentiality, either due to time constraints, physical inaccessibility, or the possibility of facing imminent dangers in real situations, by living these experiences and situations in virtual and immersive environments (Makransky & Lilleholt, 2018). In fact, the implementation of VR brings about new learning situations by giving the user an active protagonism under a real sense of immersion in scenarios that would be unattainable through the textbook or a technology that was not immersive or lacked the active protagonism provided by these experiences of three-dimensional interactivity.

The possibilities of VR in education are enormous. From visualization platforms to content creation or publishing tools, VR provides scenarios in simulated

environments that can support dynamic learning experiences. Some examples are VR applications for smart devices (*Google Cardboard*), platforms for PCs or game consoles (*Oculus Rift*, *Valve's Steam*, *Play Station VR*, etc.), VR content focused on web browsers (*Sechelt* or *Inspirit*, among others), or the interactivity provided by virtual worlds, such as collective spaces where you can act in real-time through an avatar. Some examples of immersive or semi-immersive virtual worlds are *Minecraft* for *Oculus*, *Gear VR*, *Samsar*, *OpenSimulator*, *Second Life, Imvu*, *InWorldZ*, among others. On the other hand, there are design software that favor the creation of VR content. These are tools oriented to the modeling of three-dimensional objects and require a subsequent import to specific VR creation applications or platforms. Some programs in this regard are *Tinkercad*, *Sketchup*, *Wings 3D*, *Equinox 3D*, *Daz studio*, *3D Crafter*, etc.

At another level of immersion are the free applications or software that make it easier to generate VR content, enabling conversion to three-dimensional stereoscopic formats or 360º immersive scenarios, so that they can be viewed with a greater (using a VR viewer) or lower (from the computer) degree of immersion. Some examples are *CoSpaces Edu*, *Sketchfab VR*, *Fulldive VR*, *Google Earth VR*, *Holobuilder*, *VR Space Virtual Reality 360*, *Voxelus, Colosse, Ocean Rift*, *ENTiTi Creator* or *AFrame,* among others.

In terms of research, the influence of this technology on education is evident. Several meta-analyses or systematic reviews (Merchant et al., 2014, Radianti et al., 2020; Villena-Taranilla et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2020) show some of the positive effects of VR on student learning. These effects are reinforced in the work of Gargrish and Mantri (2020), showing that this technology can increase motivation for learning, and provides a positive impact on academic performance, even in video-based teacher training (Richter et al., 2022), where self-efficacy has also been shown to be significantly more positive than implementing traditional systems.

It is a proven fact that the multimodal stimulation provided by these environments positively affects academic efficiency (Wang et al., 2021), so current teachers should take advantage of this reality to implement scenarios in which plans or regulatory frameworks are linked to these experiences, materialized in teaching methods and strategies adapted to the virtual experience, whose experimentation arouses greater interest and motivation, as well as better academic results.

Augmented reality in education

The conceptual beginnings of AR were pioneered by Caudell and Mizell (1992), who first defined the term as a technology that can increase a user's field of vision through additional information that facilitates the performance of tasks, thanks to computational processors that can transform and plot simple graphics in real-time. Azuma (1997), another of its pioneering authors, conceptualizes AR as a variation of virtual environments that facilitates a different view of reality that brings novelty to the user, through the superimposition of objects. In other words, it can be said that AR allows the combination of digital and physical information in real-time; that is, it adds an unreal object to a real context with superimposed virtual contents (Cabero-Almenara et al., 2018). To do so, it uses various electronic devices such as tablets, phones, glasses, or other HMD devices that allow both types of information (real and virtual) to coexist in order to facilitate the experience of new scenes that provide additional communication.

Going deeper into a terminological clarification of this concept, it is necessary to point out that there are scholars (Squire & Klopfer, 2007; Wu et al., 2013) who contradict the epistemological notion of AR as a technology, to understand it as a technique, since it is not only a technological artifact -a product-, but it also implies a resource that accompanies technology or makes use of it, so it has multiple functionalities that encompass procedures and protocols. From this point of view, AR could be defined as a novel technique supported by technology that allows users, depending on their own activity, to improve the vision of the real environment, through software that may or may not be ubiquitous and whose function is to overlap virtual information to that environment, in real-time, thus facilitating access to a mixed reality, which may be two-dimensional or three-dimensional in nature.

The operation of AR is made possible by four elements: a camera to capture the images of reality, a screen or output device to project the combination of real and virtual images, a processor to generate the virtual content, and an AR trigger that usually works through a location sensor that, together with the compass and accelerometer, orients devices, tags, and markers, giving rise to the virtualized environment. However, in addition to its basic operation, AR also presents some features that define and articulate its nature. Table 1 shows a customization of the works of several authors (Azuma, 1997; Cabero-Almenara, 2018), that synthesize the most important features of this technique.

Table 1: Main features of the augmented reality technique

Features of AR	
It operates in a mixed reality environment	The information generated thanks to this technique has real and virtual contents mixed, so that a hybrid reality is created, closer to the real world than to virtual environments.
Real-time integration	The creation of mixed content occurs in the present time and place; that is, live and about reality itself.
Activated in a real physical context	The additional information is directly related to the reality of the human eye, thus forming a much more complete perception of it in a physical reality environment.
Designed and displayed in several dimensions	AR can be designed and visualized in 2D and 3D, with the nature of the user's experience left to the user's choice.
It allows working with various formats	AR experiences can combine different digital objects: text, graphics, images, audio, video, 3D object or environment, websites, Cartesian coordinates, footprints, etc.
It enables human-machine interaction	The AR technique allows the user direct participation to interact with the information digitally, modifying the contents that he/she visualizes.
It modifies perceived information	Viewing augmented content can improve and change the quality of the perceived information.
It promotes active participation	As a technique that increases the perceived information through the user's participation, there is an interdependence that ensures new and better learning environments.

In recent years, design software that, through programming, allows the creation of new models and AR tools has been proliferating. Some of the most widely used are *Trimble SketchUp*, *Blender,* and *Autodesk 3ds Max*. Others such as *artoolkitX*, *MXRToolKit*, *Studierstube*, or *ARTag* have also shown their potential in many areas. We should also mention *AR-Media Plugin*, *ArUco*, *ATOMIC Authoring Tool*, and *BuildAR* (Cubillo et al., 2014). More recently, *Vuforia*, *Unity*, *Wikitude SDK* or *Meta Spark*, among others, stand out. All these resources are basically prepared for the creation of AR applications and, therefore, allow rendering actions, graphic design, registration tasks, modeling, and animation, both 2D and 3D.

Another step of AR is to bring this technique closer to the user through applications that are already designed or programmed to be implemented in all areas, without the need for programming knowledge. It is quite interesting to highlight some examples such as *QBox*, *Blippar*, *MetAClass*, *Metaverse*, *JigSpace*, *Plickers*, *Halo AR*, *ARitize-3D*, *Roar*, *Arloopa*, *Devar*, *UniteAR*, *LearnAR* or *Hope*.

Others such as *Junaio*, *TwittARound*, *Layar*, *WallaMe*, *WordLens*, *Aurasma*, *Lookator* and *HP Reveal* (all of them in disuse) were also implemented, as well as *Augment*, *Aumentaty Geo*, *Aumentaty Creator* and *Scope*, currently in force. More specifically, and especially in the sphere of High School, applications such as *ARcircuits 4D*, *SpaceCraft 3D*, *Arloon*, *LandscapAR* or *Estarteco* (de la Horra, 2018), as well as *ARGOplay*, *Elements 4D*, *Anatomy 4D*, and *Zookazam* have emerged strongly. On the other hand, for Kindergarten and Elementary School users, applications such as *ChromVille*, *Quiver*, *Flashcards*, *Planets AR*, *Devar* or *Dinos AR* which encourage children to learn in a playful and fully interactive way, also stand out.

Some systematic reviews have highlighted the use of AR scenarios in education (Akçayır & Akçayır, 2017; Athanasios, 2022; Bacca et al., 2014; Cheng & Tsai, 2013; Garzón et al., 2020; Gómez et al., 2020), pointing to an improvement in didactic processes and student learning. These studies indicate that the usefulness and motivation of this technique have not yet reached their peak and should continue to advance along with new practices in access to knowledge and the training of its users, taking into account new developments in technology and the rise of innovative studies. Yavuz et al. (2021) have also delved into the factors that affect the use and implementation of mobile AR, emphasizing among their benefits the ease of learning, the visual quality, and its simplicity of use. On the other hand, it has also been shown that AR as a mediating element can favor new learning strategies and improve motivational processes, including through the integration of theoretical models such as Biggs' 3P model or Keller's ARCS motivation theory (Chang, 2021; López-García et al., 2019), which also provide greater interest and learning effectiveness. In short, we see that these augmented environments provide enormous possibilities in the educational field. It is necessary to take advantage of the manifest potential to develop experiences that bring greater significance to the user experience.

Educational Robotics

In recent years, robotics has become considerably ubiquitous, playing a leading role in many of the activities of our daily lives. We are constantly interacting with robots and assigning them tasks that facilitate our work in the different fields in which we operate.

In the educational context, robotics, programming, and computational thinking are becoming increasingly widespread trends, especially because of the idea that the next generations will need to master them to be able to live according to the requirements of the future society. Seymour Papert, the father

of constructionism, in an attempt to warn of the dangers of a society that merely consumes technology (Resnick et al., 2009), would go so far as to affirm that students must be taught to program so that they do not end up being programmed by devices (Blikstein, 2013).

Indeed, Papert is considered one of the pioneers of educational robotics. In 1967, he and his team created *Logo*, a programming language through which they intended that all students should learn to program from an early age by developing *procedural thinking* (Papert, 1980). It was not until the arrival of the new millennium, thanks to the spread of the concept of computational thinking, the birth of new, more user-friendly programming languages, and the arrival of more accessible robotic devices, that robotics, programming, and computational thinking became one of the most popular emerging technologies in the educational world.

The prevalence of computational thinking in today's educational landscape and the attention it receives is reflected in numerous meta-analyses and systematic literature reviews published in recent years (e.g., Merino-Armero et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2020). One of the most commonly accepted definitions of computational thinking is that developed by Jeanette Wing (2006) as an approach to "solving problems, designing systems, and understanding human behaviour, by drawing on the concepts fundamental to computer science" (p. 33). According to the same author, computational thinking is already today a fundamental skill for everyone, not only for computer scientists; thus, in addition to literacy and numeracy, computational thinking should be added to the skills to be acquired by children.

Among the different possibilities for implementing computational thinking in the classroom, two approaches stand out: unplugged activities and plugged-in activities. The first approach refers to a set of activities that do not require electronic devices, and that are intended and designed to promote computational thinking, especially in the early stages of cognitive development (del Olmo-Muñoz et al., 2020; Zapata-Ros, 2019). Conversely, plugged-in activities are those that involve programming exercises through technological devices such as computers or robots. It is easy to find plugged-in activities that make use of visual programming languages such as *Scratch*, *Blocky*, *Minibloq*, *Open Roberta*, or *Kodu* along with others that use more advanced, text-based programming languages such as *Python*, *C*, *Java*, or *Swift*. An example of the Scratch programming language is shown in Figure 3.

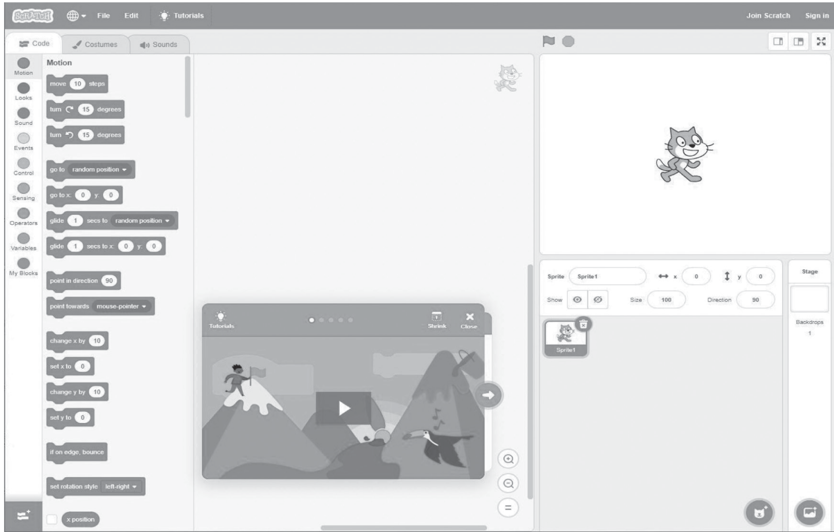

Figure 3: *Scratch programming language*
Note. Own work.

Many physically programmable robotic training sets such as *BeeBot*, *BlueBot*, *Kibo*, *Ozobot*, *mBot*, *Dash & Dot, Robo*, and *Lego WeDo / Mindstorms*, have also reached the classroom, allowing students to design and/or operate a robot from start to finish. Furthermore, educational initiatives in non-formal environments such as coding camps, workshops, challenges, or competitions with the potential to awaken children's enthusiasm for robotics are also becoming more and more frequent. Some of these robots are shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: *Robotic training sets*
Note. Own work.

There are many definitions of educational robotics that can be found in the scientific literature. Ruiz Velasco (2007), for example, defines it as "the discipline that aims at the conception, creation, and implementation of robotic prototypes and specialized programs for educational purposes" (p. 123). While for Guasmayán et al. (2019) it is "the set of pedagogical activities that develop thinking skills in the student through the construction and programming of robots" (p. 19).

The implementation of educational robotics both inside and outside school environments has undergone a process of transformation and conceptual application that has evolved from a traditional version, which involved the development of technical knowledge based on the design, construction, control, and programming of robots (Barker & Ansorge, 2007; Talan, 2021), towards more innovative learning paradigms in which it is conceived as a learning system or context that relies on the use of robots to develop skills and foster the acquisition of competences in students, not exclusively in technical areas, but also in practically all curricular areas (Karim et al., 2015). Authors such as Gaudiello and Zibetti (2016) establish three learning paradigms related to educational robotics according to the hardware and software used and the interaction allowed by the robot: (1) learning robotics, when students use the robot as a platform to learn robotics from technical, production or engineering approaches; (2) learning with robotics, characterized by the use of robots as assistants/helpers that accompany teachers and/or students in the teaching-learning process; and (3) learning by

robotics, in which the robot becomes a tool, at the service of teachers and students, to develop skills and promote the acquisition of content and competences from different disciplines. In this last learning paradigm, also known as robotic-based instruction, the robot becomes an active tool for teachers and students that mediates between all the dimensions of the educational process.

The literature has evidence that educational robotics can be incorporated to all educational levels, from K-12 to higher education (Talan, 2021). Regarding its pedagogical possibilities, it should be noted that benefits have been observed in students' academic performance (Athanasiou et al., 2019; Talan, 2021); the development of cognitive, affective, social, and metacognitive dimensions of learning (Catlin & Blamires, 2010); student engagement (Toh et al., 2016); teamwork (Menekse et al., 2017); interest and participation (Rubenstein et al., 2015); cooperative learning (Denis & Hubert, 2001), problem-solving (Zhang & Zhu, 2022); spatial abilities (Gonzalez-Calero et al., 2018); critical thinking and inquiry (Sahin et al., 2014); learning and transferring knowledge skills (Anwar et al., 2019); STEM skills (Eguchi, 2014), programming ability (Sun & Zhou, 2022), creativity (Zhang & Zhu, 2022), and motivation (Chin et al., 2014).

Moreover, there is a growing enthusiasm among the educational community for the use of robots in classrooms. In addition to the aforementioned interest among students, positive attitudes are also held by parents, who consider educational robots to be beneficial for their children's education (Lin et al., 2012); and by teachers, who perceive robotics as a very useful tool for the development of interpersonal and problem-solving skills of students (Khanlari, 2015).

However, some difficulties need to be considered. First, there are undeniable inequalities in the access to technology. Although in recent years the prices of technological devices related to educational robotics have fallen and institutional programs have been developed to provide these devices to educational centers, the access gap in rural or vulnerable environments continues to be a limitation for their spread. Initiatives such as *unplugged activities* can be an effective alternative to the scarcity of resources (del Olmo-Muñoz et al., 2020). On the other hand, it is also necessary to talk about the gender gap. Differences between boys and girls in the use of technology have been revealed through research from different perspectives such as motivation, interest, attitude towards technology, and intention to use, among others. Although more research is needed in this regard, didactic approaches that address more motivating alternatives for girls should be chosen (del Olmo-Muñoz et al., 2022). And finally, the gap in teacher training. Teachers exhibit knowledge, skill, and pedagogical gaps (Anwar et al., 2019), and this makes it necessary to promote teacher training so that they can successfully implement robotics for educational purposes. At the same time,

it is important that such training provides teachers with the same formative experience that will later be brought to students so that they can get a complete idea of the implications and potentials it entails (Bocconi et al., 2022).

In short, educational robotics, programming, and computational thinking are trends that unite present and future. They go far beyond computer science or technology, as they foster fundamental skills for citizens of the 21st century (Moreno-Leon et al., 2018). Therefore, many countries are adapting their school curricula to promote the development of educational robotics, programming, and computational thinking as part of a broad and evolving definition of digital competence, which encompasses key skills for the future such as critical thinking, problem-solving, teamwork, creativity, or communication.

Conclusion

The educational technology industry is growing at a rapid pace. Every year more and more effort and money are invested in new technological developments that aim to become the ultimate educational tools. However, it has been shown that having the means, technical developments and even a good predisposition and knowledge of ICT is not enough for success. In this respect, it is necessary that teacher training goes far beyond technological, instrumental, or technical knowledge training. It is important to design this training from a practical approach that allows the interaction of content, pedagogy, and technology, so that teachers can effectively bring these new learning tools into the classroom.

We agree with Claro et al. (2017) on the issue of stressing that the involvement of school leaders is also necessary – on a large scale – in the pedagogical activities that demand a useful use of these technological resources. The education system today calls for policies that facilitate pedagogical innovation with these and other emerging technologies, given that any decision in technological matters that aims to transform education must be governed by progressively more advanced stages of integration of digital technologies in its pedagogical organization and the practical nature of its professionalization (Area et al., 2020). For this reason, educational communities must strengthen ties so that national and international demands converge in an idea of unity that can be easily extended to governments and institutions around the world to show a real commitment to consolidate emerging technologies in educational processes, whose efficiency in terms of educational quality – is quite evident.

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Chapter 4. Recovering social memory via heritage education. War, repression and exile in the Museum of Pontevedra

Abstract: A critical approach to heritage[1] education can contribute towards the development of collective actions in favour of the recovery of social memory. In this regard, museums have a great degree of responsibility and can employ tools which foster a relationship of reflection with traumatic and painful situations from the past. It is desirable to put resources into action which make it possible to explain and understand what has happened from an ethical point of view in order to exercise social justice and take decisions to enable the construction of a civic and democratic future. Proof of this is the line of work being carried out at the Museum of Pontevedra in terms of the visibilization and recovery of the teaching of the Spanish Civil War via the character and work of the artist and intellectual Alfonso Rodríguez Castelao, focusing on the denouncement of the brutality and terror of Fascism.

Keywords: Education, heritage, identity, memory, critical thinking

Introduction and theoretical frame

An environment, as a social product which defines and characterises a community (Valera & Pol, 1994), requires an informed and contextualised perspective which deactivates routine consumption in order to intentionally reinterpret and resignify it. This critical understanding implies searching for keys for interpretation in memories, histories and people, making it possible to overcome the dominant physical approach to the environment. In order to adopt this exploratory attitude, the subject must resort, on the one hand, to the sensorial and emotional cognition of what he/she sees and, on the other, to individual reflection as a practice of self-reference in this context.

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The need of human beings to form part of a group finds a lifelong ally in the landscape. As a living being upon which the subject attributes changing values and as a record of social history, the landscape reflects the personal and collective memories of which the sense of community consists (Taylor, 2008).

Through this experiential and subjective process, and after rational comprehension of the environment, people can modify the meanings associated to elements around them and activate the (re)construction of their identity:

> Identity is no longer a static unit but is defined as being discursive throughout life. This discursive nature is defined in dialogue with the environment, i.e., identity appears here as a living process which changes and is nourished by experiences. Identity is also multi-material; in other words, it is not only made up of experiences but also of collective identities to which each individual belongs, of what has been learned, what has been forgotten, as well as what has been appropriated or heritagised[2] (Gómez-Redondo, 2013, p. 651).

In order for identities to be inclusive and ethical, communities must be involved in the recognition of values attributed from the personal arena and even from social and shared spheres:

> In social research, there is a certain degree of consensus concerning the fact that identities are a social construct resulting from learning. Assuming a common identity hides social diversity (which could be conflictive) and facilitates solidarity with anonymous or unknown people. Identification is based on shared elements, be they material, such as territory or landscape, or immaterial, such as beliefs, language or interpretations of the past, the present or perspectives of the future. This set of perceptions have an emotional component[3] (López-Facal, 2019, p. 225).

In this way, scenarios enabling exchanges regarding heritage via citizen participation can be created, fostering a greater degree of connection and commitment with one's own environment by way of emotional and territorial intelligence (Cuenca & Estepa, 2017; Cuenca et al., 2020; Trabajo & Cuenca, 2017; No et al., 2017). In accordance with the Faro Convention (Council of Europe, 2005), heritage should be employed to reinforce social cohesion and to promote an awareness of people's shared responsibility with their environment.

This position is connected with the symbolic-identity conception of heritage (Cuenca, 2003, 2014), according to which it is understood to be a social construct (Lowenthal, 2015; Prats, 1997) which is changing and dynamic (Lowenthal, 1998a, 1998b; Waterton & Watson, 2015) and is in constant evolution and interaction

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2 Translated by authors.
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with people (Fontal, 2020a). Thus, it is appropriate to assume a critical position (Harrison, 2013; McDonald, 2013) in order to move away from the authorised discourse (Smith, 2006). In other words, it is the selection of cultural elements according to the perception, meaning and values that society confers upon them in each historical context (Marcos, 2004). As this concept is in constant revision, it is unstable (Davallon, 2014) and, therefore, it may be more appropriate to speak of heritagisation as a process of creation (Calaf & Fontal, 2004; Sánchez-Carretero, 2012) rather than a closed system.

A community which is not committed to its heritage can end up destroying it. It must be clarified that being aware of heritage does not automatically lead to its preservation. For people to assume it as their own and attribute meaning to it, it is necessary for there to be strategies for social participation, education and awareness-raising (Quintero, 2011; Fontal, 2020b). This is the case not only in formal contexts, but also in projects concerning the revision of identities in non-formal contexts (Garner et al., 2016; Fontal & Marín, 2016; Rivero et al., 2018) which encourage people to critically review and select the elements with which they wish to be associated. In this way, it is possible to achieve an effective appropriation of identity (Gómez-Redondo, 2012; Gómez-Redondo et al., 2016), thus leading to the desired participatory governance of the community (Jiménez-Esquinas, 2020), and the overcoming of social ruptures and conflicts with those responsible for heritage management (Cortés-Vázquez et al., 2017; Jiménez-Esquinas & Sánchez-Carretero, 2015): "If the individual constructs her/his idea of heritage and citizenship, and, through them, identity, then there has to be an approach that gives priority to personal experience, self-directed learning that gives ownership, empowerment, self-awareness, creativity and motivation" (Copeland, 2006, p. 28). In this process, it must not be forgotten that the heritagisation process includes "power relations, accumulations of capital (symbolic, economic, educational, etc.), relationships among the community itself and the emotional burden of these practices and assets"[4] (Jiménez & Quintero, 2017, p. 1853).

Via heritage education it is possible to encourage, on the one hand, the growth of the local community's connection with its territory and a symbolic reappropriation of its memory whilst, at the same time, leading the community to reflect upon the future of a particular heritage asset in order to apply the same ideas to other contexts. Museums have a large degree of social responsibility in this task, which is related with the feelings and emotions of people in their

4 Translated by authors.

heritage practices and experiences, offering the possibility to examine in depth their conception of heritage as social memory (Tolia-Kelly et al., 2016).

Loaded as it is with symbolic meaning, memory forms part of the intuitive relationship between its subjects and the elements which surround them. This natural process is not easily deciphered and requires mechanisms which enable that fragile relationship to mutate to another kind of a more reflexive nature. This is particularly true when a traumatic situation has been experienced. In such cases, in order to improve the resilience of a community, it is necessary to provide for the recovery of collective memory in renewal and reconstruction policies undertaken to alleviate pain (Aslani & Amini, 2019). From this educational perspective, in connection with the relationship-based conception of heritage among people and assets (Fontal, 2003), teaching programmes have been designed which, along the lines of a museum focused on a particular territory (Fontal et al., 2017), have put forward collective actions of appropriation and resignification based on heritage memory (García et al., 2017). These can be applied to contexts in which a revision of identity of an endogenous nature is promoted by way of heritage education.

It may seem an obvious statement, but heritage is an arena for confrontation (Sánchez-Carretero & Jiménez-Esquinas, 2016). Therefore, recovering the leading role of communities is essential when managing conflicts and promoting peaceful coexistence. What is more, the ethical principles for the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage drawn up by UNESCO (2015) establish that the role of the community is key in identifying the main threats to its heritage.

Taking into consideration the value which heritage contributes to society (Jagielska & Stec, 2019; Jagielska et al., 2021), UNESCO has advocated a greater presence of the latter in all levels of education and, since the Faro Convention (Council of Europe, 2005), a greater relationship with professional training. Along these lines, one particularly worthy contribution of heritage education (perhaps its most important one) is that of encouraging society to develop a critical sense in order to understand reality in a historical way (Teixeira, 2006) and to become committed to improving it from an ethical point of view. The main objectives of so-called critical heritage education (Santisteban-Fernández et al., 2020) can be summarised as follows: a commitment to the conservation of heritage; providing a link between heritage and identity; providing visibility to identities, people and groups; research into and questioning of heritage; the identification of interests in the selection of heritage assets; the construction of narratives which run counter to the hegemonic narrative; the development of historical consciousness. Thus, it is possible to guide the construction of a critical citizenship supported by both heritage and history education (Pagès,

2000; Pinto, 2013; Van Boxtel et al., 2015; Miralles et al., 2017). Furthermore, in accordance with contemporary interests and needs, subjects require tools which provide meaning to their cultural identity and to their emotional connection with the people and elements with whom they choose to be connected.

Shared memory: The social function of museums

The 20th century bore witness to the conceptual revision of memory and a growing interest aroused by its critical use in the field of history. Its emergence as a social phenomenon and a historical construct dates back to the philosophers Maurice Halbwachs and Walter Benjamin, followed by Theodor W. Adorno and the Frankfurt School and historians such as Pierre Nora and Jacques Le Goff. According to its renewed meaning, memory implies the conscious search for memories which are collectively validated from the present.

This social consciousness is substantial for the recovery of painful situations from the past which have been thrown into therapeutic oblivion (silence) or have been ideologically covered up (official discourse). Forty years after Francoism in Spain, collective amnesia regarding the dictatorship (Bernecker, 2003) and demands for the vindication of the memory of its victims (Godicheau, 2001) still coexist. The process of gaining knowledge of a trauma via what has been experienced, narrated or even desired makes it possible to obtain an explanatory and ethical perspective of a prospective nature of the event and to understand whether it is a good idea or not to recover painful memories. However, it must be taken into consideration that the selection and combination of events from the past should not merely pursue the truth but also the common good; it is not a matter of gathering and ordering a series of events, but of selecting those most relevant for making an exemplary use of memory (Todorov, 2008). Memory contributes towards rebuilding past events in order to learn from them; it is a "social process of relationship, conservation, resignification and transmission of the past and, therefore, a rich source for extracting lessons for the defence of rights"[5] (Maceira, 2012, p. 10).

One contribution of the social sciences to the set of knowledge is to guide their study towards the role of the subject as an axis of the dynamics, behaviours and inside workings of the group as a whole. The narrative that contributes to absence gaining presence via memory originates, in a way, from the subject. This task proves complex due to the cult of instantaneity which characterises

5 Translated by authors.

contemporary society (the perpetual present, Debord, 1967), in which scant interest in the past is compensated by an excess of insubstantial memory which is reified "at the service of touristic consumption and the needs of the State" (Cuesta, 2015, pp. 53–54). Indifference towards the past coexists with a proliferation of strategies to recover memory (the memory boom, Huyssen, 2002), subjected to a large extent to processes of banalisation for uncritical consumption: "there is no reason to erect a monument to memory for memory; consecrating memory is another way of making it sterile"[6] (Todorov, 2008, p. 56).

Thus, at times, commemoration in the name of collective memory is manipulated by dominant interests, employing lures such as musealisation, spectacles and erroneous historical recreations focusing more on festive dramatisation than on scientific rigour (Español & Franco, 2021). For this reason, historical consciousness (supported by education) must confront the conflictive component of the past, not merely to know about it but to reveal the origin of delusions which persist in the present via so-called history with memory, paying heed to five categories: individual, social, historical, conflictive and selective (Cuesta, 2015).

In accordance with this approach, it is desirable to put into practice a model of history teaching along the lines suggested by Jörn Rüsen, Peter Seixas and K. C. Barton. Such a model would employ the past "as a tool for explaining the problems, limitations and injustices of the present and provide intellectual tools for imagining, desiring and building a future based on equality, justice and solidarity"[7] (López, 2016, p. 154). The idea is, ultimately, to disconnect from institutional (mythical and patriotic) memory in order to connect with the real-life experience and legacy of our ancestors by way of context, contrast and objectivation (Aróstegui, 2004).

Thus, heritage education can contribute towards understanding cultural identities as changing social constructs depending on the relationship of the subject with the territory and his/her historical knowledge. It is based on the need to promote action to stimulate people's commitment with their environment and to shape socially competent people who are able to interpret social phenomena and to propose reasoned alternatives.

Memory is inclusive, accessible, and plural; it makes social demands and reinforces the dynamic and processual condition of heritage. The performative relationship of the individual with his/her surroundings are necessary for

6 Translated by authors.
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the (re)construction of memory "through physical, emotional, and narrative responses and then, by extension, heritage" (Sather-Wagstaff, 2016, p. 18). Via the exchanging of memories, the reflexive and critical use of nostalgia and the dichotomous exploration of presence/absence, subjects are able to understand and (re)signify heritage in terms of their emotions (Yarker, 2016), conferring new meanings upon it, even regarding conflicting values.

Therefore, the contribution of museums in terms of the recovery of memory can be guided towards moving consciences: "When private grief is brought into the memorial museum, this transfer is a deliberate act that is seeking public acknowledgement and action" (Crooke, 2017, p. 1). Some authors propose that the heritagisation of the past via testimonies, documents, photographs, etc. implies reflection on the part of the community which can prove to be therapeutic as it makes it possible to address, manage, work with and publicly present shadows, traumas and miseries (Huyssen, 2003).

Alternative narratives from museums

From their origins, both museums and what Tony Bennet called the "exhibitionary complex" (Bennet, 1988, pp. 73–102) become an ideal context for defining and legitimating narratives and the imaginary cartography of our world. They function as a reflection of social and political transformations and as "vehicles for inscribing and broadcasting the messages of power" (Bennet, 1988, p. 74) in society. Thus, museums, their collections and exhibitions reproduce a vision of the world influenced at all times and in all places by certain specific systems of thought which determine the importance of displaying certain objects and, thus, the convenience of excluding others. Museums and exhibitions, as institutionalised systems which form part of a field of relationships, are cultural constructs, mechanisms defined by specific rules, beliefs and processes of subjectivation. As these are designed from places of power, they are not neutral. They work in response to external and internal factors, such as the historical moment, the political context and the expository policy of the institution. However, although they work as institutions at the service of the State (or, employing Louis Althusser's (1988) term, as an ideological apparatus of the State), they are, at the same time, and as Georges Didi-Huberman (2011) would say, a war machine or an apparatus capable of contradicting it

This capacity of museums to contradict or build alternative narratives transforms them into spaces for the creation of subjectivities and, therefore, into a potentially powerful tool for the decolonisation of narratives, from both the patriarchal and historical or colonial point of view. Both the selection of objects

on display and how they are articulated are exercises of responsibility as they shape both the messages that the museum wishes to transmit and the way that this is carried out. These are performative relationships (Bal, 2016, pp. 15–41) as, if the order of the items is altered or they are put under a different title, no matter how relevant the original ideas may seem, a different experience and a new way of reading the contents would be obtained (Filipovic, 2013, p. 169). Compared with the modern museum and its linear narratives, which are acritical but hegemonic, relegating events and artists considered inferior by the historical canon to a secondary position, the social museum of the present, which has inherited the tenets of the new museology (Navajas, 2020) and, more recently, of critical museology (Lorente, 2022) (which is transformative, open, decolonial or feminist), puts forward a history with multiple narratives, which is discontinuous and simultaneous, breaking with the great narrative of modernity.

Digital resources for narrating conflict: Castelao in the Museum of Pontevedra

How can fragmented history be narrated by museums? Can the possibilities of digital production enable us to tell an open history through concepts, relationships and constellations? Professor Arturo Colorado, who was a pioneer in research on the impact of digital culture on heritage and museums (Colorado, 1997, pp. 30–35), defends the advantage of a polyvalent narrative of digital technology when linking objects by association and rejecting linear sequences, repositioning the roles of author and reader and reinventing the way of relating and narrating contents. Bearing in mind the circle formed by art, thinking and technology anticipated by Benjamin a century ago (Rendueles & Useros, 2010), digital technology at the service of the museum makes it possible to intensely explore the discursive dimension of the institution and its narrative qualities and to incorporate them into the potential learning processes which take place therein. These process may be multifaceted, free and permanent (Falk et al., 2008, pp. 323–339).

The Museum of Pontevedra opened its doors in 1927, a decade before the coup d'état which would lead to the Spanish Civil War. Among the intellectuals and politicians involved in its creation was Alfonso Rodríguez Castelao (Rianxo, Spain, 1866 – Buenos Aires, Argentina, 1950). Castelao was a key figure in the history of the political struggles which took place in Spain during the Second Republic and the exile and was a point of reference for both the Galician nationalist movement and the artists and cultural creators who led the denouncement of the brutality and terror of Fascism after the Civil War broke out. The overpowering presence

of Castelao in the museum gave rise to a line of work concerning war, repression and exile, with research focusing on the rewriting of Spanish history in order to broaden the sphere of classical historiography and incorporate debates around uncomfortable questions. Both the new section of the permanent exhibition on the Spanish Civil War and the exhibition on Castelao's intellectual work form part of this paradigm. These exhibitions are located in two monographic rooms in the sixth of the buildings which make up the Museum of Pontevedra. This is a new building which was inaugurated in 2012 and has recently been named after Castelao.

The collection of Castelao's work in the Museum began in 1931 when the artist, who, at that time, was linked to the museum, donated eleven of his works of art and expressed his desire to gather his most significant works in the Museum of Pontevedra. The collection today includes some 2,000 works of art, in addition to a miscellany of objects and documents, which came to the museum via deposits, donations and unprecedented ways such as that which enables the museum to acquire works commandeered during the dictatorship to avoid their dispersal. His work has been the object of research and recovery in the Museum of Pontevedra for many years, along with that of other Galician artists murdered, persecuted or exiled following the July 1936 military coup (Castaño, 2021; Tilve & Castaño, 2017; Valle, 2016). The museum has, thus, become the space of reference for the knowledge, study and dissemination of Castelao's work (Tilve, 2021). It is precisely this facet of being the custodian of Castelao's legacy which has situated the Museum of Pontevedra as one of the most relevant institutions in Spain as regards the recovery of the heritage of republican artists who suffered reprisals as a result of the Spanish Civil War, being murdered or exiled. Places such as the Museum of Pontevedra have been called "exile museums" by the researcher Inmaculada Real as they safeguard "the heritage of republican artists who, as a result of the Spanish Civil War (1936–1939) and due to their political affiliations, were exiled, interrupting their professional careers" (Real, 2019). This category of exile museum is not officially recognised within the definitions of UNESCO for museums, although it is important in memory policies. This is particularly true in the case of Spain where there is still no museum dedicated to the history of the war and the Franco dictatorship to complete the work of reparation owed to its victims according to the official narrative deriving from the 1977 Amnesty Law.

Castelao's work, therefore, is a defining factor of the identity of the museum and is central to its online development. In addition to the usual physical resources deriving from the analysis of the museum's own collections, such as the permanent exhibition in the collection rooms, the temporary exhibits,

workshops, visits and publications, there are also digital resources available on the museum's website, understood within the scope of museology to be the centre of any digital strategy (Gumà & Pérez, 2022). This development of a virtual space containing a museum's contents responds to a process of reformulation with the intention of adapting to the new conditions and challenges faced by museums at the beginning of the 21st century. This space should give room to social commitment, the centrality of education and the renovation of digital strategy. It must also pay attention to uncomfortable heritage and the generation of new narratives in which concepts and ideas substitute chronology as the guiding principle. Being at the service of civic society implies a certain degree of responsibility when selecting and narrating history and making room for previously ignored issues such as conflictive heritage, the construction of memory and the encouragement of dialogue and reconciliation.

As part of the digital transformation process being undertaken by the Museum of Pontevedra, new ways are being explored to create contents which function as resources for the learning of history, art and the social sciences. These contents do not only allow for exploration and research beyond the physical limits of the museum but also the development of digital and civic skills and the interactivity of the user in order to acquire an active role in the learning process. New digital narratives are created by way of guided and interactive routes developed in collaboration with the company Madpixel via its platform Second Canvas (Arredondo et al., 2022). This is an application which enables the virtual visitor to explore the museum's collections in extremely high resolution. Specifically, it is possible to explore the two routes which address heritage in conflict; that dedicated to Castelao and that which gives an overview of the artists in the collection who were victims of the regime and were forced into exile during the war. Both itineraries are transposed in the physical space and, although each of them maintain their singularity, they can operate simultaneously. The digital contents can be used in the museum or via the Internet (Arredondo et al., 2022), assuming the concept of hybrid museum in which the virtual and physical spheres are interrelated.

The virtual itinerary "Castelao, an artist and a key figure in the history of Galicia"[8] examines in depth the style and philosophy of his personality as an illustrator, painter, writer and politician. There is broad consensus in Galicia regarding his importance as a leading character in the history and art of 20th-century Galicia and for the Museum of Pontevedra there is the significant

8 https://museo.depo.gal/en/visita-virtual/castelao-artista-personaje-clave-galicia-en

symbolic capital of the fact that he was one of its founding patrons. The repression which took place during the Civil War is narrated via the virtual itinerary entitled "Times of anguish, terror and exile", which assembles the work of Galician artists who suffered harsh repression during the Civil War and were forced into exile far from their homeland[9]. The works of art assembled in the new section create a context in which the work of Castelao can also be exhibited, facilitating open readings of the war and military conflict which incorporate philosophical reflection and historical rigour and include political, sociological and anthropological perspectives. The Galician and Spanish exiles are essential in explaining the military coup, the war and subsequent dictatorship, the Second World War and the Cold War. These re-readings are addressed in both general terms and via microhistories such as those of the refugee camps painted by the artist Uxío Souto and the Pavilion of the Republic in the International Exposition in Paris in 1937, where the painting "Bombardeo" (1937) by Arturo Souto was exhibited.

This digital narrative is completed by the creation of new multimedia educational materials[10], which have been designed to attend the growing demand from schools for contents to study the Spanish Civil War. The museum has committed itself to contributing towards making these digital resources more accessible due to the fact that the incorporation of digital technologies in formal education is still limited and access to such resources is restricted.

Conclusion

The line of work on history and memory being carried out by the Museum of Pontevedra is one of the strategies being employed to increase the visibility and recovery of the teaching of the Spanish Civil War via the figure of Castelao. Although it could be linked to the turn toward memory (Huyssen, 2003) deriving from the memory boom which took place internationally in the final decades of the 20th century, this proposal is the product of the particular circumstances of Spain, where an interest in historical memory emerged at the end of the 1990s (Cuesta, 2011) as a state commitment aiming to correct the silence which had prevailed since the end of the Franco dictatorship. The social debate which arose from that time onwards led to the passing of the Historical Memory Law in 2007, which has now been replaced by the Democratic Memory Law of 2022. The former

9 https://museo.depo.gal/en/visita-virtual/tiempos-de-angustia-terror-y-exilio-en
10 https://museo.depo.gal/en/coleccion/multimedia and https://museo.depo.gal/en/educacion/comunidade-educativa

law led to a surge in heritage activations from some public administrations. Both legislation concerning memory and that regulating state and regional education fulfil the basic principles formulated by international organisms on issues of historical memory: truth, justice, reparation and duty of memory. Museums offer resources to formal education to complement the information available in textbooks about the war, Francoist repression and the fight against the regime. The museological narrative provides an interpretative framework on the Franco dictatorship which relates it with Fascist trends in Europe and the Second World War. The aim is to contribute towards the formation of critical students, helping them to learn about the past with an ethical orientation based on human rights.

The fact that the Museum of Pontevedra has Castelao's artistic legacy at its disposal, along with paintings and sculptures of artists of the same generation who were victims of the war and the subsequent dictatorship, confers upon it the responsibility of articulating narratives which can be formalised both physically (in the permanent exhibition rooms) and virtually (on the museum's website). Although some of these artists' works of art were displayed during the Franco dictatorship, the discursive power of a work of art or cultural object does not merely come from the fact of it being exhibited, but also from its activation by way of its dialogue with other works of art. Such narrative competences find an extremely favourable space for development in the digital environment. In this way, museums can contribute to the work of heritage education and memory research via historical evidence, taking works of art and documents to be cultural objects which help to generate alternative narratives. They can also generate different experiences which, in addition to being useful to consolidate a socially committed community, may be relevant for use in the field of education by facilitating readings which can overcome the narrative which prevailed in this field until relatively recently.

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Part II. Proposals, activities, and strategies for teaching history through *HistoryLab* e-toolkit

Arthur Chapman

Chapter 5. Historical interpretation: Deconstructing represented pasts

Abstract: This chapter explores "historical interpretation", a curriculum concept at the centre of historical reasoning and history education, although one that is often neglected. The nature of historical interpretation is clarified, and key aspects of the concept are explained and illustrated. The challenges that learning about interpretation can present for students are identified and explored and four activity types, designed to help students of various ages to develop their understanding of the concept are explained.

Keywords: Historical interpretation, historical thinking, history education

Introduction and theoretical frame

What are historical interpretations

The past is gone and only traces remain – **relics** (e.g., a "special trains" timetable)[1] and **reports** (e.g., combat in the air reports filed by pilots after operations).[2] **Histories** are attempts to make sense of the vanished past at a later time, once the events, states of affairs, developments, people, contexts and / or institutions that histories try to make sense of have passed. Histories work with traces to generate **accounts** of these vanished pasts.[3] Historical interpretation is the process of

1 See, for example, Claude Lanzmann's reading of 'special train' schedule Fahrplanordnung 587 in, *Shoah: The Complete Text of the Acclaimed Holocaust Film* (Boston, MA, 1995), 129–131.

2 See, for example, the report filed by James McCudden on the 26th February 1918 reproduced in Nigel Steel and Peter Hart, *Tumult in the Clouds: The British Experience of the War in the Air, 1914–1918* (London, 1997), Plate 19.

3 The opening sections of this chapter draw heavily on Arthur Chapman, 'Historical Interpretations', *The Camel's Back*, 2022 <https://thecamelsback.org/interpretations/> [accessed 19 December 2022] and Arthur Chapman, 'Historical Interpretations', in *Debates in History Teaching*, ed. by I. Davies, 2nd edn (London & New York, 2017), 100–112.

constructing such representations of the absent past and these representations, once constructed, become interpretations.[4]

There are numerous contrasting interpretations of the past, varying in anyone or all of a range of ways, including in:

- the relations to the past they assume and enact;
- the purposes that drive their constrution;
- the traditions of history-making they work within;
- the questions that they set out to answer;
- the archives and traces that they identify as relevant;
- the methods that they use to make sense of the past's traces;
- the medium and the genres in which they are constructed;
- the audiences to whom they are addressed and by whom they are decoded and consumed;
- the compositional decisions that authors make when organising, presenting and articulating their represention of the past;
- the moments in time in which they research and accounts are written; and
- their author's / authors' particular contexts and characteristics.

As this – by no means exhaustive – list makes plain, histories emerge from and are shaped by the contexts in which they arise. They must, therefore, be contextualised and historicised to be understood. In an important sense, then, learning about history making is an exercise in temporal layering – in learning, in our present, about how past interpreters have made sense, in their times, of times that came before both their past presents and our present "nows".[5] The list also shows, however, contextualising history making – noting how it is shaped by its context – can only go so far. It is insufficient, and ultimately misleading, to model history-makers as simply acted upon and shaped: histories have authors (individuals, working alone or cooperatively in communities and traditions of

4 'Interpretations' and 'accounts' are synonymous in English history education discourse, where the former is most commonly used. Peter Lee's work on 'accounts' is the key research reference for English work in this area – for example, ' "A Lot of Guess Work Goes on": Children's Understanding of Historical Accounts', *Teaching History*, 92 (1998), 29–35 and 'History in an Information Culture', *History Education Research Journal*, 1/2 (2001), 26–43, and Peter Lee and Denis Shemilt, ' "I Just Wish We Could Go Back in the Past and Find out What Really Happened": Progression in Understanding about Historical Accounts', *Teaching History*, 117 (2004), 25–31.

5 Jane Card, 'Seeing Double: How One Period Visualizes Another', *Teaching History*, 117 (2004), 6–11.

practice) and these authors actively make many decisions as they make histories. Decisions about what to research and write about, about which questions to ask about this "what" and about "why" these questions are worth asking, decisions about how to go about answering their questions, and so on. Learning about history makers and history making, then, means coming to understand something about these decisions.

Because histories are shaped in contexts and traditions and because there are many decisions to be made when making histories, many varieties of history arise. Varieties of history include – for example – the numerous genres of academic historical writing working in the historicist tradition that we can trace back to historians like Leopold von Ranke in the early nineteenth century.[6] Histories also include oral traditions of storytelling about the pasts, forms of public historical representation through enactment, pictorial representations of pasts, the pasts depicted or evoked through public monumental architecture, theme parks, feature films, and so on.[7] Modern academic historical writing has been dominated by Western historical traditions – a reflection of the hegemony

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6 Something of the variety of practice within academic history can be gauged from Works such as the following: John Burrow, *A History of Histories: Epics, Chronicles, Romances and Inquiries from Herodotus and Thucydides to the Twentieth Century* (London, 2007); Helen Carr and Suzannah Lipscomb, *What Is History, Now? How the Past and Present Speak to Each Other* (London, 2021); David Cannadine, *What Is History Now?* (Houndmills, 2002); Peter Burke, ed., *New Perspectives on Historical Writing* (Cambridge, 2001); Marek Tamm and Peter Burke, eds., *Debating New Approaches to History* (London); Zoltan Boldizsar Simon and Lars Deile, *Historical Understanding: Past, Present and Future* (London, New York, Oxford, New Delhi and Sydney, 2022). Historicism is explored in Frederick C. Beiser, *The German Historicist Tradition* (Oxford, 2011).

7 Anne Marie Kavanagh and Caitriona Ni Cassaithe, 'Unsilencing the Histories of Ireland's Indigenous Minority – Public History Weekly – The Open Peer Review Journal', *Public History Weekly*, 10/2 (2022) <https://public-history-weekly.degruyter.com/10-2022-2/unsilencing-indigenous-ireland/> [accessed 19 December 2022]; Robert Parkes, 'Are Monuments History? – Public History Weekly – The Open Peer Review Journal', *Public History Weekly*, 5/34 (2017) <https://public-history-weekly.degruyter.com/5-2017-34/are-monuments-history/> [accessed 19 December 2022]; Chris O'Connell, 'Indigenous Voices, Climate Change, and Modern Slavery – Public History Weekly – The Open Peer Review Journal', *Public History Weekly*, 10/2 (2022) <https://public-history-weekly.degruyter.com/10-2022-2/climate-crisis-indigenous-voices/> [accessed 19 December 2022]; Paul Readman and Mark Freeman, 'Historical Pageants and Public History – Public History Weekly – The Open Peer Review Journal', *Public History Weekly*, 10/2 (2022) <https://public-history-weekly.degruyter.com/10-2022-2/historical-pageants/> [accessed

of Europe and American in the 19th and 20th centuries.[8] Nevertheless, it is not defined entirely by its origin and there are traditions of historical writing that have worked within academic history to challenge Eurocentric understandings, for example, the work of the Subaltern Studies Collective.[9]

Varieties of historical interpretation exist for a more radical reason, however. Histories aim to help orient in time, to make individuals and communities make sense of finitude, time and change.[10] Academic historical enquiry is simply one of a wide variety of past-referencing social practices and traditions developed to serve these fundamental human needs in contemporary societies, and academic historical representations typically foreground one of a number of possible relations to the past that histories can express – what Paul, following Day, has called the "epistemic" relation to the past, in contrast to "material", "aesthetic", "political", and moral relations, and what Barton and Levstik have called the "analytic stance" to the past, in contrast to others such as the "identification stance".[11]

Why does learning about historical interpretations matter in history education?

How and whether school history should relate to varieties of history is an open question in many contexts and this is so in two senses. First, in some contexts, such as the US, there is, Seixas has argued, a tendency for school history to be much more concerned, when it focuses on historical thinking,[12] with questions

19 December 2022]; Marnie Hughes-Warrington, *History Goes to the Movies: Studying History on Film*. (London, 2007).

8 Jörn Rüsen, ed., *Western Historical Thinking: An Intercultural Debate* (New York and Oxford, 2000).

9 Vinayak Chaturvedi, *Mapping Subaltern Studies and the Postcolonial / Edited and Introduced by Vinayak Chaturvedi.*, Mapping (London, 2000).

10 Jörn Rüsen, *Evidence and Meaning: A Theory of Historical Studies* (New York and Oxford, 2017).

11 Herman Paul, *Key Issues in Historical Theory* (Abingdon, 2015); Keith C. Barton and Linda S. Levstik, *Teaching History for the Common Good* (Mahwah, NJ, 2004).

12 Historical Thinking Concepts – for example, historical evidence, causation and significance – are referred to in variable ways in different contexts. In England, for example, they are widely referred to as 'second-order concepts' and in The Netherlands as 'metaconcepts.' An influential Canadian tradition can be accessed in Peter Seixas and Tom Morton, *The Big Six Historical Thinking Concepts* (Toronto, 2013). Research in the English tradition can be accessed in Peter Lee, 'Putting Principles into Practice: Understanding History', in *How Students Learn: History in*

of "evidence" than with questions of "interpretation" or "accounts".[13] In other contexts, such, arguably, as England in the last decade, it has become common to focus more on academic historical representation than on other modes of representing and constructing the past.[14]

The curriulum construct "interpretations" – developed in England from the early 1990s – and related concepts developed in German-speaking, Nordic and Dutch traditions of history education, such as historical "deconstruction",[15] "uses of history"[16] and "historical

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the Classroom, ed. by M.S. & Bransford Donovan J.D. (Washington, DC, 2005), 31–77. Dutch work is exemplified in Carla van Boxtel and Jannet van Drie, 'Historical Reasoning: Conceptualizations and Educational Applications', in *The Wiley International Handbook of History Teaching and Learning*, ed. by Scott Alan Metzger and Lauren McArthur Harris (Hoboken, NJ, 2018), 149–176.

13 Peter Seixas, 'Translation and Its Discontents: Key Concepts in English and German History Education', *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 48/4 (2016), 427–439.

14 English work that foregrounds academic history is exemplified by Rachel Foster, 'Using Academic History in the Classroom', in *Debates in History Teaching*, ed. by I. Davies, 2nd edn (London & New York, 2010), 199–211, and Richard Harris, Katharine Burn and Mary Woolley, eds., *The Guided Reader to Teaching and Learning History* (London, 2013), 29–34. Much of my work has focused on academic history – for example, Arthur Chapman, '"They Have Come to Differing Opinions Because of Their Differing Interpretations' : Developing 16–19 Year-Old English Students" Understandings of Historical Interpretation through on-Line Inter-Institutional Discussion', *International Journal of Historical Learning Teaching and Research*, 11/1 (2012), 188–214. I coment on changing trends in England in 'Narrowing Interpretations', *Public History Weekly*, 8/7 (2020) <https://public-history-weekly.degruyter.com/8-2020-7/historical-interpretations/> [accessed 13 July 2020].

15 I borrow the de/construction formulation from German history didactics traditions explored, for example, in Arthur Chapman and Christoph Kühberger, '"De-Construction of Histories" or "Understanding Historical Interpretations" – A Comparison of German-Speaking and English Approaches to Learning about Historical Representations' (presented at the Historical Consciousness, Historical Thinking, Historical Culture: Core concepts of history didactics and historial education in intercultural perspectives, Online, the University of Graz, 2020); and in Andreas Körber, 'Historical Consciousness, Historical Competencies – and beyond? Some Conceptual Development within German History Didactics', 2015 <https://www.pedocs.de/volltexte/2015/10811/pdf/Koerber_2015_Development_German_History_Didactics.pdf>.

16 Kenneth Nordgren, 'How to Do Things With History: Use of History as a Link Between Historical Consciousness and Historical Culture', *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 44/4 (2016), 479–504.

culture"[17] – open-up the possibility of exploring multiple genres of representing and constructing the past in history lessons. Whereas conventional school history has tended to focus either on the transmission of narrative about the past, or, where a focus on historical thinking is adopted, on the construction of historical narratives, a focus on interpretations turns the focus to the *de*-construction of historical narratives and representations. Where construction focuses on helping children create historical narratives and representations – for example, by working with sources of historical evidence to construct claims about the past – deconstruction focuses on asking children to explore historial narratives and representations that already exist, and on asking them to consider how and why these narratives and representations have been made and what they have been used for.

Given that narrative consumption or narrative construction have typically had more emphasis, in school history education, than the deconstruction of historical representations, it is worth asking why a focus on deconstruction has value and on what is likely to be missed in children's history education if we do not focus on this. At least two powerful arguments can be advanced, the first is a disciplinary and the second is a wider educational argument.

Understanding historical interpretations is fundamental to understanding all other historical thinking concepts and hence of the discipline of history. Arguments about causation, about significance, about change, and so on, sustain themselves by advancing evidence in support of the claims that they make; however, they share a prior and more important common feature – they are all attempts to say something about an absent past by modelling and representing it in the present in which they are composed. Furthermore – and as the word "composed" implies – such interpretations of the past have authors who, like all authors of all texts anywhere – actively make decisions as they craft the texts they compose, and these decisions are both epistemic (the choice of question/s to ask, of archives to interrogate, of methods to adopt, and so on)[18] and compositional (choices of central narrative pro- and antagonist/s, choices about focalization, choices of themes to foreground, and so on).[19] Deconstructive

17 Maria Grever and Robbert-Jan Adriaansen, 'Historical Culture: A Concept Revisited', in *Palgrave Handbook of Research in Historical Culture and Education*, ed. by Mario Carretero, Stefan Berger, and Maria Grever (London, 2017), 73–90.

18 A. Megill, *Historical Knowledge / Historical Error: A Contemporary Guide to Practice* (Chicago, 2007).

19 Mieke Bal, *Narratology: Introduction to the Theory of Narrative* (Toronto, Buffalo and London, 1994).

thinking about interpretation, then, is foundational for good progress to be made in understanding core aspects of more conventional historical teaching and learning – students can only truly come to understand why, for example, accounts of the causes of past events differ, when they come to understand that they are accounts, and, as such, are inherently plural, being relative to the contexts of their production, the methodological decisions made by their authors, and so on.

A broader argument for taking a deconstructive approach when designing historical learning might focus on the importance of children coming to understanding how history is used and abused in the world around them. Representations of the past are ubiquitous in our students' presents – in school history textbooks, in public monumental architecture, in film and television, in computer games, and so on. Many of these representations involve scholarship – Ubisoft, for example, draw extensively on the work of historians when constructing virtual representations of past worlds[20] – and, thus share some formal features with academic historical practice. Many do not, however, and express and help constitute relations to the past other than the analytical relations prized in the discipline of history.[21] Public representations of the past are consequential – they foreground and highlight and they can also background and obscure – as recent debates about statues and other forms of public

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20 Press Office University of Winchester, 'University of Winchester Expertise Helps Lend Authenticity to Latest Instalment of Successful Assassin's Creed Video Game', *University of Winchester*, 2020 <https://www.winchester.ac.uk/news-and-events/press-centre/media-articles/university-of-winchester-expertise-helps-lend-authenticity-to-latest-instalment-of-successful-assassins-creed-video-game.php> [accessed 18 December 2022]; Andrew Reinhard, 'Consulting for Ubisoft on Assassin's Creed: Odyssey', *Archaeogaming*, 2019 <https://archaeogaming.com/2019/04/19/consulting-for-ubisoft-on-assassins-creed-odyssey/> [accessed 18 December 2022]; Mikel Reparaz, 'Assassin's Creed Origins - Discovery Tour Q&A with Historian Maxime Durand', *Ubisoft*, 2018 <https://news.ubisoft.com/en-us/article/46PlC3yAeikjDI652TayLm/assassins-creed-origins-discovery-tour-qa-with-historian-maxime-durand> [accessed 18 December 2022]. I owe my appreciation of this point to comments made by Ben Walsh at an Historical Association training day in Penrith in 2008.

21 Paul, *Key Issues in Historical Theory*; Mark Andrew Day, 'Our Relations with the Past', *Philosophia*, 36/4 (2008), 417–427; Arthur Chapman, ' "Orientation to the Past": Some Reflections on Historical Consciousness Research in England', in *Contemplating Historical Consciousness: Notes from the Field*, ed. by Anna Clark and Carla Peck (New York and Oxford, 2018), 32–45.

monumental architecture and their role in silencing difficult pasts have shown.[22] They are also potentially influential in impacting children's understandings of past and present, as has been argued, theoretically, in relation to children's historical consciousness,[23] and, empirically, in relation to children's sense of connectedness with past actors and awareness of differences in perspective.[24] The fact that historical interpretations and representations can play significant roles in shaping young peoples' perceptions of the world, and the fact that histories are often deliberately constructed to shape and reshape perceptions, are, perhaps, among the most compelling arguments for focusing on historical interpretation in history classes.[25] If past-referencing narratives are ubiquitous and potentially contentious, then narrative competence – or the ability to perceive and to deconstruct these representations – is, arguably, be central part of general democratic education.[26]

Research on students' understandings of historical interpretations

Relatively little is known about children's thinking about historical interpretation, compared to what is known about other aspects of their thinking in history. There has been extensive work for many decades on how children think about historical evidence – for example, Shemilt's 1980 *Evaluation Study* of the Schools History Project in England, or more recently, work in the US on using historical

22 Alex von Tunzelmann, *Fallen Idols: Twelve Statues That Made History* (London, 2021); Michel-Rolph Trouillot, *Silencing the Past: Power and the Production of History* (Boston, MA, 2015).

23 Wulf Kansteiner, 'Alternate Worlds and Invented Communities: History and Historical Consciousness in the Age of Interactive Media', in *Manifestos for History / Edited and Introduced by Keith Jenkins, Sue Morgan and Alun Munslow.*, ed. by Sue Morgan, Keith Jenkins, and Alun Munslow (London, 2007), 131–148.

24 Lisa Gilbert, ' "Assassin's Creed Reminds Us That History Is Human Experience": Students' Senses of Empathy While Playing a Narrative Video Game', *Theory & Research in Social Education*, 47/1 (2019), 108–137.

25 Arthur Chapman and Stéphane G. Lévesque, 'Ukraine Invasion: How History Can Empower People to Make Sense of Russia's War', *The Conversation* <http://theconversation.com/ukraine-invasion-how-history-can-empower-people-to-make-sense-of-russias-war-181999> [accessed 10 May 2022].

26 A recent groundbreaking study of narrative competence in history is Stéphane Lévesque and Jean-Philippe Croteau, *Beyond History for Historical Consciousness: Students, Narrative, and Memory* (Toronto, 2020).

sources to read and think like an historian.[27] There has been very little equivalent work on how children understand what histories are, and how children understand (or fail to understand) how historical accounts differ in kind from the traces of the past from which they are constructed.[28] Ground-breaking work on these issues was conducted as part the research project Concepts of History and Teaching Approaches (CHATA) in the University of London in the 1990s and in linked doctoral studies in the decades that followed.[29] My own doctoral

27 Sam Wineburg, *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatral Acts: Charting the Future of Teaching the Past* (Philadelphia, 2001); Avishag Reisman, 'Reading Like a Historian: A Document-Based History Curriculum Intervention in Urban High Schools', *Cognition and Instruction*, 30/1 (2012), 86–112; D. Shemilt, *History 13–16 Evaluation Study* (Edinburgh, 1980).

28 Two recent papers on historical interpretation from a North American perspective are Agnieszka Aya Marczyk, Lightning Jay and Abby Reisman, 'Entering the Historiographic Problem Space: Scaffolding Student Analysis and Evaluation of Historical Interpretations in Secondary Source Material', *Cognition and Instruction*, 0/0 (2022), 1–23; D. K. O'Neill and others, 'Development and Validation of a Practical Classroom Assessment of Students' Conceptions about Differing Historical Accounts', *Historical Encounters*, 9/1 (2022), 56–75.

29 CHATA studies are reported in, for example, the studies cited in footnote 4 above. CHATA-related doctoral studies are reported, for example, in Marilia Gago, 'Children's Understanding of Historical Narrative in Portugal', in Ymei Hsiao, 'Taiwanese Students' Understanding of Differences in History Textbook Accounts', both in *Understanding History: Recent Research in History Education*, ed. by Ros Ashby, Peter Gordon, and Peter Lee, I*nternational Review of History Education*, 4 (London and New York, 2005); Isabel Barca, 'Prospective Teachers' Ideas about Assessing Different Accounts', *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research*, 1/2 (2001) < https://www.history.org.uk/secondary/resource/4852/the-international-journal-volume-1-number-2 > [accessed 19 December 2022]; Suhaimi Afandi, 'Conceptions about the Nature of Accounts in History: An Exploratory Study of Students' Ideas and Teachers' Assumptions about Students' Understandings in Singapore.' (Unpublished PhD thesis, University of London Institute of Education., 2012); Arthur Chapman, 'Towards an Interpretations Heuristic: A Case Study Exploration of 16–19 Year Old Students' Ideas about Explaining Variations in Historical Accounts' (unpublished EdD Thesis, Institute of Education, University of London, 2009) <https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/10019912/>. A more recent study in this tradition is reported in Arthur Chapman and Maria Georgiou, 'Powerful Knowledge Building and Conceptual Change Research: Learning from Research on "Historical Accounts" in England and Cyprus', in *Knowing History in Schools: Powerful Knowledge and the Powers of Knowledge*, ed. by Arthur Chapman (London, 2021), 72–96 <https://www.uclpress.co.uk/products/130698>.

and subsequent research has focused on interpretations, largely in the context of academic history.[30]

A key finding supported in much of the research on accounts can be summarised in the idea that many students, who are able to articulate reasonably coherent understandings, treat knowledge construction in history (a discipline with an absent object – the past) as if it were knowledge construction in everyday life (where claims can be verified by observation), and that these students often understand historical knowledge in naïve realist terms.[31] Historical accounts, on this account, should operate like mirrors of a fixed past, reflecting back essentially the same picture. On this understanding of how history works, divergence in accounts becomes problematic, and reflects either gaps in transmission of information from the past (an incomplete record), errors on the part of historians in retrieving information from traces of the past, or distortions introduced, either deliberately or unwittingly, by those who construct accounts. There are exceptions to this understanding, some students seeing, for example, that accounts cannot be mirrors and are more like theories constructed in response to questions, and that historians are active in constructing their narratives and descriptions of the past which reflect their choices. However, for many students, ideal history makers are passive and understood as reflecting the past rather than constructing histories in an active manner.

Activities to help students learn to deconstruct historical interpretations

The preceding discussion has outlined: first, the central role of decision-making and the range of types of decision that are involved in history-making (epistemic decision-making, narrative decision-making, and so on); and second, the

30 Chapman, '"They Have Come to Differing Opinions Because of Their Differing Interpretations' : Developing 16–19 Year-Old English Students" Understandings of Historical Interpretation through on-Line Inter-Institutional Discussion', 188–214; Chapman, 'Historical Interpretations', 100–112; Chapman and Goldsmith, '"Dialogue between the Source and the Historian's View Occurs": Mapping Change in Student Thinking about Historical Accounts in Expert and Peer Online Discussion', 183–2010.

31 Arthur Chapman, 'Understanding Historical Knowing : Evidence and Accounts.', in *The Future of the Past*, ed. by Lukas Perikleous and Denis Shemilt (Nicosia, 2011), 169–214 <https://issuu.com/ahdr/docs/low_ahdr_volume_a5_en>; Arthur Chapman, 'Twist and Shout? Developing Sixth Form Students' Thinking about Historical Interpretation', *Teaching History*, 142 (2011), 24–33.

finding that children's default assumptions about what histories are and about how they are made can limit their ability to make sense of variation in historical interpretation. It seems both reasonable and prudent, therefore, to suggest that curriculum planning and instructional design in school history should focus, first, on conveying understandings about the kinds of activity that needs must arise when making history, and, second, on the ways in which these decisions might vary in different types of history making.

The remainder of this chapter will focus, therefore, on suggestions for types of activity that might contribute to developing these understandings. The presentation is by no means exhaustive – four aspects of historical interpretation are discussed. The examples given draw on existing literature and are widely adaptable to different types of curriculum content.

Activitiy 1: Questioning and types of history

Histories are shaped profoundly by the kinds of enquiry that they arise from, and this is true in at least two senses:

1. Historical interpretations are shaped by the questions that they ask – an historical investigation that asks why and something happened in the past (e.g., "Why did an industrial revolution begin in Britain in the 18th century?") will proceed very differently from an investigation that asks why an historical event or process had the character that it had (e.g., "Why was the industrial revolution so socially disruptive?");
2. Historical interpretations are shaped by the types of representation they express – an analytical exploration of questions in political history (e.g., "When did Gorbachev's position as General Secretary of the Communist Party become untenable?") differs profoundly from an exploration of the public historical and political question "How should a public figure be commemorated?".

How can the roles of questions and of types of historical representation be made accessible to children? One approach with upper secondary (16–18-year-old) students might be to focus on easily accessible aspects of history books – such as their titles and front covers, their tables of contents and the summaries of their contents that publishers provide on the backs of books. Students could be asked to compare these features of books and to comment on how they appear to differ. They could also be asked to speculate about the contents – about what they would expect a book with one title to contain. Their suggestions could then be tested against the books' tables of contents or publishers' summaries. They might

also be asked to consider what different historians might have to do differently, in their research, to answer questions of different types. Students might also be asked to match titles or images of front covers to different publishers' summaries.

To exemplify, with books about the French Revolution. The following are the titles of a selection of books on the revolution:

- *Citizens: A chronicle of the French Revolution*;
- *The Women of the French Revolution*;
- *The Crowd in the French Revolution*;
- *Choosing Terror: Virtue, Friendship, and Authenticity in the French Revolution*;
- *The Coming of the French Revolution*.[32]

As these titles suggest – and as students might be helped to come to see, with a mixture of questioning and instruction, these titles present distinct enquiries into the past and would require different kinds of research and, perhaps, different kinds of writing. The titles also open-up different types of history. Schama's title, for example, implies a narrative history of the events of the revolution from the perspective of those who lived through it – something that one would not expect from Lefebvre's title which implies, perhaps, a long-term account of the origins of the revolution. The titles of Rudé's and Linton's titles point to different types of history –"history from below" and "history from above" respectively – and both differ from Kelly's book, a work of women's history.

The following book publicity summary, for example – from Linton's book – could be used as suggested above, to help verify or test students' hypotheses about the book, based on its title, and to open-up discussion of the kinds of research you would need to do and the kinds of sources you would need to seek out, and the ways in which you might have to analyze your sources if you were undertaking the research implied by the title summarized here.

> *Choosing Terror: Virtue, Friendship and Authenticity in the French Revolution* examines the leaders of the French Revolution – Robespierre and his fellow Jacobins – and particularly the gradual process whereby many of them came to 'choose terror'. These men led the Jacobin Club between 1789 and 1794, and were attempting to establish new democratic politics in France. Exploring revolutionary politics through the eyes of these leaders, and against a political backdrop of a series of traumatic events, wars,

32 Simon Schama, *Citizens: A Chronicle of the French Revolution* (New York, 1989); Linda Kelly, *The Women of the French Revolution* (London, 1989); George F. E. Rudé, *The Crowd in the French Revolution* (London, 1981); Marisa Linton, *Choosing Terror: Virtue, Friendship, and Authenticity in the French Revolution* (Oxford, 2015); Georges Lefebvre, *The Coming of The French Revolution* (Princeton, NJ, 1947).

> and betrayals, Marisa Linton portrays the Jacobins as complex human beings who were influenced by emotions and personal loyalties, as well as by their revolutionary ideology.[33]

A scheme of learning exploring the question of types of history and types of historical representation, in a way that makes these issues accesible or upper primary (10–11-year-olds) is reported by Brown and Wrenn.[34] The scheme of learning explores differences between how academic historians and Hollywood film-makers might approach and represent the past by comparing two representations – Oliver Stone's feature film *Alexander* and text written in the style of academic history but presented in a form accesible for the age group. The comparison is framed around the following enquiry question that is used to structure a sequence of lessons:

- Why do filmmakers and historians say different things about Alexander the Great?

Several strategies are developed through the sequence to help make relevant concepts – for example, purpose – accessible to students, including teacher role-play of both the film director and the historian, and analysis of texts and artefacts to bring out differences in genre and composition, for example, an analysis of the film's trailer in terms of sound, images and narration. The sequence also encouraged students actively to explore text creation themselves, for example, by designing a DVD cover and by composing a newspaper article reporting a press conference that teachers had role-played to dramatize disagreements between the filmmaker and the historian.

Activity 2: Methodologies of investigation

Research methodology is a vital area of all historical representation – even for those genres that might not seem, prima facie, to require research. Whether you

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33 Oxford University Press, 'Publicity Summary for Choosing Terror: Virtue, Friendship, and Authenticity in the French Revolution', 2015 <https://www.amazon.co.uk/Choosing-Terror-Friendship-Authenticity-Revolution-ebook/dp/B011R34ON2/ref=sr_1_1?crid=2YEUQ222FC1KH&keywords=Choosing+Terror%3A+Virtue%2C+Friendship%2C+and+Authenticity+in+the+French+Revolution&qid=1671488583&sprefix=choosing+terror+virtue+friendship+and+authenticity+in+the+french+revolution%2Caps%2C146&sr=8-1>.

34 Geraint Brown and Andrew Wrenn, '"It's like They've Gone up a Year!" Gauging the Impact of a History Transition Unit on Teachers of Primary and Secondary History', *Teaching History*, 121 (2005), 5–13.

see yourself as a “researcher” or not, you still need a strategy to gather knowledge about the past if you are going to represent it in the present – be that through a monument, a design for a commemorative stamp, the mise-en-scène for a film, or a monograph.

Hammond’s report of a strategy that she developed to help lower secondary (13–14-year-old) students engage with sophisticated questions of theory and method that can serve, perhaps, as a model.[35] Hammond’s topic is the living conditions and experiences of enslaved people in the North American plantation system in the nineteenth century. Hammond explored contrasting methodologies for constructing knowledge of this challenging topic with students – cliometric quantitative history and micro-history.[36]

The key to the success of the strategy seems likely to have been the dramatic contrasts in the two modes of analysis – one working by counting, and at scale, and resulting in graphical representations showing variations in life expectancy, diet, housing, and so on, and the other working narrowly, but in depth, allowing the experience of enslavement, exploitation and resistance to be foregrounded. With skilful teaching, such contrasts can be used to open-up comparative questions about representation. What do we see, and what do we miss, one can ask students, if we focus on this topic using this approach to research? One can imagine sequencing learning about methodology so that a range of contrasting approaches are examined over time to explore different issues, and so that students are asked constantly to consider advantages and opportunity-costs. These issues can be linked back to questioning also – there are questions that one can simply not answer by looking at one case study, for example, and there are questions that only quantitative analysis can answer.

Activity 3: Conceptualisation and theoretical frameworks

Methodology seems quite abstract, but, as we have seen, clear contrasts of approach in the context of a particular problem can help make these issues concrete and accessible. The following is an approach that I developed, when teaching upper secondary students (16–18-year-olds), drawing in on example

35 Kate Hammond, ‘Teaching Year 9 about Historical Theories and Methods’, *Teaching History*, 128 (2007), 4–10.

36 Robert Fogel W. and Stanley Engerman L., *Time on the Cross: The Economics of American Slavery*, Revised ed. edition (New York, NY, 2013); Frederick Douglass, *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, an American Slave*, ed. by Deborah E. McDowell, Reissue edition (Oxford ; New York, 2009).

from epistemology.[37] The task is a simple one and one that rapidly raises questions of conceptualisation, with careful teacher questioning. It raises issues that can be rapidly transferred to history, but it starts in an everyday context for students. It also raises questions of definition that arise in any context of representation and it makes explicit what might otherwise remain implicit.

The activity begins by presenting students with a problem, in the context of a local public space familiar the students (at the time I was teaching in Truro, hence the example):

> Two research teams have been instructed to count the exact number of people in Lemon Quay, Truro at precisely 11.57am on Tuesday 15 February 2011. One team reports the number as 267.5 people and the other as 1,756. How on earth do we explain this dramatic discrepancy?[38]

In my experience, students first move, in response, is to posit errors, incompetence or dishonesty in the researchers to explain the discrepancy. These are all possible, of course, but these suggestions miss a fundamental point – in all research, one cannot apply concepts in data collection without first clearly articulating a definition. In the case, the question "Where does the square begin and end?" arises. Does it, for example, include the shops that surround it and the people in them? You cannot, of course count people without defining them – is a pregnant person one or two? Again, in my experience, students can usually be brought to articulate these insights through questioning.

The problems that arise in this case arise in many historical cases – for example, one of the earliest political photographs in British history is of a political demonstration in London in 1848 and the picture is often interpreted to explore why the movement depicted failed – competing assessments of numbers attending and of their apparent radicalism have been advanced. Such claims all depend on clarifying definitions and indicators for the concepts concerned.[39]

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37 Chapman, 'Twist and Shout? Developing Sixth Form Students' Thinking about Historical Interpretation', 24–32. I drew on the work of Kevin Harris to develop this exercise, as I explained in footnote 19 on page 32 of that article.

38 Chapman, 'Twist and Shout? Developing Sixth Form Students' Thinking about Historical Interpretation', p. 30.

39 Arthur Chapman, *Developing Students' Understanding of Historical Interpretations*, 1st edn (Oxford, 2016), 58 <https://qualifications.pearson.com/content/dam/pdf/A%20Level/History/2015/teaching-and-learning-materials/A-level-History-interpretations-guidance_full-text.pdf> [accessed 5 March 2017].

Activitiy 4: Modes of narration

Historical narration is a complex matter and there are many ways in which it could be explored – for example, in terms of narrative templates and narrative structure.[40] The potential that the issue opens up can be demonstrated at a micro and relative simple level – the level of the paragraph and in relation to the sequencing and interconnection of singular factual propositions, in the first example, and in terms of inclusion and exclusion and phrasing, in the other.

Bertolt Brecht's 1948 poem "Alles Wandelt Sich" (translated as "Everything Changes," for example, by Cicely Herbert for Poems on The Underground[41]) presents a series of propositions in two contrasting orders – the first stanza conveying a sense of irrevocable defeat and the second stanza conveying a sense of optimism. The only differences between the two stanzas are the sequence in which statements are presented and the use of connectives (such as "but") to link the statements. It has the effect, then, of dramatizing the effect of narration alone on meaning, since it is only the narration and not the content that changes. A teaching exercise that might bring this home to students could involve presenting them with the individual statements and with connectives on separate cards, prior to showing them the poem, and tasking them to find as many possible sequences as they can of the statements and to consider their effects on meaning. Students could be asked to consider what these effects reveal about the impact of narrative decision-making on meaning.

An interesting and more conventionally historical example is a short narrative about Hitler created by Lee to demonstrate the ways in which the validity of historical accounts involves more than simply the truth of their component statements.[42] The narrative is made up of true statements, but the overall narrative is highly partial and misleading – because of statements that are left out and / or because of tendentious phrasing in some statements that renders them only partial truths. Presented with a narrative like these students could, again, be asked to consider the effects of the narrator's decisions in making meaning, in this case including decisions about inclusion and exclusion and phrasing, as well as the decisions about sequencing and connection raised by the Brecht example.

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40 Lévesque and Croteau, *Beyond History for Historical Consciousness: Students, Narrative, and Memory*.

41 Cicely Herbert, 'Everything Changes', *Poems on the Underground*, 1998 <https://poemsontheunderground.org/everything-changes> [accessed 20 December 2022].

42 Lee, 'Putting Principles into Practice: Understanding History', 59.

Conclusion

This chapter has sought to indicate fruitful ways in which existing research and practice literature can perhaps help us in moving students' thinking forward through instructional design. More research is needed on students' assumptions about historical interpretations and accounts and on the effects of particular interventions and instructional designs in moving students' thinking forward. It would be particularly valuable, no doubt, for studies to track these issues longitudinally, over the course of students' careers in school, to note if and how systematic planning to address misconceptions and develop understanding could positively impact knowledge and understanding of the active decision making and the genres of representation that are at the heart of historical interpretation.

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Chapter 6. Learning about crime, rebellion and punishment: Designing meaningful inquiry tasks to promote historical reasoning

Abstract: What is seen as crime, how convicted persons are punished and why people participated in uprisings has changed over time. How to deal with crime and violence is an enduring issue and societies have addressed it in different ways. This makes it a good topic for promoting historical thinking and reasoning with attention to values. Using sources about ordinary and marginalized people who were prosecuted or rebelled against the powers, students can move beyond learning about states, institutions, laws and the perspectives of the elites, and develop a deeper understanding. In this chapter, we discuss principles for developing inquiry tasks with a rich variety of sources: make historical inquiry relevant for students, promote historical reasoning, and scaffold historical reasoning. Using three examples of inquiry tasks, we address the importance of deliberately chosen questions and sources, and discuss dilemmas that may emerge when designing scaffolding for historical reasoning.

Keywords: Crime, punishment, rebellion, inquiry-based learning, historical reasoning, enduring issues

Introduction and theoretical framework

There are good reasons to teach about crime, rebellion and punishment in the history of Europe. How to deal with crime and violence against the powers is an enduring issue; it exists across time and societies have addressed it in different ways. Incorporating reflection on questions related to these issues and underlying values, can make learning about the past meaningful and help students participate in disourses about current societal issues. Furthermore, teaching about crime, rebellion and punishment can engage students in reasoning about aspects of continuity and change, causes and consequences and the significance of particular events or developments. What is seen as crime, how convicted persons are punished, and why people participated in riots, rebellions and terrorism, for example, has changed over time and can only be understood from the specific historical context. Lessons about this topic can enrich mainstream narratives about states, elites, and "great men", with experiences and perspectives

from marginalized groups and nonconformists such as rebelling peasants or people who were send to workhouses, penalty colonies, or asylums.

In this chapter, we want to show how with *meaningful inquiry tasks*, we can develop students' understanding of crime, rebellion and punishment in European history and promote *historical reasoning*. In inquiry tasks students can build their own historical interpretations or arguments by posing questions, collecting and analyzing sources, and exploring issues of change, continuity, causation and significance. We follow the definition of Voet (2017, p. 9) who stated that inquiry-based learning in history "evolves around (1) an open-ended historical question, which drives the investigation of (2) multiple information sources representing different perspectives on the topic, (3) through a process of knowledge transformation that synthesizes the information into an argumentative account." Inquiry-based learning activities can contribute to students' understanding that there is typically more than one plausible answer, and that the validity of their claims rests on their arguments and use of evidence. Furhtermore, it can enhance the development of historical thinking and reasoning skills and a deeper understanding of how people lived in the past (Van Boxtel et al., 2021).

There are plenty of sources available with this topic, including online resources that can be used in small-scale inquiries. However, just providing the opportunity for historical inquiry does not necessarily afford historical reasoning and is not necessarily meaningful for learners. In this chapter we discuss and illustrate three principles that can be used to design inquiry tasks:

(1) make historical inquiry relevant for students;
(2) promote historical reasoning;
(3) scaffold historical reasoning.

In the first part of this chapter, we discuss these principles related to the topic of crime, rebellion and punishment in European history. In the second part of the chapter we offer three examples of inquiry-based learning activities to illustrate what small-scale inquiry with online resources aimed at historical reasoning can look like. Finally, we reflect on some of the choices involved in developing inquiry tasks focused on historical thinking and reasoning, such as the choice of a more or less disciplinary question, the selection of sources and the amount of scaffolding.

Make historical inquiry relevant for students

Inquiry tasks with a large amount of source work and isolated, dry, "skills" exercises with sources can be quite boring for students. In the UK, this has been

referred to as "death by sources A to F" (Counsell, 1998, p. 3). This is probably even more the case when the emphasis is on reasoning *about* sources (in stead of reasoning *with* information from sources) and the learners lose sight of why it is relevant to explore those sources. Furthermore, questions that historians ask are not necessarily meaningful from the learner's perspective. Therefore, making historical inquiry relevant for students requires a deliberate choice of historical questions and sources. Historical inquiry can be made relevant for students when relationships with the present are established. Inquiries into enduring human issues of, for example, justice and injustice, or persistent social problems can stimulate students' interest due to the connections among past, present, and future and the opportunity to develop one's own values, opinions and ideals (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Brush & Saye, 2008; Van Straaten et al., 2016).

The history of crime and punishment includes such enduring human and societal issues. When is it permissable that the state intends to be burdensome and imprisons people (restricting freedom and privacy) or forces them to pay monetary sanctions? People who are punished by the state are guilty of crimes or believed to be guilty of crimes. But who decides what is a crime? What actions are considered morally wrong? And what punishments are justified? When are the rights of those punished violated? Those questions can't be answered with disciplinary reasoning and argumentation alone, but also call upon explicitation of values, such as justice, fairness, or equity, and ideas about the pursuit of the common good. Thus, the very combination of questions that call for historical reasoning and questions that call for ethical judgment can be powerful in making historical inquiry meaningful for students.

Teachers can make lessons about crime, uprisings and punishment also more relevant and interesting for students when they use sources providing information about concrete persons and actions. In lessons on crime and punishment, teachers will easily pay close attention to the role of states, institutions, laws and the perspectives of the elites, whereas there are many opportunities to pay attention to ordinary people and marginalized groups who were prosecuted or rebelled against the powers. Narratives and primary sources about concrete persons and actions can provide details that can help students imagine, for example, what crimes were committed, who committed crimes or used violence against the state, what particular punishments looked like, how people thought about crime and punishment, and what life was like in workhouses or penal colonies. Such details supporting historical imagination are motivating for students (de Leur et al., 2017; Lévesque, 2008). Thus, to make historical inquiry tasks relevant, it is important to use a diverse set of sources, including those that provide information about concrete persons and actions, such as diaries,

excerpts from legal records, images and videos. In our exeperience, dissertations, scholarly articles and websites of museums or heritage institutions in particular provide concrete information about those who were prosecuted or excluded in society. Usually, these accounts also point out that some sources do not provide a reliable or complete picture of the past, for example, because they include only the perspectives of those in power.

Promote historical reasoning

When investigating issues related to crime, rebellion and punishment in European history, historical reasoning can be promoted by using inquiry questions that ask students to develop conclusions about change and continuity in crime, rebellion and punishment, causes and consequences, and differences and similarities between past and present. They can investigate, for example, the shift from corporal punishment and the death penalty to imprisonment (Sheridan, 2020), and explore what factors played a role in that change. For centuries, imprisonment was only used for persons sentenced to death or arrested awaiting trial, or when the convicted couldn't pay the imposed fine. In early modern time, punishment increasingly included expulsion to, for example, penal colonies and asylumns. Banishment was seen as a more humane alternative to corporal punishments and the death sentence. The idea was, that wrongdoers should be excluded from society, whereas this punishment should simultaneously benefit society. Influenced by the Enlightenment ideas on "natural rights" of every human, reformists called for less violent punishments and the principle of proportionality (Harcourt, 2013). The historical reasoning process includes the asking and answering of historical questions, the construction of temporal and causal relationships, historical contextualization, but also argumentation based on historical evidence (Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2018). Using available historical interpretations and primary sources, students can build a case for a particular interpretation or answer. For example, the conclusion that vagrants and homeless people were and are a diverse group, think, for example, of gender, age, profession, having disabilities, and were they sleep. Or the claim that many uprisings arose from a mixture of different types of causes. Historical argumentation not only includes the formulation of a claim or conclusion, but also of reasons supported with information from (reliable) sources, such as factual evidence, specific examples or quotations. Students can, for example, use information from texts and historical images to substantiate the claim that in uprisings different groups worked together, coming from different social strata of the population. Finally, argumentation includes taking into account opposing points of view

and countering potential rebuttals (see Chapman, 2017; De La Paz, 2005; Nokes & De La Paz, 2018). For example, scholars have criticized narratives about the shift from corporal punishment to imprisonment. They argued that we have to be careful to present a narrative of progress. A focus on horrific punishments, such as burning alive, trial by water, or public executions, can give a distorted impression of past society as extremely violent (Bretschneider, 2019; Broers, 2022; Meranze, 2003). In ancient times and the middle ages, punishment also included fines, forced labor and exile, and laws were for an important part based on the principle of compensation. Furthermore, European authorities continued to use harsh punishments in the colonies. And despite the disappearance of severe corporal penalties, punishments did not necessarily became humane.

Deliberation about enduring human issues, such as which punishments are just, or asking students what they think of the measures taken against vagrants and homeless people, is not only a matter of disciplinary reasoning and argumentation; it also requires thinking about values. Rombout et al. (2022) argue that societal issues are often also moral issues, and that critical thinking and reasoning are inherently normative, because they include making moral value judgments. Moral values are ideas about how people should live together and the kind of people we want to be. To what extent is violence permissible as a means to end injustice or inequality? Should we arrest homeless people if they sleep on the streets to secure the majority's sense of security and livability, or should we help homeless people and show compassion and respect? In many situations, there are competing values and one value has to be prioritized over another (Lee et al., 2021). Also scholars in history education have called attention for the ethical dimension of historical thinking (e.g., Milligan et al., 2018; Seixas & Morton, 2013). This also requires attention to students' perspectives and reflection on the fact that crime is socially constructed and related to power structures. "Crime" is inherently linked to values and norms. It refers to action that violates the legitimate social norms of a collective social order (Haugaard, 2022).

Evaluative inquiry questions can be powerful in eliciting historical reasoning (e.g., Monte-Sano & De La Paz, 2012; Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2018), but also in promoting ethical judgment. This may look like the following. First, students are provided with a statement (a claim) about continuity and change, causes and consequences or similarities and differences, and then students are asked how far they agree and to explain their answer. Examples of claims are "vagabonds were a diverse group", "punishments were very similar in the early modern period and the 19th century", "the most important factor in the rise of the prison were the Enlightenment philosophers' ideas", and "in the twentieth century, punishment has become more humane". Students can also be asked to give their opinion about

measures taken to prevent crime, such as sending people to working houses. Do they think these were good measures? When designing inquiry tasks to promote historical thinking and reasoning, not only should the inquiry question be considered, but also a thoughtful choice of sources should be made. Historical reasoning can be supported with different types of sources. Scholars in the field of history education often make a distinction between primary and secondary sources, although this distinction is not easy to make because secondary sources can become primary sources depending on the question that is asked (Barton, 2018). Goldman et al. (2016) distinguish primary sources, secondary accounts from historians and tertiary sources. Primary sources are, for example, written documents, photographs, maps, art works, or physical artifacts, from the period being studied. Secondary sources written by historians, can be biographies, monographs, journal articles or editorials, and include footnotes in which historians assiduously document all sources referenced. Tertiary sources are compendiums or summaries, such as textbooks, Wikipedia, and documentaries, drawing from both primary and secondary sources, but illuminate little, if any, evidence. In inquiry-based learning activities these tertiary sources can be helpful to provide students with information about the context of the primary sources in an accessible way. In the activities that we developed about crime, rebellion and punishment in European history, we used all three types of sources. The tertiary sources were mostly written by ourselves, and served as background information to the primary sources. These texts are similar to texts found in history textbooks.

Scaffold historical reasoning

Inquiry tasks are only effective when students are guided (Hmelo-Silver et al., 2007). This scaffolding can take different forms. An inquiry task becomes less complex when it is broken down in manageable components, for example, subquestions in which one question is preparation for another. However, an inquiry task should not be structured too much either, because it might reduce students' sense of autonomy, while experiencing some autonomy is important for motivation, particularly for students who have the cognitive potential to reason on a high level. In addition, students can only develop higher order thinking and self-regulative skills, when they can actually engage in reasoning, orientation, planning, monitoring and evaluation activities.

Guidance can be provided by explicit instruction about second-order concepts (e.g., causation, change and continuity), reading and writing strategies, or what a good argumentation looks like (e.g., De La Paz & Wissinger, 2015; Reisman,

2012; Sendur et al., 2021; Stoel et al., 2017). The teacher can, for example, explain and illustrate that constructing a historical explanation, involves paying attention to the intentions of historical actors and the context for their actions, but also to unintended consequences and more structural factors, such as states of affairs. The teacher can discuss examples of students' written argumentation and identify criteria to evaluate the quality, or use a rubric to explain criteria and clarify what it means to write a better explanation. Modeling by the teacher is often followed by guided practice.

When students are asked to investigate a large variety of sources in order to answer a question, pre-writing organizers, such as matrices or causal maps, can support students (Chapman, 2003; Stoel et al., 2017; van Drie et al., 2005). These graphic organizers also help teachers to diagnose students' thinking and understanding, which facilitates high quality feedback. Next to graphic organizers, lists, worked-out examples, or sentence starters can be used as scaffolds to support students. Saye and Brush (2002) argued that such scaffolds are important, but do not always provide sufficient support, and that complex inquiry tasks also require spontaneous support that can only be provided by a teacher.

Inquiry-based learning activities that promote historical reasoning

We present three activities that we designed about the topic crime, rebellion and punishment in European history. All three activities take a diachronic approach and work with a rather large and diverse set of historical sources. The activities differ in the extent to which there is scaffolding of historical thinking and reasoning.

Activity vagrants in European history

This activity about vagrancy demonstrates how – using an inquiry task with sources from the Internet – students can be guided in developing their historical reasoning ability, in particular reaching conclusions about aspects of change and continuity, and using specific information from sources and ideas about what the right thing is to do to substantiate conclusions. The key questions that students are investigating is: *How did the authorities deal with vagrants and what do you think of the measures taken?*

Sources that give a face to marginalized people

In this inquiry task, students explore the experiences of a marginalized group. Throughout history, there have been people in society who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. Nowadays, we usually speak of homeless people, but for a long time, these people were referred to as vagrants. Students explore who were considered vagrant and how they were treated since the middle ages, and compare this with who is considered homeless now and how homeless persons are currently treated. Students are provided with images of vagrants (men, women, children, elderly, persons with disabilities), texts and videos that give information about vagrancy/homelessness in early modern and modern Europe. They use images of vagrants and homeless people, workhouses and penal colonies; stories about persons convicted of vagrancy; a video about Dutch penal colonies, statistics about homelessness, and interviews with homeless people. For this task, we deliberately sought sources that tell stories about actual individuals. We used, fore example, a section from a chapter written by historian Kamp (2020), who reports about two women arrested for vagrancy in 18th century Frankfurt (1764). One of them, Magdalena Müllerin, aged 26, was born in Berlin and according to her statements she earned a living sewing and knitting. She did not have a fixed residence, and had previously stayed in the region around Cologne. Magdalena also had an illegitimate child of a year and a half, whose father was a French soldier. Another example, are pictures of registration cards of convicted vagrants in a penal colony. In 1886 at the age of 47, Jan Geel was sent to the Colonies of Benevolence at Veenhuizen (The Netherlands). The registration card shows two pictures of Jan Geel and his fingerprints. Furthermore, the inquiry task includes a link to portraits and a video of Lee Jeffries, a British street photographer, who photographed homeless people in England and all around the world, and who explains he wants people to see the person, not the homeless person. This way, the vagrants and homeless people get a face.

Scaffolding historical argumentation

In this inquiry task, students learn how to write an historical argument about processes of change and continuity. Scaffolding is provided in the first place by breaking the task down into parts. Using information from sources from different periods, students describe for each period how vagrants/homeless people were treated or punished. They find out that prisons are a relatively recent phenomenon, and that workhouses can be considered a precursor of the "modern" prison. The next step is, that students are asked to explain – using information from the sources – that there was a process of criminalisation

and reflect on the question whether you can currently speak of a process of decriminalisation. The process of criminalisation, for example, can be illustrated with punishments such as banishment, workhouses, branding and penal colonies or the use of negative adjectives (e.g., idle, suspicious) when talking about vagrancy. The sources are chosen so that they can be used as evidence to support or contradict certain claims. Furthermore, students practice with formulating historical arguments using evidence from historical sources. Using a matrix that has to be completed as a pre-writing organizer, students are guided in the selection and use of evidence to support the given claim that vagrants were a diverse group. Subsequently, students have to provide three arguments for the claim that throughout history, there is no such thing as "the" vagrant or homeless person, but that it was a diverse group. They can use the examples they have collected in the matrix as evidence for their arguments. Arguments that they can give, are, for example, that there were both female and male vagrants, vagrants from different age, and with different professions. These arguments can be supported with evidence: facts, examples or details from the sources. For example, pictures of both female and male vagrants, or a percentage provided by a historian who found out that in early modern Germany about 35–40 % of people convicted for vagrancy were female.

Including ethical judgment

Finally, students are asked to formulate an ethical judgment using historical arguments and moral values. An important aspect of ethical judgment about the past is taking into account perspectives of historical actors in the past. Therefore, students are first asked to think about the perspective of past authorities. Why did they consider domestic or overseas penal colonies good measures to combat vagrancy? Students are asked to give their own opinion using both historical arguments and values they consider relevant. Before writing their own judgment, students identify values (using a list of values) they consider important when dealing with homeless people. Part of the values can be related to the "common good" (e.g., health, liveability, safety), while other values are related to what's considered fair, just or human (e.g., autonomy, humanity, respect, tolerance). Using an online tool, such as Mentimeter, in a whole class discussion the teacher can discuss the most common values chosen and the values that only few students chose.

The activity is closed with writing an essay in which students present their stance related to the question whether the treatment of people who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nithttime residence improved over time. This writing

assignment can be used as a formative or summative assessment. Students need to include information about how vagrants and homeless people were / are treated, how this changed over time, and also evaluate the punishments or interventions using values. Criteria that can be used to assess the quality of students' answers are: the use of evidence from the sources to support the judgment, the accuracy of the details included, the inclusion of significant changes in how vagrants were treated and a description of values used to make the ethical judgment.

Activity crime and punishment throughout European history

This activity on crime and punishment guides students in developing their historical reasoning and argumentation ability. In particular, students are encouraged to identify aspects of change and continuity, causes and consequences, and to reflect on their positionality. All with the use of historical sources. The key question that students are investigating is: *Why and how did crime and punishment change over time?*

What is seen as a crime is bound to a specific time and place. This is not only because new types of crime emerged as societies changed, but also because over time people started to think differently. In the present day, we often look back at historical examples of crime, and particularly punishment as "backward" or "barbaric". We see ourselves generally as modern and enlightened. It can be argued that this is the case, and that we have made moral progress. At the same time, it can be argued that the mechanisms behind criminalisation and punishment haven't changed much. Reflecting on these mechanisms throughout history, may provide students with the analytic tools to also look critically at contemporary crime and punishment.

Modeling and independent practice: Identifying what "caused" crime

The first assignment for students is to investigate what "caused" crime. This task is broken down into parts to scaffold students. Together with the class, the teacher constructs a scheme about the causes of the slave revolt in the Roman period, using a text about this topic. The teacher explains that there are different types of causes. Together with the students, the teacher identifies causes in the text. The teacher models how to make a causal scheme. This scheme includes the different roles that the causes played and how the causes also impacted each other. Questions, like what is the most important cause of crime or what is the direct cause, can be asked to challenge the students. After this, the teacher explains on a more general level three factors that determine what is considered a crime

in a given time period. These three factors are: (1) social conditions (e.g.,: new technology) (2) moral frameworks in society (3) who has the power and makes the laws. These factors can be used, for example, to explain why resisting slavery was considered illegal. They help students to contextualize and understand that what is considered a crime is time- and place-specific.

In the second assignment students are going to construct a causal scheme themselves. Each group focuses on another crime, for example, poaching in the early middle ages, the destruction of property in the 18th and 19th century, or fraud/defulters in the 21st century. Students are provided with texts that give background information about the context in which a crime was committed, the power dynamics, and the punishments. They make a poster that demonstrates the causes and answers the question; what made this activity a crime at this particular time? They can answer this question using the same three factors that were introduced by the teacher in the previous lesson. The students present their posters to each other and fill in an anwer sheet that gives them an overview of different crimes, their causes, and context. Students will find out that what is considered a crime changed over time, but that the mechanisms of criminalisation stayed the same. The people in power decide what is a crime, the law is often used to defend property and the status quo. Also, many causes, such as poverty, stay the same over time. While other causes, time-specific circumstances, change.

Evaluating changes in punishment over time

The last two assignments focus on the question: To what extent have we become more modern/humane punishers? These activities can promote a critical examination of present-day punishment. In the first assignment, the students explore both historical and modern examples of punishments, for example, working at the tread wheel or doing community service. When the teacher asks them to reflect on the ways of punishment, the students might conclude that punishments used to be "barbaric" and that we would never do this anymore in civilized Europe. Then, the teacher discusses factors that caused changes in punishment over time, paying attention to changing ideas about punishment and changing social circumstances and control. Together with the class, these factors are used to analyze the historical process of the abolishment of the public executions at the beginning of the 19th century in many western European countries. The sources show that changes in moral attitudes contributed to the abolishment, but mainly practical factors (social control) shaped this process. A source that is used, for example, is the engraving named "The Idle Prentice Murderded at Tyburn" (1747). This source shows the crowd in disarray and

people stealing during the execution. It becomes clear for the students that the punishments lost their effectiveness.

The closing task builds on this activity and starts with an explanation of the Enlightenment ideals and how these shaped "modern" moral perspectives on punishment. For example, it is argued that corporal punishments go against human rights. Workhouses, prisons, and penal colonies were all seen as a possibility for re-education. The teacher gives more background information on this period and changing social and political circumstances that affected changes in punishment, such as the declining power of the ancient regime, urbanization, unemployment, the decreasing influence of religion/the church, the decreasing effect of corporal punishment, the rising inequality and the rise of the bourgeoisie.

After this, the students analyze one of the examples of punishment used in the previous lesson, for example the abolishment of the death sentence, the Magdalene laundries, or the introduction of mass detention. Using the context provided by the sources they again will answer the question; The enlightenment as a pivot point? To what extent have we become more modern/humane punishers? The conclusion can be compared with the answer the students gave before. Students will be challenged to reflect on their positionality.

The analytical tools that the students have appropriated can also be used to reflect on the present. What can history teach us on present day developments regarding crime and punishment? What do the students think, for example, of increasing mass surveillance by new technologies? To what extent is it new? And what are the driving forces behind these developments?

Activity rebellions against government and authority

This activity focuses on rebellions against authority in the period 1400 to 1800. Key questions are: *What were the causes of all these revolts? Who were involved, who took the lead? How did the authorities respond? Could rebellions also succeed?*

An open-ended task, but with thoughtful selection of sources

The open-ended character of this activity is a deliberate choice. Of course, as already noted, when dealing with a complex inquiry task, students need some pre-structuring, otherwise they get discouraged and give up – it is then simply outside their zone of proximal development. Thoroughly pre-structuring in easy steps to take and providing fill-in diagrams may result, however, in obediently (but uninspiredly) following the predefined steps, but losing sight of the bigger

picture. This problem is akin to the idea of "death by sources" discussed above (McAleavy, 1998; Howells, 2007). If thinking steps are made too small, there is very little left for learners to reason about and part of the learners will not feel sufficiently challenged. In addition, such tasks bear little resemblance to authentic historical inquiry and can create, in Barton's words, "classroom procedures that are not only inauthentic but irrelevant and ineffective" (Barton, 2005: p. 746). The open character of the activity can be illustrated with the first assignment. The activity starts with an assignment in which students have to idenfity sources (using a set of 40 sources) that deal with a peasant uprising and sources that deal with an urban uprising. Students can also identify uprisings where this distinction cannot be made. The categories are deliberately not explained or delineated. The teacher can give an explanation, but it might be much more challenging and authentic to let students think for themselves what they recognise as a peasant uprising and an urban uprising – and discover that the two sometimes merge and thus not all events can be neatly ordered with the labels we have devised.

Barton (2005) points out another misconception that can arise from a somewhat traditional choice of sources: equating all primary sources with one particular type of document, known as "testimony" – while that represents only a small part of the sources used in historical research. At the centre of this more open-ended inquiry task is a collection of 40 sources, half of which are images. These sources provide information about several uprisings, for example, the Pilgrimage of Grace in England (1536), the riots over tin at Bordeaux (1675) and the revolt of the Comuneros at Castilla (521). With a mixture of primary sources (testimonies and images) and texts written specifically for this activity (providing information about the historical context), we try to get around some of the pitfalls Barton describes. Students are also asked to compare written sources and images about the same uprising and to reflect on the question how the type of source affects the type of information that is provided by the source (see also Card, 2008; Lévesque et al., 2014).

After students explored which sources dealt with peasant and urban uprises, they are asked to describe and characterize the uprisings and identify causes for these uprisings themselves. This is only possible because the sources are chosen so that students can do this. The sources not only cover different types of sources, they also cover different kinds of rebellions against the ruling power: in different (early modern) times, in different places and with different motives.

Reasoning about rebellions: Multicausality, differences and similarities and consequences

Students are asked to respond to the thesis that many uprisings arose from a mixture of different types of causes and to substantiate their answers using evidence provided in the sources. This is preceded by a preparatory question in which students must identify political, socio-economic, and culturel-mental causes for each source. They themselves have to look for examples where there is an interplay of factors, i.e., multicausality (Chapman, 2009; Lee & Shemilt, 2009; Stoel, 2017). Of course, that interplay of factors is more likely to be found in secondary sources; primary sources are much more likely to involve one or a limited number of motives. The teacher could discuss that and help students understand that layered explanations in secondary sources are based upon the pieces of evidence from primary sources (Pickles, 2011; Smith, 2001). Furthermore, students are asked to provide evidence for the thesis statement that in many uprisings different social groups formed a temporary alliance. These assignments help students understand that the outbreak of rebellion always had a specific trigger, but that behind it there was usually an interplay of factors. And that different social groups in the early modern era sometimes found each other when there was a common enemy or common cause, but that such an alliance was only temporary and thus based more on opportunism than on shared values.

Finally, students look at the uprisings in terms of the success, lasting or not, they achieved. They reflect on the statement that remarkably often, insurgents initially got their way but were later ruthlessly prosecuted. They also reflect on the thesis that if a rebellion was put down, nothing changed. Teachers can discuss that a revolt sometimes achieved some short-term success, but that the authorities usually managed to reverse such commitments later. This can – with the right questions and some support from the teacher – lead to a conversation about the concept of "power". Lasting social change requires a change in the distribution of power. This usually requires a revolution; you could also say that when an uprising results in a different distribution of power, we speak of a revolution. Studying so many different examples of uprisings thus also provides deeper knowledge at the level of understanding.

Collaborative inquiry learning

Of course, it is not a requirement that every student studies all forty sources in every subsequent assignment. This can be organised in various ways. Preferably, students work together in threesomes. Conceivably, the assignments can then be divided among the groups. In that case, each group goes through 40 sources

and focuses entirely on its own "lens" provided by the assignment. Slightly more manageable is an approach in which two groups get the same assignment, but each gets half of the 40 sources. With three or more groups per assignment, it is also possible to opt for a roof-pan division: each group gets its own set of sources that partly overlaps with those of the other groups – a good way to let students discover that using different sources will lead to different outcomes (Ashby, 2011; Wineburg et al., 2016). The groups present the outcomes of their research to each other in class and can collectively reach deeper understanding.

As previously indicated, this inquiry task is rather "open", which can mean that teachers shy away from it. But students who are challenged almost always exceed our expectations, and when students work in groups, it is also fairly manageable for the teacher to give some groups a bit more support and let other groups work more independently. By letting go of an over-structured approach, students will encounter all sorts of challenges along the way; knots will have to be cut and the pieces of the puzzle do not always fall neatly together (Bird, 2022). It is, in short, almost like real research work.

Conclusion

In this chapter we explored the potential of teaching about crime, rebellion and punishment in European history through inquiry-based learning. We discussed three principles for designing inquiry tasks. The first principles we discussed, is that inquiry tasks must be meaningful from a student perspective. We have provided examples of how the topic can be made relevant to students. We did not emphasize political history in the narrow sense with particular attention to institutions, laws and the administration of justice. Instead, we focused more on marginalized groups, those who rebelled against or were persecuted by the authorities. We made a deliberate choice of sources and selected sources that make things concrete for students. Sources providing details about concrete persons and actions are important to help students imagine what crime, rebellion and punishment looked like in the past. Furthermore, we called attention to key questions related to enduring issues, such as what is considered crime, who determines it, what are considered just punishments. This can make the topic more relevant to students because it is also about the present and they can develop their own opinions, values and ideals.

The second principle we discussed, is promoting historical reasoning. In the activities that we developed, we used a diachronic approach, which allows for an emphasis on making comparisons between different periods and on aspects of change and continuity and causes and effects. With this, historical thinking and

reasoning becomes almost automatically central. The inquiry questions students worked with in the assignments focused on forms of historical reasoning: aspects of change and continuity, causes and effects, and similarities and differences (see Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2018). Students can be encouraged to engage in historical argumentation when working with statements to which they must respond. To what extent, for example, have punishments become more humane? A deliberate choice of sources is also important with a view to promoting historical reasoning. When designing an inquiry task, sources should be chosen in such a way that they allow students to engage in a particular type of historical reasoning, for example, that there were different motives in peasant and urban uprisings. In our experience, this selection of sources takes a lot of time. Teachers should be able to use sets of (online) resources that have been carefully compiled.

We have tried to combine questions that are authentic from a disciplinary perspective with questions that make a connection to enduring issues, asking for a moral judgment or reflecting on mechanisms related to the distribution of power in society. In this way, inquiry tasks can contribute to both the development of historical knowledge and thinking skills and goals related to citizenship. More research is needed on such combinations and on integrating attention to values in activities that focus on historical and civic reasoning.

The third principle we discussed, is scaffolding of historical reasoning. We provided examples of activities in which assignments were broken down in manageable components and in which subquestions are a preparation for other questions. Furthermore, we gave examples of using pre-writing organizers to support historical reasoning and argumentation. When students are left too much on their own devices, they might fail to reach the desired learning outcomes, because the complex inquiry and reasoning activities that need to be caried out are too complex and result in cognitive overload. Teachers can demonstrate how to perform a skill and use scaffolds to help students move towards being able to perform historical thinking and reasoning with gradually less support. However, there is a tension between wanting to offer authentic tasks that challenge students and offering sufficient support. More structure and support can mean that students no longer really reason historically themselves, or that they no longer see what they are doing certain things for. They may also experience less autonomy, which can have a negative effect on motivation. When designing inquiry tasks, careful consideration must therefore be given to the degree of structure that is desirable. More and less structured tasks can be alternated. In less structured tasks, students can experience how difficult it is to answer certain questions, which might motivate them to use particular scaffolds. The scaffolding must be in line with the level of the students and, where

necessary, there must be differentiation within the class. In all cases, it must remain paramount that inquiry tasks promote historical thinking and reasoning and are meaningful to students.

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Chapter 7. Power and powers in the history of Europe Oligarchies, political participation and democracy

Abstract: In this chapter, the concepts of historical empathy, evidence as well as change and continuity are discussed in the context of power and powers in Europe. We begin by describing the rationale for the design process and the overall aims of the activities. In the theoretical framework, three historical thinking skills are discussed before moving on to introducing the activities, each of which is coupled with a specific historical thinking skill. The first activity is set in medieval Europe and aims to develop students' historical empathy. The second activity utilises art, through which students practise using evidence. The third activity looks into democratic processes in both 19th century Britain as well as contemporary United States. Finally, we offer some reflections on the usability and limitations of these activities.

Keywords: Historical empathy, evidence, change and continuity, power and political participation

Introduction

The activities introduced in this chapter feature many of the same design principles applied in other materials designed to elicit historical thinking. First, the activities focus more on depth than coverage of content as the acquisition of substantive knowledge is not the primary aim. Similarly to Downey and Long (2015, p. 49), we understand depth as "exposure to rich complex understanding" rather than a focus on detailed factual knowledge of a specific topic. Thus, our aim is to give students the opportunity to examine a topic through various perspectives. Second, the sources, both primary and secondary, are subjected to a modifying process to ensure their usability (see Reisman, 2012). This means that many of the written sources have been shortened, complex sentence structures simplified, and difficult words replaced by more understandable ones. Although interfering with the authenticity of sources, the modifying process can be justified by its aim to give students access to sources they would not be able to interact with in their authentic form. Third, the activities are aimed at supporting learning, not at testing students. Therefore, the phrasing of questions

and the introductory passages often provide guidance and support for students, directing them towards the desired way of thinking and working.

The overarching theme of our three activities is Power and powers in the history of Europe: oligarchies, political participation and democracy. We have approached this theme via three different topics, namely (1) art and power, (2) power in feudal societies, and (3) participation in democracy. The aim has been to look at power from multiple levels and diverse perspectives, from family to governmental structures. The historical contexts introduced in the activities cover a time span of approximately 700 years from the 14th century to the present day.

As the events of recent years have reminded us, even countries considered the most stable democracies in the world have experienced turbulence concerning their democratic practices. For example, the 6 January attack on the US Capitol in 2021 revealed that tensions ran and continue to run high when it comes to voting, elections and the change of power. It has been suggested that the mistrust in the democratic process was created through disinformation and voter suppression, to name just two factors (Annala, 2021). The example of the Capitol is an extreme one, but suggests that the principles of democracy need constant redefining and negotiating. As students often take contemporary concepts such as democracy for granted (Seixas, 1996), they need to be exposed to the complexity of these concepts and question their seemingly static meanings. The aim of this set of activities is to help students reflect on the limits that political participation has had in the past, as well as what constrains democratic participation in the present day.

We begin this chapter by introducing three central historical thinking concepts that have guided us in creating the activities. We reflect on the opportunities but also on the challenges of teaching interpretation of evidence, historical empathy as well as change and continuity. We then move on to describe the rationale for each activity in more detail. Finally, in the concluding section, we discuss the activities in a wider context and reflect on their limitations.

Aims of the activities

Interpretation of evidence

Historical thinking can be defined as an “unnatural act” (Wineburg, 1999; Wineburg, 2001) and an ability that requires procedures like sourcing, contextualisation, and corroboration (Wineburg, Martin, & Monte-Sano, 2013). In order to achieve historical thinking skills, the curriculum should offer

sourcing exercises whose level of difficulty increases according to the capabilities of the learners (Körber, 2021). The skill of working with sources is one that can be developed through practice, but for which a teacher under time pressure needs ready-made exercises at different levels.

The interpretation of evidence in the school context can be divided into evaluation, interpretation and use of the source. In order to interpret sources, the history learner must first know how to obtain historical information, be able to reflect on its historical significance, and understand how different historical events are connected to each other. For example, Smith et al. (2018) use a theoretical framework in which the goals of learning history are divided into three different parts.

The first category is historical knowledge, the second evaluation of evidence, and the third use of evidence/argumentation. In order to be able to interpret historical information, the learner must have sufficient knowledge of history to be able to contextualise given or found sources. This includes the student's own reasoning process, in which he or she is able to apply knowledge of the past, such as evaluating historical significance, explaining the connection between events, and recognising patterns and themes across time.

Evaluation of evidence can be understood as the learner's ability to evaluate the reliability of information and to understand the motives of historical actors. It is the expert process whereby historians make sense of sources, including the ability to evaluate the reliability and validity of the information, and the ability to understand the evidence as a product of its own time. The highest level is the use of evidence/argumentation, which requires learners to have deeper knowledge-specific skills in historical thinking. With the help of sources, the learner should be able to consider the reliability of different views, identify cause, consequences and counterfactualities, and handle extensive and multi-perspective sources.

Historical empathy

Historical empathy refers to the ability to settle into the life of a person who lived in the past. Pedagogically, it has been approached based on the student's ability to imagine and create historical worlds (Rautiainen & Veijola, 2019). In practice, historical empathy means that the student is able to put herself or himself in the position of a person who has lived in the past, and to understand that person's motives in the past.

As a concept, historical empathy is often connected to historical thinking, which involves establishing historical significance; using primary sources; analysing identity, change and continuity, causes and consequences; and taking

a historical and ethical perspective in the interpretation of history (Seixas & Morton, 2013). According to Veijola (2018, 11), the knowledge formation typical of history takes place based on source material from the past, which is why historical thinking is also manifested through this. In order to teach historical thinking, it is necessary to work with historical sources and to make interpretations based on them. Typical skills for historical thinking include assessing the historical significance of events; evaluating the reliability of source material; analysing change and continuity as well as development and regression; historical empathy; a moral assessment of actors from the past; and understanding the intentions of historical actors (Veijola 2018; see also Rantala & Ouakrim-Soivio 2020, 8–9; VanSledright 2014).

Although historical empathy appears to be an easily achievable goal, it requires complex cognitive processes on the part of the student. When historical empathy appeared in curricula more than 30 years ago, it was criticised for oversimplifying both the reality and the nature of historical knowledge. In addition to Lee and Ashby (2001), Foster (1999) has emphasised the importance of personal experience in the concept of historical empathy.

James Endacott and Sarah Brooks (2013) redefined the concept of historical empathy as encompassing the following dimensions: understanding the period under review; taking a perspective, namely seeking to understand the thoughts of people from the past; and the ability to understand the experiences of historical figures through one's own similar experiences.

According to recent Finnish studies concerning upper secondary school students and historical empathy, it seems that historical empathy as an objective for history learning is quite demanding. The research conducted by Matti Rautiainen and Anna Veijola (2019) showed that while using learning games, the students implemented a process of information formation similar to the one they generally use in the formation of historical information. They built cause-and-effect relationships for information, which is a central process in knowledge formation. On the other hand, the other aspects of historical empathy, namely perspective-taking and affectivity, were much less evident. Arja Virta and Elina Kouki (2015) stated in their study that upper secondary school students' essays on war children offered many research perspectives. For example, argumentation and historical empathy emerged as central themes when examining high school students' historical literacy skills. According to Najat Ouakrim-Soivio and Marko van den Berg (2022), upper secondary school students' historical thinking skills were applied while interpreting historical sources; when applying their reasoning, the students were able to highlight the interpretability of history, multiperspectivity, and historical empathy.

Change and continuity

One of the objectives of history teaching and learning is the perception of change and continuity. Change refers to something that is obviously different from what occurred previously, while continuity refers to things that stay the same, or remain relatively unchanged over time. Change in history usually occurs over a long period of time and it is often hard to pinpoint the exact moment of change. However, when there is a sudden and clear change at a particular point in history, usually as a result of a single event, the event is usually referred to as a "turning point" in history

Peter Seixas (2017, 600) presents a list of six key concepts or ideas that can be used to further historical thinking in history education. One of these is continuity and change, which he describes in the following way:

> "Questions of continuity and change deal with the complex task of analysing the ruptures and continuities between the present and the past. When analysing continuity and change, the historian examines […] change, and searches for the hidden continuities."

In their recent study, Robert Thorp and Anders Persson (2020) raised a counter-argument to how historical thinking and change and continuity could be taught in the school context. They emphasise that a broader conception of historical thinking should be taken into consideration, which pays attention to the existential and fundamental meaning-making aspects of historical accounts, and appreciates how history and historical knowledge are always culturally contingent and therefore dynamic and open to contestation and discussion. From this perspective, students are provided with any number of opportunities to both use and challenge their own experiences as human beings. History as a school subject has valuable potential in letting young people apply substantive historical knowledge when scrutinising their own cultural understanding of themselves and their contemporary times.

In Finnish basic education, the recent assessment criteria for history combine Seixas's concept of historical thinking and continuity and change with Thorp and Persson's idea of students' own cultural understanding: The objective of the instruction is to support the development of historical literacy – the ability to read and analyse sources produced by the actors of the past and to competently interpret their meaning and significance. The students are guided to understand that historical information is open to interpretation and has multiple perspectives, and to explain the changes and continuity apparent in historical development. History instruction helps students recognise society's values and the tensions within them, as well as the way they change in different eras (Finnish National

Board of Education, 2014, 95–9, 496–500).Presentation of the chapter, problem justification of the proposal, theoretical framework of the topic, main objectives, the use of historical thinking competencies.

Three activities for applying historical thinking competencies

All three activities described below deal with several aspects of historical thinking and have multiple aims. For example, the interpretation of evidence is an essential part of any process related to understanding history (Nokes, 2010), and thus it would be misleading to propose that only one of the activities is concerned with the interpretation of evidence. However, in what follows, each activity is coupled with only one historical thinking skill in order to address these entities in a more in-depth manner. When describing the first activity, we focus on historical empathy. The second activity looks into the interpretation of evidence and the third into change and continuity.

Power in medieval life

The first activity is set in the medieval village of Montaillou, which is located in present-day France. In general, written sources concerning medieval everyday life are scarce and the case of Montaillou is thus an exception as the Inquisition records concerning this specific village have been preserved. This activity relies heavily on the book Montaillou (Le Roy Lardurie, 1975), written by French historian Emmanuel Le Roy Ladurie, who went through the Inquisition records comprising interviews with all of the inhabitants of the village. Hence, the book sheds light on the social structures, daily routines and thinking of medieval people. Having access to this detailed knowledge is a prerequisite for understanding the motives behind individuals' thinking and action, which in turn is the aim of historical empathy.

The activity consists of six assignments, which focus on (a) evaluating Montaillou (Le Roy Lardurie, 1975) as a source material, (b) four levels of power in the village, (c) religious power experienced by the Cathars, (d) the power relations between the nobility and the peasants, (e) power in families, and (f) a microhistorical perspective.

In the fifth assignment, students are asked to look into the family structures of medieval society. As with all of the assignments, this one also requires students to be acquainted with the background material presented on the website because the sources need to be contextualised. The assignments are to be completed

individually or in groups and take approximately 10–30 minutes. The excerpts are short and cannot present a comprehensive perspective on the families. Nevertheless, students may draw conclusions regarding some aspects relating to power in families:

Look at the three testimonies presented in the Inquisition Records. What can you conclude about the power structures in families? What kind of features seem to define power in families?

> *My son Raymond once used to carry victuals for the parfaits in a scrip or a basket; and he never asked my permission to do so, for he was the master of my house.*
>
> *(Alazaïs Azéma, female, p. 34)*

> *I am ruined, I have sold my possessions and enslaved my dependents, I live humbly and miserably in my son´s house; and I dare not move.*
>
> *(Stephanie de Chateuverdun, female, p. 34)*

> *I dare do nothing without my son´s approval. Come back tomorrow, and he will lend you the mule.*
>
> *(Bernard Rives, male, p. 34)*

In addition to working towards historical empathy, Le Roy Ladurie´s work offers a way to reflect on the idea of microhistory and its role in the field of history. History textbooks often focus at the macro level through national narratives and although microhistorical perspectives may be provided, the concepts of micro and macro history may be regarded as too disciplinary. At the end of the task, students are asked to ponder the differences between micro and macro levels in history.

We have sought to avoid the most common pitfalls associated with teaching historical empathy. Two positions, originally introduced by Shemilt (1984) and later discussed by Levesque (2008), can lead in the wrong direction when developing historical empathy. First, if students, or even historians, are expected to relive the lives of their subjects and assume their thoughts and feelings as such, it distorts the boundary between then and now. It follows that the one examining the past loses their own identity in an attempt to become the subject in question. The second pitfall entails trying to fit the ideas, values and actions of the past into a contemporary audience´s experiential world.

These aspects are particularly important when assessing the essays, which form the basis for the assessment of this activity. The instructions for essays that students are expected to write are as follows:

> *Write a first-person narrative/description of what a day in the life of a Montaillou inhabitant may have been like. Choose the role that the person has in society, what gender*

they represent, and what their religion may be (Cathar/non-Cathar). Take all of these aspects into account when writing about a day in Montaillou. Use all the sources provided in the activity and, if possible, look at some passages in Ladurie´s book.

The essay instructions encourage students to read additional passages from Le Roy Ladurie's book because the short excerpts included in the assignments may not be sufficient to form an idea of an individual's life in Montaillou. We appreciate that this assessment approach can be considered challenging as extensive reading is required. On the other hand, other alternatives also have their shortcomings. For example, summative assessment focusing on detailed substantive knowledge of life in Montaillou would not result in meaningful learning.

Art and power

Texts are typically used in exercises related to historical sources. However, it is worth noting that there are also other types of interesting sources available. For example, various images such as photographs, paintings and posters can be used in exercises as well. The Art and power activity is designed to support the development of critical historical thinking skills. They can be used in teacher training but also in regular history lessons. The idea is to regard different works of art as historical sources. They are used for teaching what it means in practice to interpret sources and the kinds of methods that can be used in this interpretational process. Historical paintings can be superficially interpreted as a kind of eyewitness description of their own era. In reality, works of art contain many tiers in which it is possible to distinguish not only the depicted phenomenon itself, but also different kinds of interpretations made of them, and different kinds of purposes for these interpretations.

The artworks in the Art and power exercise are linked to the social situation of their own era and interpretations of power and its justification. Napoleon Bonaparte rose to power through a coup d'état, after which he concentrated almost all of the power in his own hands. This was a sensitive and disturbing matter because Napoleon had supported the revolution that deposed the autocratic king of France in 1789. Due to the fact that he himself became an autocrat, his absolute power had to be justified. Jacques-Louis David's painting emphasises Napoleon's greatness. His coronation was witnessed, among others, by the Pope and his cardinals. The church hall in the painting has been reduced to make the figures appear larger. Details that pleased Napoleon have also been added to the painting. For example, in actual fact, his mother did not attend the coronation. Napoleon's wish was also that the Pope would be depicted blessing him in the picture.

The second painting is from a medieval prayer book containing a large collection of illustrated prayers made for Jean, Duke of Berry. The chosen illustration from the prayer book may unintentionally describe the ways in which the elites of the era understood the social order. Peasants are working hard in the fields. Behind them one can see a castle, which can be interpreted as a representation of higher social classes. In medieval thought, power was often justified by the Bible, which was said to have assigned each estate its own natural place. Questioning this kind of order was therefore an action against God's will.

The engraving depicting the arrival of Amerigo Vespucci is also related to power, and is an attempt to justify the subjugation of the native inhabitants of America. The engraving suggests that the native Americans were "asleep" when the Europeans arrived. Europeans are described as being decisively more advanced in development. They also have religion on their side. In one hand, Vespucci holds a navigational instrument (an astrolabe), while in the other he holds a stave with a crucifix at the top. This difference in development seemingly entitles Europeans to subjugate native Americans.

Interpreting artwork requires historical thinking skills. In practice, this means, for example, the ability to interpret source materials through the context that existed at the time of their creation. The interpreter should also ponder the motives of the producers (VanSledright 2014; Downey & Long 2015; Taylor & Young 2003). According to Peter Seixas and Tom Morton (2013), the evaluation of historical sources can actually embrace six different dimensions: historical significance, evidence, continuity and change, cause and consequence, historical perspectives, and the ethical dimension. It might not be necessary to use all of these dimensions in the Art and power exercise, but it is useful to know in which ways researchers approach original sources of history.

According to Sam Wineburg, interpreting sources requires methods typically used by historians (Wineburg 1991; Baron 2012). These include, firstly, consideration of the kind of source at hand and for what purpose it was made. In the Art and power exercise, some hints have been given to facilitate interpretation: the works of art in question are produced by wielders of power and their purpose is obviously to justify their might. This starting point does not necessarily say much about the nature of the artworks or about the more specific motives of their authors. The means used to justify power should also be considered more deeply. When interpreting these sources, one can pay attention, for example, to different kinds symbols used in the artwork, or to the way in which otherness is presented.

Secondly, Wineburg suggests that the sources should be contextualised, meaning that consideration should be given to when and where they were

produced. In this context, it is worth paying attention, for example, to the time gap between the event depicted by the artworks and the interpretations made of it. If there is a long time gap between the event and its interpretation, it might be worth asking whether the event can be reliably described at all. Thirdly, Wineburg highlights source comparison. This dimension might also bring an interesting perspective to the artworks. When examining them side by side, one can consider the similarities in the ways of understanding and justifying power in different eras. For example, it seems to be typical to appeal to a higher divine authority when justifying power. A recurrent effort may also have been made to portray power as natural and self-evident. It is also worth observing how those subjected to the exercise of power are described in relation to the powerful. For example, in the engraving depicting Amerigo Vespucci's arrival in America, the natives are depicted as undeveloped and ignorant compared to Europeans. Europeans, on the other hand, are portrayed as representatives of the latest technology and progress typical of the era.

Wineburg has been criticised for ignoring the importance of content knowledge and for seeing historical thinking mainly as interpreting sources using the methods applied by historians. It is difficult to apply the methods of historical thinking without sufficient knowledge of the conditions of the period under study (see Downey & Long 2015). In-depth interpretation of sources usually requires the ability to understand the conditions at the time of their creation more broadly. For example, it helps when interpreting a painting of a medieval prayer book if you understand that at that time people lived in an estate society where status was determined by your descent, and rising to the upper estates was rare. Thus, it was in the interest of the higher estates to describe the system as natural and in accordance with God's will.

Art and power tasks can also be used more generally to examine the nature of historical information. Historical knowledge is formed only when various artifacts of human activity are interpreted. Interpretations may differ, but one should be able to justify them leaning on the sources at hand. This kind of approach might also be useful in teaching today´s media competences. Historical works of art can also be seen as media of their time, which have been used to spread certain interpretations of reality

Participation in democracy

Reflecting on the differences and similarities between the past and the present could be considered one of the key elements of learning history. In this activity, students are encouraged to reflect on what has changed and on what has remained

the same with regard to democratic processes and structures. The activity does not extend to Antiquity but addresses democracy from a more modern perspective starting from the 18th century. The activity poses two questions:

- *What kind of demands were placed on democracy in 19th-century England, and how were these demands received?*
- *What possibilities and constraints are entailed by the contemporary democratic system in the United States?*

The approach taken here follows the thinking of historians Fredrik Drake and Lynn Nelson (2005), who underscore that history teaching should include key turning points without presenting history as a series of earth-shattering changes. They recommend a thematic approach to history as it has the potential to reveal social changes also during periods which seem stable and uneventful on the surface. A thematic approach also allows one to simultaneously perceive rapid change in some areas of life and continuity in others.

The first question is addressed by looking into the Chartist movement of the 1830s. Initially, students are asked to get acquainted with the Charter itself so that they can reflect on its aims. Although we had the opportunity to incorporate the content of the Charter's six points into the task, we opted to provide a link to the British Library instead, where the document, which dates back to 1838, can be viewed in detail. The authenticity of documents evokes emotional responses (see Watson, 2016) and while that is not an instructional aim in itself, it may be a helpful motivational element for some students. The aim is for students to use the Charter to evaluate the changes that it set in motion and to reflect on the standing that the Chartists' demands had in their respective communities. Just as the Chartists envisaged new democratic procedures, the task should prompt students to contemplate whether changes need to be brought about in our contemporary democracies.

It should be noted that the activity intentionally employs lengthy primary sources. For example, Reisman (2012) suggests that an appropriate length for a source excerpt at secondary level would be around 250 words. Although the excerpts used here are considerably shorter than the original documents, they each includes 400–500 words. The modified excerpts originate from speeches made on the Chartist petition in the House of Commons in 1839. The excerpts were not shortened any further so that the students could practise how to sustain their focus and concentration with longer texts. As their everyday life is filled with short texts, for example in the form of social media posts, school is a platform where students can be encouraged to interact with more diverse and extensive texts. Developing the competence to read longer texts requires

gradually extending the length of the texts, just as in endurance sports, where the distance is increased progressively.

The final aspect to consider in relation to the Chartist petition is the role of petitions in contemporary democracy:

> *What are the requirements for a petition in your country at the moment? How many signatures are needed? How often does the parliament in your country process a petition and how often do petitions change the legislation? Are petitions a viable way for citizens to participate in democracy?*

Through this assignment, students can reflect on the meaning and importance of petitions in the current legislative process. Just as the Chartist petition was defeated in 1839 and 1848 in the British parliament, students may benefit from investigating whether contemporary petitions have been able to contribute to legislation.

While the first part of the activity focuses on the right of individuals to participate in democracy through voting, the second part, set in the United States, deals with the other side of an election, namely running as a candidate. The democratic developments in the United States have had and continue to have an impact on Europe. Therefore, although the History Lab project and the present book is concerned with European history, the democratic system of the United States and its implications are included in the activity.

The background material for this activity includes ideas presented by German sociologist Robert Michels (1876–1936), who is famous for his theory of the "iron rule of oligarchy". While acknowledging that getting acquainted with sociological theories may be considered too demanding a task for secondary students, we suggest that using a theoretical framework may also be beneficial for understanding changes and continuations throughout time. One of the aims of introducing a theoretical model for the relationship between democracy and oligarchy was to provide an analytical tool for students through which they could evaluate the nature of both contemporary and past democratic systems. Theoretical claims can thus be used to hold a mirror up to several different historical contexts.

- *What arguments would you use for defending the position that democracy in the United States has oligarchical tendencies, as described by Michels?*
- *What arguments would you use for defending the position that democracy in the United States does not have oligarchical tendencies, as described by Michels?*

Michels´s theory suggests that even in highly democratic organisations, where those in power have been selected by the majority, the representative minority

inevitably becomes preoccupied with sustaining its own power. Hence, democracies can easily develop into oligarchies, characterised by the rule of the few. Although Michels advocates democracy, he underscores that democratic organisations should be wary of the oligarchical tendencies built into them in order to minimise the damage. The United States is an interesting case when reflecting on Michels's theory as even running as a candidate requires substantial funds, as shown in the data presented to students. The question is whether all members of society have even a theoretical possibility to strive towards power through elections. In addition, students are asked to reflect on how the close relationship between money and power may affect the motives behind a representative's decisions.

Conclusions and limitations

Historical thinking has been a central concept in history education research for several decades (e.g., Levesque 2008; Wineburg, 2001). In addition, related concepts such as historical reasoning (e.g., van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007) and historical literacy (e.g., Nokes, 2010) have been suggested as essential for helping students understand history.

However, the ideals stated in the research literature do not seem to have been realised in the classroom. Observational studies conducted at the secondary level in the United States (e.g., Cuban, 2016; Nokes, 2010) as well as in Europe (Hujgen et al., 2019; Puustinen & Khawaja, 2022) suggest that history teachers have not fully adopted the aims of historical thinking or literacy. For example, in Finnish upper secondary classrooms, students rarely work with primary or secondary sources. Instead, the most common text type is teachers' notes, which are used for 40 % of the time. In addition, lecturing dominates the lessons at the expense of discussions and group work, for example (Puustinen & Khawaja, 2022). In Sweden, we found that over 90 % of assignments used by teachers focus on substantive knowledge and less than 1 % on historical questions. Thus, it seems that national narratives and the acquisition of substantive knowledge still play a significant part in history education.

The reasons behind the reluctance or inability of teachers to make a change towards historical thinking are manifold and complex to the degree that they cannot be explored at length here. However, the availability of materials compatible with the aims of historical thinking may affect teaching practices (Khawaja & Puustinen, 2022, in press). The hectic nature of daily life in schools and the increasing demands on teachers leave little time for finding suitable resources in archives and other sources, for example. Therefore, while

the availability of teaching materials is not a sufficient condition for bringing historical thinking into classrooms, it is a necessary one.

While the design process of these activities has utilised existing research on historical thinking and students' ability to engage with texts, the activities have not undergone any testing. Unlike in design-based research (e.g., Breakstone, 2014; Scott et al., 2020), these activities have not been exposed to the realities of classrooms. Testing the activities would have enabled us to detect those aspects that need further development and redesign. Thus, there is no certainty that the activities will elicit the type of thinking that they were designed to elicit. However, we hope that the activities will prove useful for teachers and teacher educators, who in turn can assess their usability and shortcomings for themselves.

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Chapter 8. Historical thinking skills with digital resources: Causes, consequences, change and continuity

Abstract: As part of the topics dedicated to *Travels and travellers: economic, social and cultural connections* and *Churches and Religion* – historical paths of long duration and transversal to the content addressed in the traditional textbooks, in adherence to the inspiring principles of the HistoryLab project – two educational paths on Pilgrimage in the Middle Ages and Religious Discrimination have been designed, intended for the achievement of historical thinking skills and competencies. Specifically, the programming of the indicated activities and the tools used will enable the students to make historical arguments from sources; analyse and evaluate the interaction of causes and/or effects, simple and multiple; compare and contextualize the ability to explain and establish multiple and different perspectives on a given historical phenomenon; practice chronological reasoning; and connect patterns of continuity and change over time to broad historical processes or themes. The practice of "thinking historically" will also activate other cognitive fields and skill acquisitions, responding to the exercise of full and conscious citizenship (relying on history and heritage culture), through the related experiences: Interdisciplinarity in an "intercultural" vision; Education to empathy; Heritage pedagogy; Active citizenship; Reliability of digital resources

Keywords: Pilgrimages, travellers, religious discriminations, historical thinking, cultural heritage, active citizenship

Introduction

In the context of the liquid society well described by Bauman (2011) where existence itself is connoted by continuous precariousness and uncertainty, historical knowledge – despite the difficulties related to its teaching – allows, from a collective point of view, an enhanced understanding of the present; of values; the development of cognitive skills and strategies to cope with the uncertainty of the future; to deal with important social problems; to foster a democratic citizenship; to appreciate, enjoy, defend and preserve cultural heritage; and develop an awareness of temporal globality. This enables the development of intellectual skills related to what is referred to in Anglo-Saxon circles as historical thinking, that is, the creative process that historians, history teachers and students carry out to interpret sources from the past and generate historical

narratives (Seixas, 2006; Lévesque, 2008; Peck & Seixas, 2008; Wineburg, 2010; Santiesteban Fernández, 2010; Seixas & Morton, 2012).

Regarding the first point, historian Marc Bloch (1996) asserted that if misunderstanding of the present arises from ignorance of the past, it is absurd to investigate the past if it is not in the interest of the present, since what is interesting to understand is what is experienced. Therefore, the basic goal is not to teach all of the past, but to choose the content that one considers truly essential in the formation of the citizen through an outcome-based approach to history that starts from the present (Dondarini, 2000, 2007). The purpose, then, is intellectual and critical: it is intended to help students understand the issues that affect their daily lives, as a necessary condition for the initiation of citizen awareness processes that encourage them to reason, question and criticize (Fontana Lázaro, 1992). In this sense, the study of history makes it possible, as Prats Cuevas and Santacana Mestre (2011) point out, to analyze tensions in the unfolding of history, since every historical process is based on social, economic, political and generational tensions that have a longer or shorter duration; to study the causes and consequences of historical events, thus distinguishing between motives, causes, structural causality and consequences; to explain the complexity of social problems and combat simplistic views in explanations of current problems; to construct patterns of difference and similarity, determining what features are in common between seemingly different cultures in a synchronic and diachronic view and changes and permanencies in historical development; to enhance rationality in social and political analysis, shaping critical citizens who reject emotional excesses and exaggerated subjectivity; to use methods and techniques typical of research in the social sphere, simulating the job of a historian and engaging with numerous disciplines related to history, such as statistics, documentary analysis, geography, art or drawing. History, thus, has the possibility of becoming the axis on which the various social sciences are structured. As a result, it is possible to address numerous curricular issues from the study of history. Along with this possibility, historical knowledge provides a context for many other disciplines: literature, mathematics, natural sciences and so on. In fact, learning the discipline seems best suited to develop complex skills of meta-cognition and the ability to compare different ways of responding to the same stresses.

Teaching history from a critical perspective should involve the rejection of social models based on inequality and exclusion, promoting values that contribute to building a more just society, as well as the conscious involvement of future citizens in the transformation of society. These basic values include equality, rationality, tolerance, empathy, citizen responsibility and participation,

respect for other points of view and other cultures, solidarity, and defense and preservation of the natural and cultural heritage we have received as our legacy.

Moreover, learning history allows students to be introduced to information management in which they need to be critical, make value judgments, distinguish between opinions and prejudices, between descriptions and evaluations, synthesizing information, making inferences, and ultimately making judgments on controversial and debated issues (Moreno Vera & Monteagudo Fernández, 2019; dos S. Schmidt, 2019). At the same time, since there are no objective versions of the past and the present is also subject to interpretation, the study of current and historical societies can offer students a privileged learning framework in which to configure antidogmatic attitudes about knowledge and reality, helping them to process the idea that scientific knowledge is provisional and debatable, without ceasing to be rigorous.

In addition, history can guide students in approaching global and fundamental social problems, in the context of which others of a partial and local nature can be understood, seeking their historical genesis and explanation. Topics such as inequalities due to gender, ethnicity, and social class, war, the phenomenon of emigration to developed countries, and the political manipulation of heritage elements and the media constitute global problems that have an impact on the student's environment, which can initiate school research processes that enable him or her to approach their understanding.

The teaching of history must also serve to educate students in the new millennium about democracy in a broad and deep sense (Miralles Martínez et al., 2017). A democracy that requires the consent of the majority of citizens, but also diversity and antagonism; hence the importance of educating for negotiation and dialogue, to deal with conflict as a basic ingredient of social relations. In this sense, through the teaching of history, one must help build democratic attitudes, put into practice by the students' closest environment, since one cannot theorize about democracy and not put it into practice. It is about educating and participating, based on the rights and duties of the student as a school citizen, but also on the experiences, which give meaning to this knowledge by making learning meaningful and functional (Barton & Levstick, 2004).

Educating for the appreciation, preservation and conservation of cultural heritage is a specific purpose of teaching history, because heritage work connects the present with the past and facilitates the development of methods of historical analysis. Furthermore, an integral and holistic view of heritage is developed in students. The study of heritage facilitates the understanding of present and historical societies, since the assets of which a heritage is composed are witnesses and sources from which knowledge can be gained and decisions made in the

future in relation to cultural roots and traditions, at the same time awakening an attitude of respect for the diverse cultural symbols of other societies. All this should lead to an appreciation of heritage elements and other cultures, activating a consciousness of preservation and defense (Borghi & Venturoli, 2009).

Finally, a dynamic relationship also exists between the present, past and future. Interpretations of the past arise from the concerns and priorities of the present and our perceptions of the future (conscious or unconscious). From the perspective of global education, "the future must occupy a central place in the educational process so that all students have the opportunity to regularly study, reflect and discuss possible future alternatives that are probable and plausible at all levels; from the individual to the global" (Selby, 2004). In this regard, Jacques Le Goff emphasized that "history teaches the whole of humanity where it came from, what it is, and allows a glimpse of where it is going. History dominates and illuminates the future and the present, and opens the door to the future" (Borghi, 2016, p. 9). Schools move towards the future, having the past as their main point of reference, so the study of the future could be an important prerequisite for developing in students their abilities, skills and attitudes in order to exert more control in the direction of the continuous process of changes they will experience during their lives.

For all these reasons, the study of history contributes to the development of intellectual faculties (Prats Cuevas & Santacana Mestre, 2011, p. 35). In fact, cognitive skills, acquired in people's ordinary lives, in school settings are enhanced in every teaching and learning process. If they are projected as attainable goals through work in different curricular areas, the progress made by students can be highly significant. In this context, the study of history from an early age is an excellent means of developing intellect. Working on history with an approach that views this learning as an active process of discovery and inquiry allows for rational observations in the classroom, including the ability to classify, compare, analyze, describe, infer, explain, memorize, and order ideas. These are the skills that underlie the development of the six key concepts of historical thinking as defined in the context of the Historical Thinking Project, an educational initiative directed by Peter Seixas and coordinated by Jill Colyer between 2006 and 2014 in the Canadian territory: establishing historical meaning, using primary sources, identifying continuity and change, analyzing causes and consequences, reinforcing historical perspective, and, finally, understanding the ethical dimension of historiographical interpretations (Seixas & Peck, 2004; Seixas, 2006).

Establishing historical meaning allows certain events related to the past to be given importance, abandoning simplistic and preconstituted explanations. In

this way, for example, the story of a peasant in the Po Valley during the Great War could have great relevance if placed in the larger context of the situation of workers during World War I. What seems "insignificant" thus becomes of great importance.

The competence of knowing how to use primary sources involves the skills of being able to read between the folds of history. A certain source, whatever it may be, needs to be interrogated not only for what it explicitly conveys (the information that can be gleaned from reading a text, for example). But through deeper reasoning that searches, for example, for the identity of the source's author, the motivations behind its creation and dissemination.

History, often regarded as a succession of events, is instead composed of numerous moments of continuity and change from the previous situation. Being able to understand such a setting gives new meaning to the study of history. The skills required are those of comparison and contrast, between past and present, but also between geographically close or distant places.

Skills related to reasoning are supported by the analysis of causes and consequences. In the historical discipline, in contrast to many hard sciences, causes are often anthropogenic; people, in fact, play a prominent role in promoting, shaping or resisting events. However, it is necessary to reject the single cause, accepting multiple and layered causes involving ideologies, institutions, economic and social conditions.

Understanding the foreignness of the past is a great challenge for students. But addressing it illuminates the possibilities of human behaviour, opening a broader perspective from which to evaluate our current concerns. Historical perspective means understanding the social, cultural, intellectual and emotional settings that shaped people's lives and actions in the past. In this sense, historical imagination, which is not meant to offer a complete or perfect picture of the past, is one of the most suitable tools to fill possible gaps and to give meaning to historical events through empathy and contextualization (Lévesque, 2008).

Finally, developing an ethical dimension of history and its interpretations makes it possible to trace the different ethical parameters between very different societies in space and time. This does not mean imposing anachronistic standards of behaviour on the past; however, at the same time, even the most absolute relativism is not allowable, but "if the story is meaningful, then there is an ethical judgment involved. We should expect to learn something from the past that helps us to face the ethical issues of today" (Seixas, 2006, p. 11).

It is also important to note that these elements are not "skills" but rather a set of concepts that guide and shape the practice of the historian, the history teacher, and his or her students, through which the mind can be shaped through disciplined

and systematic study, but above all, they teach how to think historically (Gómez Carrasco et al., 2014), allowing for the development of strategies, skills, and competencies related to the historian's ability-such as research, source selection and processing, and hypothesis formulation-and adapted to answer historical questions and understand the past in a more complex way (Vansledright, 2014).

In this context, technological resources have forcefully entered the field of education and, if used properly, can enhance and promote a bond of learning excellence between teachers and students. Indeed, the digital age, according to Viñals and Cuenca (2016), has brought about a radical change in the way learning and teaching is done. This has resulted in the creation of new ICT-related skills, which have not entered the classroom to replace the teacher, but to accompany him or her in their daily practice. In the wake of these objectives, the *HistoryLab* digital platform, containing a large number of virtual resources, allows the articulation and design of interdisciplinary, active and participatory educational paths that teach how to think historically, as the teaching proposals we present below testify.

Learning activities

The first activity we present is entitled *Ire per agros: faith and culture journeys in the Middle Ages. Pilgrimage*. It is part of the topic *Travels and travelers: economic, social and cultural connections*.

Among the contents and educational objectives being pursued is the Enhancement of faith, art and culture journeys in one's own area. Starting from the analysis of pilgrimage sources (diaries), the motivations and itineraries that drove men and women in the Middle Ages to set out to reach a destination (major and minor pilgrimages) will be analyzed. The ultimate goal is the construction of an urban trekking guide that, based on the ancient itineraries, will be able to enhance places of local cultural and environmental heritage.

The project will consist of five phases of varying lengths of time, with an estimated total time of 14–15 hours. Specifically, the first phase will be one hour, the second three, the third three/four, the fourth three and, finally, the fifth four hours.

During the sessions students will be expected to undertake some individual activities, working in pairs, and in small and large groups.

From the perspective of skills and competencies, the following historical thinking skills will be developed through the activities: chronological reasoning, comparison and contextualization, construction of historical arguments from historical evidence, historical interpretation and synthesis. In fact, students

should be able to compare causes and/or effects; analyze and evaluate the interplay of multiple causes and/or effects; link patterns of continuity and change over time to broader historical processes or themes; analyze and evaluate competing patterns of periodization of global history; and explain and evaluate multiple and different perspectives on a given historical phenomenon.

Specifically:

- Cultural competencies (for the development of fundamental knowledge) by providing the student with the cultural and methodological tools for an in-depth understanding of reality, so that he or she can face migratory situations and phenomena with a rational, critical and planning attitude.
- Social skills (for citizenship). Knowing how to act autonomously and responsibly: knowing how to participate actively and consciously in social life and assert within it one's own rights and needs while recognizing those of others, common opportunities, limits, rules, responsibilities.
- Problem solving: dealing with problem situations by constructing and testing hypotheses, identifying appropriate sources and resources, collecting and evaluating data, and proposing solutions using content and methods from different disciplines, depending on the type of problem.
- Identifying connections and relationships: identifying and representing, by elaborating coherent arguments, connections and relationships between different phenomena, events and concepts, even belonging to different disciplinary fields, and distant in space and time, grasping their systemic nature, identifying similarities and differences, coherences and inconsistencies, causes and effects and their probabilistic nature.
- Acquiring and interpreting information: acquiring and critically interpreting information received in different fields and through different means of communication, evaluating its reliability and usefulness, distinguishing facts and opinions.

The activity will be implemented according to the following schedule:

Phase I: On the meaning of travel and pilgrimage. The topic will be introduced with some terminological clarifications on the phenomenon of pilgrimage in the Middle Ages, identifying the peculiarities of the journey of faith, comparing it with the motivations that prompted man to move and travel in the past.

Phase II: Analysis of narrative sources: pilgrimage diaries. Various pilgrimage journals from the Middle Ages will be analyzed and compared, identifying

ancient faith journeys to Santiago de Compostela, Rome and Jerusalem (itineraries).

Phase III: Local history. The focus will be on local history. After an introduction to the chosen medieval historical period, identification of pilgrimage routes in one's own city (Roman routes) will be made. An interactive map will be constructed with sources from the medieval period.

Phase IV: The Romans and the present. Through group activities, they will go on to identify new routes that can enhance the historical and cultural heritage, as well as the environment, of their own city.

Phase V: Presentation of the guide to municipal institutions. The guide will be presented to municipal institutions and citizens, promoting the routes identified and proposed for the enhancement of historical and cultural heritage. Guided tours are proposed on weekends.

Regarding the moment of evaluation, at the end, the assessment will take into account the skills of each student. The level of knowledge, skills, competencies and abilities acquired; commitment and constancy in work; interest in the discipline; active participation in the educational dialogue; and the ability to personally rework the content will be assessed.

During the course of the activity, the teacher can make use of the extensive repertoire of digital resources available in *HistoryLab*, and in particular can use the following sources.

- https://orbis.stanford.edu: a geospatial model of the Roman world that takes all these conditions into account and calculates distances not in hours but in days of walking, just as ancient writers did: under average conditions, one could walk 30 km, or 20 Roman miles, per day. This figure is as valid today as it was two thousand years ago.
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lxm7CQ5LUB8: a video made by the Italian educational platform "Hub scuola" explaining what pilgrimage is.
- https://www.viefrancigene.org/it/: the official wesite of the Francigena Route as Cultural Route of the Council of Europe
- http://www7.bbk.ac.uk/pilgrimlibraries/tag/venice/: virtual Pilgrim Libraries: books & reading on the medieval routes to Rome & Jerusalem
- http://historic-cities.huji.ac.il: Historical maps of cities of the world.

The second activity we present, closely linked to the previous one, is entitled: *Religious Discrimination in Europe* and it is part of the topic *Churches and Religion*.

Through the activity we intend to pursue the following teaching objectives. Students will be able to understand that despite the progress made throughout history to achieve religious tolerance, discrimination on the basis of faith is still present. Students will therefore learn about the long journey of religious tolerance, the discrimination still in place, and the possibility of reflecting on these issues to make proposals for religious tolerance. Through this activity, they learn to dialogue with different religious and cultural positions in an atmosphere of mutual respect, confrontation and enrichment. They learn to read and understand sources and documents, to rework and expound on the topic; to find relationships between facts and phenomena distant in time and space; to relate to the municipal administration as active and participatory citizens; and to use specific, clear and precise language.

The activity – which will alternate moments of individual study with small and large group work – will be divided into six phases, totaling an estimated sixteen to eighteen hours. First phase: 1–2 hours; second phase: 2–3 hours; third phase: 3 hours; fourth phase: 4 hours; fifth phase: 4 hours; sixth phase: 2 hours.

The historical thinking skills to be developed during the course of the activity are as follows: establishing historical significance; identifying continuity and change; analyzing causes and consequences; taking historical perspectives; understanding the ethical dimension of historical interpretations; and using primary sources.

With regards the structuring of the activity, the proposal envisages the following stages.

First activity: through brainstorming, students can recount facts about religious discrimination (what is religious discrimination, whether they have heard or read about incidents of religious discrimination, why, etc.) The teacher can write the interventions on the board and give the exact definition of religious discrimination and perhaps other examples of discrimination.

Second activity: The teacher shows the classes ministerial documents and/or other international charters of rights. The students, divided into small groups (each group works on one source), have to find the articles that talk about religious tolerance. The teacher at this time acts as a guide.

Third activity: back in the large group, students explain to each other the principles of religious tolerance they found. They can also make a poster or other product on the topic.

Fourth activity: reflecting historically on the long journey of religious freedom (e.g., European religious wars, the French Revolution), students are asked by the teacher to reflect on contemporary religious discrimination, especially in a

local dimension (e.g., the absence of places of worship for some faiths, school cafeterias not providing meals for some faiths).

Fifth activity: Students, guided by the teacher, write a project in which they try to overcome the discrimination they have detected.

Sixth activity: The teacher makes contact with the powers that be (local government, school director, city council, etc.) to allow students to show and present their project. Hopefully, the local government will accept the proposal to help overcome obstacles to religious freedom.

Naturally, visits to religious heritage elements, news reports, videos and documentaries can be added to the sequence of activities.

At the end, the assessment will take into account the skills of each student. The level of knowledge, skills, competencies and abilities acquired; commitment and constancy in work; interest in the discipline; active participation in the educational dialogue; and the ability to personally rework the content will be evaluated.

During the course of the activity, the teacher can make use of the extensive repertoire of digital resources available in *HistoryLab*, and in particular can use the following sources.

- https://europa.eu/eurobarometer/surveys/detail/2251: a European Commission document showing people's perceptions, attitudes and opinions of discrimination based on ethnic origin, skin colour, sexual orientation, gender, age, disability, religion or beliefs.
- https://www.cde.ual.es/wp-content/uploads/2021/11/KJ0121401ENN.en_.pdf: a European Commission document showing people's attitudes and opinions of values and identities (religion, culture, sexual orientation, etc.)
- http://www.nicolodegiorgis.com/hidden-islam-2014/: a Photograph of a moment of prayer in a makeshift mosque in Italy
- https://www.mcba.ch/collection/le-massacre-de-la-saint-barthelemy-vers-1572-1584/: the painting which depicts the famous massacre of the Huguenots which took place on the Night of Saint Bartholomew.
- https://www.un.org/en/about-us/universal-declaration-of-human-rights: the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- https://www.elysee.fr/en/french-presidency/the-declaration-of-the-rights-of-man-and-of-the-citizen: the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen of 1789
- https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/195831: The 1959 Declaration of the Rights of the Child

- https://www.worldhistory.org/image/14972/religions-in-europe-in-the-16th-century/: a map illustrating the dominant religious divisions in Europe in the 16th century.
- https://fra.europa.eu/en: the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights (article 10)
- https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2018/10/29/east-west-divide-within-the-eu-on-issues-including-minorities-gay-marriage-and-national-identity/: a report by the Pew Research Center showing that in the European Union, there is an East-West divide over religious minorities, gay marriage, national identity.

Conclusion

The didactic activities briefly described have been chosen by the research team in keeping with both the spirit that drives the implementation of the *HistoryLab* platform, and with the desire to offer teachers and learners opportunities for growth that foster historical thinking, in the sense clarified in the theoretical introduction to this paper. We will dwell on this further on, but it is worth anticipating how the present author's national point of observation (Italy) leads us to believe that the dissemination of such activities is more necessary and urgent than ever, given the problems of learning history, coupled with an increasingly widespread and difficult relationship with the discipline, which often spills over into rejection on the part of students: solid evidence of this comes daily to the attention of those who teach history at university degree courses not intended for historical specialisation.

The reasons for this have long been known and investigated, but they remain without adequate answers and cannot be countered by the goodwill of individual teachers. Despite the efforts of deserving national experiences – among the many, we cite by way of example those promoted by the associations CLIO 92 and Historia Ludens, by the digital magazine Novecento.org of the Ferruccio Parri National Institute and the International History Festival of the University of Bologna – the reasons for the difficult relationship between students and history can be traced back to the persistence of a teaching and learning model "that emphasises the memorisation of a standardised and linear discourse from the past" (Sánchez Ibáñez et al., 2020, p. 190). A model which gives rise – not without concern for a country like Italy that has little or no memory of its own past – to the risk of living in an indistinct, unconscious and fluctuating present time unable to build a future (in this regard, it is sufficient to refer to the lessons of Bauman, Bloch and Le Goff cited in the introduction).

As already mentioned, the two proposals emerge from the in-depth study of the thematic paths, of a transversal and long-term nature, assigned to the Italian research group within *HistoryLab*: Travels and travellers: economic, social and cultural connections and Churches and Religion. The planning of activities on the specific contents of pilgrimage, as a representation of a religious, cultural, social and economic expression, and the phenomenon of religious discrimination implied addressing the three questions on which to base a history curriculum (Grazioli, 2012, pp. 66–70): identifying the basic problems of the present, growing or urgent, from which to start to question the past; connecting to the trends that come from the updated historiographical debate; investigating the needs of boys and girls and consequently identifying the skills to be developed: this last issue calls into question, more than the others, the ability or willingness of the teacher to attune with his or her class group, in order to design a didactic plan able to provide space for the active and participatory learning of historical knowledge.

With regard to the first question, there is little need to dwell upon the worrying spread of phenomena of religious intolerance, discrimination on the basis of faith and hate speech – amplified by the web – towards religious and/or ethnic minorities and, in general, towards the "other". Concerning the theme of the new historiographic trends, we refer specifically to the opportunity offered by the two proposed paths to be able to practise the conception of time in history by declining it in its various durations (permanence, long duration, cycles and the short times of events) by anchoring it to geographical spaces that are not predetermined and fixed, but consistent with the themes: in other words, it is a matter of experimenting with spatialisation and periodisation in order to consciously learn the meaning of historical time, with respect to which chronology shows obvious methodological flaws (Brusa & Cecalupo, 2000). In Italy, it is still very difficult to overcome the anchoring of history learning to the "time line": therefore, there is no hiding the risks of implementing activities that could be based on mere chronology.

In addition to the above, other strengths of the educational paths can be identified, which will, of course, have greater or lesser emphasis depending on the educational models and their curricula.

Interdisciplinarity in an "intercultural" vision. In both areas, pedagogical and didactic research is highly developed, but it is worth mentioning Morin (2000) and his earnest insistence on redressing the fruitless and inadequate separation between knowledge, pigeon-holed into disciplines, and "increasingly polydisciplinary, transversal, multidimensional, transnational, global, planetary realities or issues", through the integration and connection of themes and the solidarity of disciplines. The social, economic and political events of the last

few decades have, if possible, accentuated the profile of interdependence and complexity in human phenomena, calling into question the school's ability, as a primary educational agency, to make this context intelligible through an interdisciplinary approach and to make it also become a testing-ground for an action of skills development to define the future. In this sense, the proposed paths can be the venue in which interdisciplinarity (between history, geography, ancient and modern languages, art history, music, technologies…) is practised with an intercultural approach, capable of taking on an "other" look at one's own discipline, through the choice of contents and socially mediated teaching methods, such as cooperative learning and peer tutoring (Caon & Brichese, 2020; Caon et al., 2020).

Education to empathy. The recourse to indifference (Mortari, 2000) as a response to the complexity of the phenomena in which we live an increasingly uncertain everyday life from an economic, social and institutional point of view (not to mention, most recently, the return of war to Europe's doorstep with the dramatic Russian–Ukrainian conflict, after the secessionist and civil wars that engulfed the former Yugoslavia in the 1990s), requires, on the other hand, a systemic and collective commitment to ensure that empathic reaction is constant and active. The absence of emotionality, the lack of understanding and emotional ties with the "other", the "loss of pathos and relational tension" lead, according to Pulcini (2001), to disaffection towards collective action, to withdrawal from the public and social sphere: a situation that is increasingly lamented and denounced. Education to empathy can find fruitful acceptance in the proposed didactic paths that, albeit with differences, hinge on the relationship between the human and the sacred that has always innervated all aspects and structures of human civilisation (even today, where atheism, agnosticism and new religiosity are the reverse of the same coin). The pilgrimage as a commitment to faith and, therefore, a physical and spiritual journey as well as a deepening of one's existence on a par with the very long, suffered and hindered journey to assert the right to change religion or to profess none or, again, to manifest it in practice without being harmed, offers numerous opportunities for education to empathy.

Heritage pedagogy, that is, an educational activity not only "to" but also "with", "for" and "through" heritage (Branchesi, 2018, p. 23). In the introduction to this paper, it has already been pointed out that cultural heritage can provide opportunities for historical knowledge and analysis, awareness for decision-making for the future and respect for the different cultural symbols of other societies. Here, therefore, we limit ourselves to two points of emphasis closely linked to the content of the proposed teaching activities. The first concerns the possibility of educating to multiculturalism and interculturalism through

historical-artistic heritage, as it allows one to develop "the awareness of one's own cultural identity and at the same time the habit and ability to recognise and respect diversity" (Branchesi, 2018, p. 26). The second relates to the pedagogical potential of historical places, where one can experience the real, the authenticity and historicity that sensorially and cognitively stimulate imagination, skills and questions of meaning, so that visitors are led to "dé-construire l'état actuel, de retracer l'évolution et de faire une re-construction (virtuelle) de l'état historique ainsi que de recontextualiser l'ensemble" (Pflüger, 2015, p. 22).

Active citizenship. In the framework of the European Union Youth Strategy 2019–2027, approved in 2018, one of the objectives to be achieved is to "Encourage and equip young people with the necessary resources to become active citizens, agents of solidarity and positive change inspired by EU values and a European identity" (Council of the European Union, 2018). Consistent with this strategy, supporting young people to undertake active citizenship actions includes the products that will be produced at the end of the educational activities – i.e., the urban trekking guide that, on the basis of the ancient itineraries, will enhance places of local cultural and environmental heritage, and the proposal of initiatives to counter and overcome religious discrimination, which are the result of a bottom-up approach, because they are the outcome of analysis and research by male and female students; these products will be presented to local authorities, as they constitute political and governmental tools and interventions.

Reliability of digital resources. The proposed didactic activities, due to their constant recourse to learning through the use of primary sources and digital resources from the library specially created by *HistoryLab* (and thus validated), are also an opportunity to train boys and girls to assess the reliability of what (and it is an ocean of information) is retrievable on the web, for both historical and everyday use. For this purpose, reading and critical analysis skills are and remain fundamental but not sufficient, unless students are trained to operate in an environment, the digital one, that cannot be approached like the printed book page. One can then rely on tried-and-tested tests such as CRAAP, which stands for Currency, Relevance, Authority, Accuracy and Purpose (which, however, has the defect of including formal aspects and being difficult for a student to complete), or one can activate the Civic online reasoning curriculum, aimed at teaching "lateral reading" strategies to assess the credibility of digital content (Wineburg et al., 2021).

We have, it is true, devoted considerable space to highlighting the advantages and opportunities offered by the two didactic paths to lead students to think historically, but we do not wish to conceal their limitations, which, especially in the Italian context, may reside in organisational and managerial difficulties and

in problems concerning the regulatory framework governing teacher training and curricula. With respect to the first issue, the teaching paths are planned for 15–18 hours, thus relatively contained but not derisory compared to the annual amount of hours traditionally assigned to the study of history. A solution could be in the sharing of the allotted hours with other teachers of disciplines that could hopefully be involved in the project, in order to give it that interdisciplinary depth in, as mentioned above, an intercultural key, but the willingness to collaborative planning of this kind – particularly in secondary schools – is not widespread: it is a hope that in reality is not sustained, which, in the high schools, is further conditioned by the long list of contents envisaged by the "National Indications", which for many teachers turn into the priority of "finishing the syllabus" to the detriment of new teaching and learning paths. Linked to this aspect is the absence, to date, of a stable initial training course for teachers that would prepare them solidly in professional skills, starting with the didactic and methodological disciplinary ones, which are particularly necessary for the teaching of history, that is all too often reduced to a transmission of knowledge, without students being able to access and experience the procedures of the historian's profession (Guarracino, 2012). It is not surprising, moreover, if compared to a couple of decades ago there are fewer and fewer university professors in Italy who devote their research to the teaching of history (and in general to disciplinary didactics) and also struggle to advance their careers, given the parameters for evaluating scientific activity calibrated on disciplinary research.

Awareness of the possible difficulties does not, however, cloud the satisfaction that comes from the awareness that the proposed paths give substance to the "Manifesto on High Quality History, Heritage and Citizenship Education: 15 principles for the recognition of the distinctive contribution of history to the development of young people" published in 2013 by EuroClio (European Association of History Educators) and to which the boys and girls, together with their teachers, who will participate, will actively contribute: preventing the misuses of the past; promoting an inclusive approach to the study of the past; advancing educational innovation.

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Chapter 9 Peasants and the rural world in history education: Archeologic objects, maps and historical evidences

Abstract: In recent years, the research on history education suggested new approaches in three basic lines: epistemology, developing historical thinking competencies and bringing different views of historical events, characters and the presence of invisible or controversial topics; active-learning methodologies where the students are able to build their own knowledge; and, lastly, the appearance of new ITC resources that facilitates investigation and cooperative work. The main target of this chapter[1] is to develop a didactic proposal about the invisible topic of rural and urban life in history. The activities are based on the use of historical evidences, cooperative work and investigation. The students are encouraged to reflect on the differences and inequalities between rural and urban world, the conditions of peasants along history and the current problems of the rural context in our society.

Keywords: Rural, urban, bourgeoisie, peasantry, history, education

Introduction and theoretical frame

As Howley (1997) considered, in the last two centuries, the nation-building context served more to debase than to improve the rural circumstances. In fact, the rural life has been considered as an "invisible" topic in the schooling system. That problem does not only concern to history education but, also, to other courses as economics, mathematics, sociology, literature or philosophy.

Sometimes, teachers don't reflect that space is commonly seen as a neutral category, but according to Green & Letts (2007), are they? Space, and in this case rural contexts, has its own problems, relations and dynamics, and even education must focus attention to that space as a matter of interest for the students.

Authors, like Pini, Moletsane & Mills (2014), consider that educational research has basically concerned with the urban world. And, in terms of Social

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Studies and history education, is still happening in the 21st century. When, in the 19th century, the public educational systems were established, history was an important tool to consolidate the recently-created liberal nation-states. In that context, political parties, economy, institutions, parliaments and the new states responded to the bourgeoisie necessities and its world: the city.

Nowadays, as Hobsbawm (1962) recommended, history could not be a simple chronological account of glories, empires and kings. Instead of that, history must provide the students the tools to develop their own critical thinking, making questions, searching evidences and comparing different points of view. Students need to interpret the past through historical sources (Heller, 1989) in order to understand the present society, its complex relationships and, even, to guide correct decisions in the future.

In that sense, it is important in terms of history education, to respond positively to the current needs and problems of our society including, obviously, the rural world and its historical deficiencies of various kinds (Theobald & Wood, 2010): globalization processes, economy, social relations, rights, wars, democratic values, gender equality, poverty, etc. So, history education has to face new challenges including the history of common people (Moreno-Vera, 2022).

The rural and urban world: Unequal contexts in history education

As we already commented, Hobsbawm (1974) realized that historical discourses just pay attention to the economic urban elites that concentrate political power. Because of that, peasantry and the rural world remain "invisible" (Friedman, 2009) with its cultural, economic and social inequalities (Boltvinik & Mann, 2016).

That invisibility could be tracked along every single historical period: from ancient city-kingdoms in Mesopotamia, the temples and monuments of ancient Egypt, Greek's poleis, Roman cities and roman foundations, Middle ages trade centres (Pinon, 2001), Muslim medinas, European foundations in the "new world" or post-industrial new urbanisations.

History education in the schooling system was born in the 19th century, at the same time that the hard work, the bad living conditions, poverty, the perishable products, the dependence on the weather and the control of process by the big industrial powers provoked a large rural exodus towards the cities.

The consequence is clear, the rural world is invisible for history and, even more, is invisible for history education.

Historically, beyond the implications (economic, social, cultural or political) people of working age fundamentally move towards cities, which are where the economic activity is concentrated. In fact, during the first years of 21st century,

the main consequence is that we live essentially in urban societies (Shatterwaite, 2003). In this situation, population of urban areas keep on growing, while the ageing rural population decreases.

In terms of historical studies, the rural population has become increasingly "invisible" within the political, military and social processes of contemporary history. However, it should be taken into account that, in different periods of history, the conception of urban and rural may have been different (Leeds, 1994).

Urbanisation processes started as the result of sedentarism, stabling animals and the storage of products. The first "modern cities" were established in the area of Near East: Bestansur, Sheik-e- Abad and Çatalhöyük. These cities formed the central nucleus of the political and religious powers as long as the dominant classes.

Even in these first cities, although the rural environment continued to work at full capacity, the archeological sources make no mention of any kind of political representation in public life (Klima, 1979).

The political stability of the Mediterranean area made it possible for these Greek poleis to prosper independently and to increase in size to the point of becoming great centres of population. Thus, for the design of new poleis arising due to the growth of Greek thalassocracy in the Mediterranean, the Greeks developed a model of urban planning which implied more than a mere set of buildings and designed a complete model to provide a positive response to the needs of a completely civilised community.

Therefore, the acropolis, a high city, continued to exist as a ceremonial site and a refuge (in case of attack), while the population established itself in the Asty or low city. Here, there were public places such as the Agora (an open public space which became the political, social and economic centre of the polis), the defensive walls (due to the political independence of each polis, which could result in confrontations), recreational places, such as the theatre or the stadium (dedicated to sporting events). The most widespread urban planning model was the grid plan, created by the Greek mathematician Hippodamus of Miletus. Streets were designed at right angles, creating rectangular blocks of houses, and were divided in importance according to their width: streets of 5–10 metres in width (main streets) and those of less than 5 metres in width (secondary streets).

Roman society inherited many of the Greek traditions, including, of course, the orthogonal urban planning. Housing was divided into quadrangular blocks cutting streets at right angles. The main streets were the Cardo (north-south) and the Decumanus (east-west), at the intersection of which was located the forum, a large public space which constituted the social centre of community life (temples, palaces and administrative centres).

Before the definitive conquest of the city of Rome by the Ostrogoths (476 A.D.), a progressive ruralisation of the population was under way. In words of Baron et al. (2019) this should not be understood as a sign of social decline, as the cities did not disappear. Rural populations were strengthened as a strategy for resilience and to ensure agrarian and livestock production and the delivery of food to the population.

Late ancient ruralisation was maintained in the west of continental Europe whereas, during the Middle Ages, great urbanisation took place in the Islamic and Byzantine Empires.

As Portass (2021) indicated, contrary to popular belief, rural peasantry was fundamental in the establishment of feudal economy. Agrarian and livestock production remained stable (independently of who was in power), thus ensuring the subsistence and functioning of the system of vassalage. This economic stability and dynamism brought about the gradual growth of the urban population during the late Middle Ages (10th–15th centuries) as the towns and cities again became strategic hubs for trade and economic transactions.

From the Late Modern period onwards, cities have undergone a series of morphological changes brought about by new urban needs. For instance, the Industrial Revolution led to a significant rural exodus and the massive arrival of inhabitants of working age to cities. Factories and industries were installed on the outskirts of the cities (extending beyond the old medieval walls and, in many cases, destroying them). This led to the need for new housing concentrated in the suburbs and on the outskirts of the cities. In most cases, these were working-class neighbourhoods in which high-rise buildings accumulated to make the most of the space, leading to a high degree of massification and population density with the subsequent negative effect on public services such as education, healthcare and transport. However, the main consequence was the rapid decay of these urban areas and the creation of ghettos and marginalised neighbourhoods in economic, labour, social and ethnic terms.

In the 21st century, cities and urban planning began to experience new challenges: environmental problems (Badii et al., 2017), the decentralisation of institutions, the parity of neighbourhoods and the elimination of inequalities. These are, by no means, easy problems to solve and the urban continuities of previous centuries do nothing but make the task more difficult. The concept of the 21st century city includes the creation of more pleasant outskirts, with wider avenues and the inclusion of urban transport (trams, metro, bus), the creation and promotion of cycle lanes to increase safety and the use of environmentally sustainable means of transport to help reduce pollution levels in large cities.

Peasantry: Economic inequalities in a capitalist urban world

There has historically been a complex difference between the participation of peasantry in socio-political processes and that of the urban population. In fact, in words of Leeds (1994) these groups are in different positions of the "social order" within the globalised society of today, in which the bourgeois and urban social classes maintain their (fundamentally economic) control over peasants and the rural population as a whole.

Peasantry and the rural population have certain defining characteristics by which they can be identified, according to Boltvinik and Mann (2016). On the one hand, agrarian production has a discontinuous character due to the biological cycles of plants and animals and to their dependence on meteorological conditions.

In addition, in the rural environment, most of the products offered to the economic market are perishable (Boltvinik & Mann, 2016) and the great capitals which acquire them can dominate and impose the prices as, if they are not sold in time, they end up losing their usefulness. That implies the persistence of an impoverished peasantry far removed from the great centres of economic and political power in our society where there is an imbalance between the work done, the time spent, the physical effort made and the economic retribution received for their products, which often does not even cover the costs of their production.

In addition to these economic barriers, there are other obstacles by which the rural population in Europe can be identified. On the one hand, gender inequality still exists, as the work (both in agriculture and livestock rearing) is frequently carried out by women who either do not receive a salary or are very poorly paid. On the other hand, there are social and cultural obstacles due to the fact that as the work is physically hard and not well paid. It is commonly carried out by migrant populations, which settle in rural areas but which, in many cases, cannot participate actively (due to administrative and bureaucratic issues) in the political decisions of the area in which they live.

Bourgeoisie boom and political power

From the middle of the 19th century, Europe underwent a great industrial, economic, political and social revolution and experienced significant change from the countryside to the cities where great industrial capital and an impoverished working-class population originating from rural areas began to concentrate.

In truth, any urban centre, from the tribal settlements of prehistory to the great megalopolises of the present day, functions as a space for trading, transfer

and communication. However, cities today also have other functions, such as being the seat of different institutions (governments, religions, education, healthcare, justice, etc.), as well as hosting a varied population dependent on different professional specialities or fields of knowledge. Therefore, in words of Leeds (1994) historical discourse has focused on the interests of the "specialised" urban classes and has repeatedly omitted the rural "subclass", which is considered to be "unspecialised".

The urban bourgeois classes of present-day Europe base their political and economic power on the liberal revolutions of the mid-19th century, in which they consolidated their quotas of representative power to the detriment of other dominant social classes: parliamentarism in order to control the nobility and the monarchy (e.g., in England and the United States) and confiscation to control ecclesiastical power (e.g., Spain).

Economically, the urban bourgeoisie, which arose in the 19th century, based its growth on industrial development with the support of the cheap extraction of raw materials (imperialism and colonialism) and the control of salaries and working conditions of the working class which emigrated from the countryside to the city in search of greater job stability, even though it was just as badly paid.

Therefore, socially, European cities are characterised by a great economic dichotomy: in the same context there are bourgeois neighbourhoods with acceptable living conditions, better buildings, larger houses, better cleaning, better communication connections, better educational and cultural services, and other (normally peripheral) neighbourhoods with worse communications, educational and healthcare services, in which a more impoverished and working-class population is concentrated.

Between these two urban realities, according to Dejung et al. (2019), there is the urban middle class, which originated from the urban growth of the 19th and 20th centuries, with citizens who, in spite of a lack of economic privilege, actively participate in the social and political life of the city, gaining access to the highest levels of education and intellect.

The use of evidences to an accurate and scientific learning of history

The new approaches in history education are linked to the development of historical thinking competencies in the classrooms, the use of new resources and technology, and, lastly, the presence of active-learning methodologies to research cooperatively (Gómez-Carrasco et al., 2019; 2020 & 2022).

In that sense, the presence of these thinking skills is not accidental if not, as Counsell, Burn & Chapman (2016) commented: “the field of history education is increasingly enriched by a wealth of published teacher-authored research” (p. 1).

Among “the big six historical thinking concepts” that Seixas & Morton (2013) highlighted, some authors as Gibson & Case (2019) pay special attention to learning history through historical evidences. In fact, Gibson & Case (2019) think that the pupils must be taught to think historically by interpreting historical sources and evidences. That way, they can challenge problematic topics, questioning themselves about historical assumptions, and identifying the points of view inherent in the national historical narratives they encounter. In fact, learning history through historical sources is something crucial students, but also for teachers that require a greater degree of knowledge when they want to use historical evidences in classes, both primary and secondary (Moreno-Vera, Ponsoda & Blanes, 2021).

This use of historical evidences and comparing different historical sources is especially important for overcoming the discriminatory views about minorities and invisible collectives as happens with everything related to the rural world and peasantry.

Carretero (2017) noticed that master national narratives are possible obstacles to fully understand troubles or problematic topics when learning history. In his mind, it is important to link in our classes two key concepts: historical thinking competencies and historical consciousness. Carretero (2017) explained how historical events and representations of history are not just present as conceptual knowledge in books but on the contrary they are alive as well and can also influence our daily lives, both as individuals and societies.

But, not just the books. Our students reach knowledge also through western popular productions, such as Hollywood films, tales, TV series or music. In that sense, Carretero (2017) distinguished between academic history, school history and popular history. And all of the have some influence on the other two.

To enrich this national narrative view of the past, some authors as Barton & Levstik (2004) or Wineburg (2001) suggest to overcome the traditional goals of learning history. Recently, Barton (2008 & 2017) proposed new approaches like understand the past in a complex manner; to distinguish different historical periods through the appropriate comprehension of historical time; to understand historical multicausality linking the past with the present and to approach the methodology used by historians, such as using evidences and comparing sources (Wineburg et al., 2011).

Activities to apply historical thinking competencies

In order to work, with our students, the topic of rural and urban world through historical thinking competencies (Seixas & Morton, 2013) this chapter proposes three different activities, divided into sessions. All the exercises encourage the students to build their own knowledge researching in groups through primary or secondary sources and evidences (Prats, 2001).

Landscape, pre-history and the rural life in Europe

In the first suggestion, the teacher will divide the activity into four different sessions (more or less of 50 minutes each of them) and the students will work in teams of four or five members.

The complete activity proposes the following didactic objectives:

- To elaborate a timeline of prehistory
- To explain the Neolithic revolution: agriculture and cattle raising
- To use the archeological method
- To investigate in groups through historical sources
- To argument changes and continuities in the rural life
- To debate about current inequalities in the rural world

This specific goals are related to three historical thinking competencies: historical significance, change and continuity and the use of historical evidences (Seixas & Peck, 2004).

The didactic sequence of the activity is based on four sessions:

Session 1: The teacher divided the students into groups of 4–5 people each one. Then the teacher starts a "Circle of viewpoints" asking in each group if the know the time and characteristics of the pre-history and if they are able to distinguish between Paleolithic and Neolithic.

After the discussion in small groups, the teacher will ask in big group to make a brainstorming with their previous knowledge. After that, in the small groups the students will elaborate their own Pre-history timeline ordering the most relevant facts of that period.

Session 2: The teacher will prepare an archeological bucket for each group and following the archeological method and using the archeological tools, the students have to discover a historical evidence "Roman mosaic of the moths

(Otranto Cathedral)"[2]. In this source the students can observe that in April (plant trees and sow) and August (harvest) there are works related to the rural life. They have to elaborate a description of these two months and explaining when and how agriculture was discovered.

Session 3: The teacher will ask the students to research and investigate in groups about the changes and continuities in the rural world (instruments, techniques, new products, tools, distribution, changes in other historical periods) and the difficulties that people living in rural areas have to face nowadays (lack of services, low prices of the products, climate change, rural exodus, gender inequalities, poverty, etc.)

Session 4: With the information found, each group of students must elaborate an infographic (with application like Canva or Genially) to select and organize the information learned. In the last 20 minutes, each group have to make an oral presentation explaining the characteristics of pre-history, the importance of the Neolithic revolution and the changes and difficulties of nowadays rural world.

In order to assess the activity proposed, the teacher will use a rubric based on the exercises developed by the students (Table 1). The evaluation, consequently, is going to be continuous and formative.

Table 1. Rubric to evaluate the activity "Landscampe, pre-history and rural life in Europe".

Ítem	**A – Done**	**B – Regular**	**C – Not reached**
Pre-history Timeline			
Neolithic revolution			
Changes, continuities and difficulties in rural life			

First cities and western urbanism through maps

The second activity will be based on maps as a didactic tool to teach history. In this exercise, the teacher will divide activity in four sessions. The students should create teams of 4 or 5 people each one.

In this case, the specific objectives are:

2 https://www.terredotranto.it/cattedrale.php

- To locate in Google Earth different cities and types of urbanism
- To order, in a timeline, cities of all periods
- To compare the changes and continuities among the cities
- To explain why these changes happen
- To argument the new challenges that face the cities nowadays
- To search the maps of the cities studied and to elaborate a lapbook explaining the changes in time and the consequences of a sustainable development of the cities

This goals are related to five historical thinking competencies: historical significance, change and continuity, cause and consequence, historical evidences and the ethical dimension of history.

Session 1: The teacher will establish a brainstorming exercise to evaluate their previous knowledge about urbanism and the cities. After ten minutes of debate, the teacher will divide the students into groups of 4–5 people and using the computers the students will be ask to complete the "cities gymkhana in google earth".

The teacher will just give them the geographical coordinates and the students have to locate and discover the hidden city using Google Earth application. There will be 8 cities:

- 37°39'59.20"N – 32°49'32.51"E (Çatalhoyük)
- 32°32'32.52"N – 44°25'15.69"E (Babylon)
- 37°31'45.92"N – 27°16'49.39"E (Miletus)
- 40°44'57.25"N – 14°29'5.31"E (Pompeii)
- 37°52'43.82"N – 4°46'45.49"W (Córdoba)
- 44°29'37.32"N – 11°20'35.54"E (Bologna)
- 40°46'20.78"N – 73°58'17.66"W (New York)
- 41°23'11.50"N – 2°10'12.71"E (Barcelona)

Session 2: The students, in small groups, have to compare the maps provided by the teacher of the cities studied and elaborate a timeline ordering the different maps of the cities.

Session 3: The students have to create a lapbook, in small groups, using the maps and explaining the characteristics of each kind of urbanization. They, also, are asked to read the EU Commission report called "The Future of cities"[3] and

3 https://urban.jrc.ec.europa.eu/thefutureofcities/

explain in their lapbooks what are the main and more significant problems and challenges that we face for our future cities.

Session 4: The students have to create a short video (between 2 and 5 minutes) showing and explaining the lapbook previously created.

The activity will be evaluated in an on-going assessment using the following rubric and evaluation criteria (Table 2):

Table 2. Rubric for the activity "First cities and western urbanism through maps".

Ítem	A – Done	B – Regular	C – Not reached
Location in Google Earth			
Timeline of the cities			
New challenges and problems for the future of cities			

What changed?

The third, and last, proposal will be divided in two sessions. The students will be asked to research and argue through historical evidences about the Industrial Revolution and the situation and conditions of working classes in the cities.

The didactic goals are:

- To know the situation of the English proletariat at the beginning of the industrial revolution.
- To manage historical sources.
- To conduct inquiries outside the classroom.
- To work cooperatively in teams
- To assess the achievements of the labor movement in improving working conditions.

Reflect on these conditions at present and soon.

The historical thinking competencies linked to this activity are: historical perspective, change and continuity, the use of historical evidences and to discuss the ethical dimension of history.

The teaching sequence:

Session 1: The teacher presents and develops the changes and social consequences of the industrial revolution. After that, the teacher will divide the students

into groups of 4–5 people and will provide them with two texts about English workers at the beginning of the 19th century, specifically the laws that prohibited unions and the performance of the Luddites in front of the machines[4].

The groups of students must read the texts and talk among themselves to obtain a common position that they will present to the teacher and the rest of their classmates.

After the exposition of all the groups of students, the teacher asks each student to interview at home their grandparents, parents, other relatives, or neighbours about their current working conditions, if they are like those of two hundred years ago, if they understand the Luddites, if they would react like them or what they would do in a similar position, etc. All the answers should be written down in a notebook or even recorded a short video of each interview.

Session 2: Meeting again in the same groups, each student presents the results to their classmates and together they try to offer a group response to the rest of the class. When all the groups have presented, the teacher will ask them to prepare a final report summing up the conclusions they have reached after the teaching explanations, the reading of the texts, the interviews, and the oral exchange with their classmates. The report must be delivered to the teacher the following session.

As happens in the previous proposals, the evaluation will be continuous and formative and the teacher could use the following rubric (Table 3):

Table 3. Rubric to evaluate the activity "What changed?"

Ítem	**A – Done**	**B – Regular**	**C – Not reached**
Use of historical sources			
Teamwork			
Reflection on the changes and permanence in the situation of the working class			
Presentation of the final report			

4 The first text is located: https://www.marxists.org/history/england/combination-laws/combination-laws-1800.htm whilst the second text: http://ludditebicentenary.blogspot.com/2012/03/9th-march-1812-letter-from-ned-ludd.html

Conclusion

In 2018, Sam Wineburg published the book "Why learn history (when it's already in your phone)". In this book's introduction, he explained how in 2010 The Washington Post newspaper published an article about the textbook "Our Virginia, past and present" for 4th grade (Primary Education). In the textbook, the students could read that "Thousands of southern blacks fought in the Confederate ranks, including two battalions under the command of Stonewall Jackson". For Winebug (2018) it is well known that dozens of black slaves aid the confederate army as cookers and laborers, but there is no document or source that evidence that "battalions of slaves" fought for the southern forces. No black slaves fought to continue being enslaved. When The Washington Post asked where did the author find the support for such a "strange" affirmation, the author explained that she conducted her research … on the internet. She consulted the website of "Sons of the Confederate Veterans", a patriotic southern association.

Looking for information nowadays is easy for us. We can find almost everything on the internet, but it is crucial to make our students understand that to study history we have to be critical with the sources, use the method of comparing evidences, ask ourselves who the producer of the source is and, even, ask ourselves if that author is accurate.

As authors like Prats (2001) considered, using the method of historians to create new knowledge is a basic skill that we, as teachers, need to work with our pupils. Consulting primary sources and looking for evidences. Comparing different points of view and making our students to interpret the facts and events with critical eyes (Heller, 1989).

The use of historical evidences is one of the most important historical thinking competencies that Seixas & Morton (2013) suggested us, as teachers, to develop among our students.

In this chapter, the authors proposed as main goal the design and description of three learning activities based on the use of historical evidences (and other historical thinking skills) to study, through new approaches, the "invisible" topic (Friedman, 2009) of rural and urban world, paying special attention to the context of peasantry and the rural areas with its cultural, social and economic inequalities (Boltvinik & Mann, 2016) instead of the traditional view of urban contexts and its bourgeoisie elite (Hobsbawm, 1974).

The didactic proposal started with the first activity creating an archeological bucket in classroom. That way, the students will search for archeological evidences (using the roman mosaic of the months in Otranto's Cathedral) and learning the rural and agricultural processes (plant trees, sow, harvest, etc.).

In the second activity, the students are proposed to use maps as sources to understand the process of urbanism. They have to complete a Google Earth gymkhana to find the hidden cities through their geographical coordinates. In addition to the use of historical evidences, they will be asked to explain the changes and continuities in urban planning.

The third, and last, activity is based on written historical sources and evidences. The students will argue and discuss the problems of the working class during the Industrial revolution through the comparison of texts about the Luddite's revolts in England.

In conclusion, as Gibson & Case (2019) considered, the students should be able to think historically by interpreting historical sources and accurate evidences. Our students will develop, in that sense, critical thinking skills, facing problematic and controversial issues, questioning themselves about traditional historical assumptions, identifying different viewpoints and overcoming the national and glorious narratives that are still present in textbooks (Carretero, 2017).

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Chapter 10. Historical digital literacy – Social media and the multicultural classroom

Abstract: Over the past three years, the Western world has seen many conflicts around history. Statues have been torn down, anniversaries have been debated, historical figures have been re-evaluated, and many have begun to question or defend their own national historical narrative. Social media has heightened the debate, with antagonists engaging in fierce and usually not very nuanced debates on Twitter and Facebook. In this text, we try to build a digital historical didactic framework for how teachers can work with controversial history in the multi-cultural classroom by using social media as a resource. Through an analysis of second order concepts such as significance, historical perspective, and historical empathy based on a historical cultural perspective and with the use of history in focus, we hope that teachers in the classroom will be able to contribute to increased intercultural competence. In a final example, we analyze how people with different backgrounds and different purposes in a thread on Twitter debate the history behind the celebration of Columbus Day in a city in the USA.

Keywords: History culture, use of history, second order concepts, inter-cultural competence, social media, Columbus Day

Introduction

Six men sits outside a coffee shop. One of them is reading a newspaper.

Bobby: *It happens. Massachusetts! Listen to this shit. "New Jersey Council of Indian Affairs has announced plans "to disrupt Monday's Columbus Day Parade in Newark. "Council Chairman, Del Redclay, Professor of Cultural Anthropology /…/ says council members and supporters will lie down "in the path of Columbus Day marchers " 'in protest of Columbus' role in the genocide " 'of America's native peoples. ' "To launch their protest, the Native Americans and their sympathizers "plan to begin a deathwatch tomorrow "over the statue of Columbus in Christopher Columbus Park. "*

Patsy: *Some f*cking balls, bad-mouthing America, especially now.*

Furio: *I thought that Columbus was the hero of America.*

Ralph: *See, it's these Indians and the Commie f*cks. They wanna paint Columbus as a slave trader instead of an explorer.*

Cristopher: *You gotta admit, they did get massacred, the Indians.*

Silvio: *We gave them a bunch of shit to make up for that. Land, reservations. And now they got the casinos.*

Vito: *What the f*ck we ever get we didn't have to work for?*
Bobby: *I wouldn't mind sitting all day smoking mushrooms and collecting government checks.*
Silvio: *You know what it is? I'll tell you what it is. It's anti-Italian discrimination. Columbus Day is a day of Italian pride. It's our holiday, and they wanna take it away.*
Furio: *F*ck them. But I never liked Columbus. In Napoli, a lot of people are not so happy for Columbus – 'cause he was from Genova.*
Ralph: *What's the problem with Genova?*
Furio: *The North of Italy always have the money and the power. They punish the South since hundreds of years. Even today, they put up their nose at us, like we're peasants. I hate the North.*
Vito: *Jesus, take it easy.*
Silvio: *I'm gonna take action, here.*

(Sopranos, Columbus Day, 2002)

The above passage is from an episode in the famous television series The Sopranos. It centres on Tony Soprano, the head of an Italian American crime family where Italian roots are tenderly cared for. Tony and his associate are reading a newspaper article reporting a planned action on Columbus Day with a lie-in strike and speeches to be held at the Columbus Statue. The Sopranos perceive this as pure provocation. For them, Columbus is a historical person of great positive significance.

The above scene in the series depicts a clash between cultural identities. Historical cultural identities are created and recreated via narratives constructed from a perceived group's common past. The two narratives that clash above are completely different even though they deal with the same past and same historical person. One narrative concerns Columbus as an agent whose role is to be the hero. Columbus is credited with good qualities, such as being brave and ambitious, and seems to be a part of a historical narrative that tells the story of who Italian Americans are and how they came to America. Of course, none of the Soprano members around the table have any connections to Columbus. Nevertheless, that Columbus was Italian makes him the perfect beginning of a story that ends with Italian Americans' rights to be part of the United States. Historical facts such as Columbus never actually having landed in what was to become the United States and that he sailed under the Spanish flag are of little importance as the Sopranos use history to construct a collective memory and context-creating relationships that build their identity around a common origin.

Against this narrative stands another: in the scene from Sopranos is the narrative of the oppression of the indigenous people. This narrative, as we shall see, describes a lost golden age. Here, Columbus' landing represents the beginning of an ongoing decline of an ancient culture; and based on this

narrative, the celebration of Columbus is perceived as offensive. It is a structural narrative about the negative consequences of European migration to America. This connects to Rousso's statement about a collective memory based in tragedy: "Catastrophic experiences, often connected to what has been described as the original and founding tragedy of the identity of certain peoples" (Rousso, 2016, p. 39).

In the scene we also encounter a third story. Furio is not Italian American but an Italian from the southern part of Italy. For Furio, Columbus represents the northern rich parts of Italy that oppressed the people from the poorer southern parts. This third narrative will, however, not be part of the analysis in this chapter. Nevertheless, the comments of this southern Italian remind us of the complexity of the issue.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the history didactic possibilities of analysing the use of controversial history in social media in a classroom setting that aims to increase the students' awareness of the importance of history in the construction of different collective identities. Such teaching is essential if one wants to promote the development of the students' digital intercultural competence. We will show how history teaching can become an important subject in helping the students to understand controversial issues in their own contemporary society. Perceived and invented historical wrongdoings are dangerous weapons when different groups meet and negotiate spatial and temporal rights. A teaching that can make these historical-cultural processes visible and help students analyse statements about history can increase tolerance and lead to more rewarding intercultural encounters. Intercultural is a normative concept that assumes mutual respect and interactions between members from different cultural communities in a society. Intercultural communication can thereby lead to a dialogue that has the potential to ease conflicts and cultural divisions (Nordgren & Johansson, 2015).

Teaching history to develop intercultural skills

Understanding teaching of history as a way to develop these needed skills and attitudes among the students implies two starting points of how to understand history and the art of history teaching. First, the focus for history teaching must be that of the contemporary and the future. History teaching is not, in this case, first and foremost to teach students more about the past. Rather, the mission turns to teach the students in what ways they and others are history today, namely, understanding history from the inside of a certain historical culture. This makes history urgent in the contemporary and for future acts. Through this kind of

teaching, the individual student should have the opportunity to get an image of both who she and others are and where she and others are situated in time. Historical orientation in the contemporary is not only a matter of knowing but also that of being and wanting. Seixas maintains that history education should "promote students' understanding of their own historicity, their embeddedness in historical processes" (Seixas, 2007, p. 446), and thereby the focus on the contemporary. In addition, Wertsch asserts that history becomes most powerful to the students when it can be used to answer important current questions about "relationships, identity, mortality, and agency" (Wertsch, 2004, p. 280). Moving the purpose of history teaching from the past to the contemporary and the future can make it more valuable to the students, not least in the multi-cultural classroom where different historical cultures need to co-exist.

The second starting point for history teaching in this context entails that teaching history to develop intercultural competencies must acknowledge history and the perception of history as a cultural phenomenon, where historical culture and the use of history become carrying concepts to understand how people from different cultures use history to orient, communicate, build identities and act (Nordgren & Johansson, 2015). For Nordgren and Johansson (2015) using history to orient in the contemporary society, history education should focus on three knowledges. Firstly, different cultural groups' use of history should be represented in the history teaching. Secondly, students should understand how this knowledge makes it easier to interpret others' use of history. Thirdly, history should be presented as a means to understand the students' own multicultural contemporary.

To understand how this can be done, we will start from the concept of historical culture to create an overall theory of how history supports and creates different collective identities. We will argue that this is not about more or less legitimate interpretations of history, although this is also true, but that historical culture creates narratives that appeal to the deeper needs of humans' existential being. The narratives appeal not only to the need to be part of a historical process that extends beyond one's own life and to be part of a group, but also sometimes to the need to be able to point out threats from a perceived Other. The narratives used in a historical culture thereby shape collective identities.

Further, we contend that certain historical thinking concepts can be useful in the history classroom. To realise this, we analyse how historical thinking concepts can help us understand the contemporary use of history. The concepts are thereby also understood as a part of and as used in a certain historical culture. The current concepts are that of *historical significance*, *historical perspective* and *historical empathy*. As every discipline has its own vocabulary, concepts, text

structure and grammar, how one negotiates this in a certain subject is what is referred to as disciplinary literacy (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). However, this is a relative term and a work in progress. This chapter is a way to understand important historical concepts in a new context: that of analysing use of history in the contemporary. Thus, we suggest a widening of the understanding of what historical literacy is, that is, a conceptual learning and thinking grounded in the concepts of use of history and historical culture.

Based on this line of reasoning, we use the three concepts – historical significance, historical perspective and historical empathy – to understand and to analyse a historical debate about Columbus Day in a Twitter thread. The main reasons for our study are, on one hand, the wave of conflicts about history that has swept the Western world in recent years, often in the form of attacks on historical statues erected by previous generations whose intentions the younger generations no longer share and even perceive as offensive. On the other hand, social media is used by adolescents a great deal, and thereby a place where they meet history and are confronted by use of history. This empirical part should be understood as an example of how the historical thinking concepts can be used in the classroom to develop intercultural competencies when different narratives from different historical cultures clash.

Historical culture

Analytically, historical culture can firstly be said to be a "pantry" filled with historically attributed significant events. These events are the content of a historical culture. Secondly, the content is transformed into meaningful narratives that weave together the actualized past, the present and the future. Historical culture becomes a network of narratives, symbols and concepts that creates meaning of the flow of time in a society. Thirdly, it consists of members of the community who are in dialogue with the historical culture and who, by participating in this culture, create collective memories, and what Paul Ricoeur calls a narrative identity (Ricoeur, 1985). Identity, narrative and actualized pasts are therefore interconnected in an ongoing dialog in and between historical cultures.

The form of the narratives means they can be analysed structurally as different narrative patterns. One example is that of Hayden White's concept of tropes. The function of the tropes – such as metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche and irony – is that they indirectly characterize an object by activating collective notions (White, 2014). The construction of narratives in a historical culture can also be understood from what Wertsch (2004) calls narrative templates, that is,

certain ways of structural understanding and ways of constructing narratives in a culture. Wertsch has analysed Russian narratives about the Great Patriotic War and found that generations of Russians tell the same story. Another example of form is Jörn Rüsen's anthropological typology of how the flow of time is shaped and given meaning. Through the patterns of stories, the past is assigned meaning via various cultural symbols and concepts. Rüsen expounds, "Here time is manifested as culture: it has the features of symbols and languages, of images and concepts" (Rüsen, 2016, p. 11). For instance, time becomes a mythical past by being traced to an origin. The use of Columbus is, as we shall see, a good example of how myths of origins are constructed. By being shaped into a series of events, it becomes historic. History books in school often follow this pattern of explanation via cause and consequences. Narrative patterns can also be about salvation or the forthcoming apocalypse. The present narrative about the climate crisis is a good example of a story about an apocalypse and functions as a strong call for immediate action. Another type of pattern is the compressing of time where the past becomes mysterious. For instance, a long time is shaped into a specific moment (Rüsen, 2016). The French Revolution is an example of such a moment that is given extra importance in the flow of time. In this chapter, we understand Columbus' landing in America as such a compression of time, and therefore given extra importance in different historical cultures and their narratives about this historical event. These different forms of narratives are equally important for both the sender and the receiver of historical narratives. History is perceived as meaningful only if it is inserted into the patterns given in a certain culture and if those who interpret it are familiar with the same cultural patterns. The explanation is that history is not only around us "but in us as thought patterns and future dispositions of action" [authors´ translation from Swedish] (Karlsson, 2010, p. 19 f.). Narrative patterns are tools with the potential to create meaning. Cultural patterns infuse meaning into the historical content and help us from a very young age to orient in the temporal dimension of the past, the present and the future (Rudnert, 2019).

Ricoeur goes one step further. For Ricoeur, narrative ultimately becomes a way of understanding identity as a narrative identity. We tell the story of ourselves in narratives. In these historical narratives, through the practices of orientation, the historical past is woven together with fictional qualities in certain patterns. These fictional qualities can be understood as White's tropes or as Rüsen's typology of patterns. In dialogue with historical narratives, collective identity is created. People become participants in a historical culture by growing up in a context of certain narratives shaping their identity. Within this historical culture, common

collective memories and what Ricoeur calls narrative identity are created and recreated inside the community.

Lev Vygotsky claimed that we remember by tying a knot around the finger (Vygotsky, 1978). Days of remembrance, such as Columbus Day, become the knots that build up the historical culture; and with the double existence of a statue in the room, a place and a day in the calendar, we create a gathering point where collective memories can be actualized, strengthened and passed on to the next generation. Ricoeur maintains that we create archives, like museums, not only to remember the past but also to influence the next generation with what we want them to remember in the future (Ricoeur, 1985).

If we understand historical culture in these ways, we must understand that we approach history with different identities. And this, of course, affects how we understand and use historical thinking concepts in certain contexts.

How to understand historical thinking concepts in historical cultures

Migration, multiculturalism and globalization have for some decades challenged the national history teaching and questioned what the task of history in the schools should consider as urgent (Banks, 2009; Carretero et al., 2012; Nash et al., 2000). At the same time, research has shown that many students today do not see the value of school history and how it relates to their own lives and identities. In other words, history as a school subject does not seem important to students in their own contemporary lives (Haydn & Harris, 2010; Lee & Howson, 2009; Van Straaten et al., 2018).

According to VanSledright (2008), students bring a wide variety of images, ideas and conceptions about the past to the history classroom. This condition reflects sociocultural assumptions about the world but can also reveal a sense of the self. The internalized memories, cultural codes and norms constitute the students' being in time. VanSledright argues that such temporal beings constitute prior knowledge to the student when she is learning historical thinking and understanding. Thereby, the researcher's argumentation looks a lot like the consequences of living within a certain historical culture, and he describes how students already have formed conceptualizations and culturally memories of the past as they learn history in school.

In addition, Peck (2018) has showed how the students' identities shape their understanding of history. She describes five ways in which students' national, ethnic and indigenous identities can influence their understanding of history: the construction of historical narratives, the evaluation of historical evidence, the

judgment of historical actors, the perceptions of progress and decline in history, and the ascription of historical significance. The students' identities build a sense of historical being that makes sense of their own place in their own constructed historical continuum. Popa argues:

> *Recent literature has significantly attended to how students' identities—personal heritage and background, and their lived experiences as members of different family, ethnic, racial, and cultural groups and as consumers of mainstream and popular media—play a crucial role in their construction of historical knowledge.*
>
> (Popa, 2021, p. 25)

What Popa is referring to is nothing other than historical cultures' strong impact on how we understand, orient through and use history.

The notion of historical culture becomes even more important when attributing significance to heritage in the context of multicultural classrooms. In sum, articulating collective historical narrative identity in the teaching of history can help the students to recognize and to question their own preconceptions, their temporal bearings and their common beliefs. In this chapter, we outline how the historical thinking concepts of historical significance, historical perspective and historical empathy can be used to turn the students' preconceptions to that of intercultural competencies. We hope to do this in a way that utilizes the second order concepts' ability to help disciplinary thinking, but at the same time keep history as something important in the students' contemporary lives.

Instead of asking "What is significant in the past", we ask "Why is this past significant today?" Seixas points to such a question as he declares that significance lies not only in the past itself but also in the cultural frames and values of those who study it (Seixas, 1997), essentially significance connects to a contemporary historical culture. Using *The Big Six Historical Thinking Concepts* by Morton and Seixas (2013), we interpret their starting points for historical significance as a way to also develop intercultural competencies. Starting with *change*, they ask if a past event resulted in change and had deep consequences for people in the past. The significance in the context of this chapter is, however, that of contemporary historical culture and the content of the narratives. Consequently, the question should be about in what way a past event is used today? Change in history occurs all the time, and teachers must make choices regarding what history to cover in the classroom. The criteria to make these choices are not part of the past itself. Rather, they are social constructs emanating in a later historical culture. "People and events are important not in and of themselves, but because a social consensus has developed that they were", as Barton notes (2005, p 10). This social consensus is made up in a certain historical culture. If we want to understand

how other parts of history, forgotten in our own historical culture, are significant today, we must also pay attention to other historical cultures.

The second criteria for historical significance for Seixas and Morton concerns *revealing*. Something can still be significant without causing historical change because it reveals something important to us today. Significance in this way shows how particular pasts make meaning for people today. The significance of a past event or context is not influenced by the past itself, but by how it shapes orientation and understanding for people today. Women and minorities, for example, have received increased attention when these groups demanded recognition in their own contemporary, which has led to new searches for their historical experiences, and new pasts have become significant with new questions about the past. Political controversies often involve historical arguments, and they include that of historical significance, while polarized groups argue over whose experiences and history is worth remembering (Barton & Levstik, 1998). Again, we must adjust the question for the purpose of this chapter: What pasts reveals meaning to the contemporary different historical cultures and narratives I try to understand?

The last criteria for Seixa and Morton's historical significance is that of the construction of historical significance, the narration that is. History is narrated (Ricoeur, 1984; White, 2014), which means that the narration gives the past meaning. In this way, the narration itself establishes the significance. Lowenthal (1985) concludes that the narrator's perspective shapes her selection of historical events, but it is up to the receiver what to do with the narration. This is very true if we want to develop intercultural competencies. The students should be able to understand what a narration wants to tell, the patterns of the narration: Is it about success or adversity, about good or evil, or about struggles for rights and recognition? An important aspect in the developing of intercultural competencies is the question how a narration can orientate in the contemporary, and what consequences this might have. The ability to deconstruct narrations with the help of questions can both help the students to see contemporary consequences of used narrations and to see different perspectives of a historical event. This leads us to the concept of historical perspective.

First, we do not understand historical perspectives here as a way to understand the historical actors in their past contexts. Rather, we mean an ability to see that historical narratives make certain selections inevitable to make the arguments in the narration obvious. This arguing genre that historical narratives contain (Ricouer, 1984; White, 2014) excludes both many historical events and actors, and thereby other perspectives that can be discerned from the same historical event. A certain narrative often includes certain groups and exclude others,

thereby simultaneously both strengthening and challenging identities of different groups, and constructing and deconstructing identities (Lowenthal, 1998; Carr, 1986; Black, 2005). The construction of narratives in a historical culture can be difficult to make visible, and even more difficult to challenge as they are constructed from certain templates, typologies, patterns or tropes (Wertsch, 2004; Rüsen, 2016; White, 2014). Still, many researchers point to the necessity of dealing with a plurality of perspectives in the history classroom to meet processes of globalization and migration (Seixas, 2007; Shemilt, 2000; Grever, 2007; VanSledright, 2008). To see and to understand different perspectives can open closed narratives (Johansson, 2012; Laville, 2004), help students to understand narratives outside school or the academy (Wineburg, 2000, Seixas et al., 2005), make them aware of different value systems (Nordgren, 2017), and stimulate them to find mutual understanding as responsible citizens (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Working with different historical perspectives in the multicultural classroom should start with the following questions: Which different perspectives do different groups narrate? and What are the meanings in the different narrations? Historical cultures often use history to build strong identities, not least national identities (Ahonen, 2012). To see and to understand different perspectives can help the students to see how their own understandings are constructed from such use of history and make them more willing to also see and understand others' perspectives (Nygren et al., 2017). This confirms the idea that history is interpretational with multiple possible coexisting narratives about the same historical event (Colby, 2008), as with the Italian Americans' and the indigenous peoples' narratives about the Columbus landing.

To see and to understand the Other leads us to the third and final historical thinking concept in this chapter, that of historical empathy. People in the past lived in a different reality, which made them act differently and form different beliefs, values and experiences. How to understand this strange past people has led to much controversy between historians. To Collingwood (1946), it was a work of thought by re-enacting what once happened. He used the concept historical imagination as a way to understand the people of the past. To be able to use historical imagination, the historian must start in the present, where the imagination starts, that is, and go backwards. To be able to do this, Levesque (2008) sees two elements as necessary: an openness for different perspectives and beliefs, and an understanding of a shared humanity that "transcends time, space and culture" (p. 148). What the historian can do, then, is to place this shared humanity in a different past context – a context that shapes different values and beliefs, rendering different acts, that today can seem irrational, but were meaningful in that context. Presentism is, on the other hand, when we

place humanity in a past different context, but use our contemporary values and norms as we interpret its acts instead of trying to understand its historical positionality. The historical method to understand the Other, in a completely different time and culture, can also be a way to understand the Other in our own contemporary. Instead of understanding humanity in another context in the past, we try to understand humanity in another contemporary context, that is, another historical culture. As we have investigated different historical significance in different narratives and different historical perspectives, it is time to understand the Other in another historical culture and ask ourselves what the Other believes and values and what he or she fears and hopes for.

To summarize, based on a theory of historical cultural narratives we have presented three historical thinking concepts as starting points to develop intercultural competencies in the history classroom: historical significance, historical perspective and historical empathy. As we see them as tools to understand contemporary narratives in the multicultural classrooms, this has given us different questions to answer with the help from the second order concepts:

- Historical significance:
  - What past is used?
  - How does a narration create meaning of this past?
  - How does the meaning of a narration create identity?
- Historical perspective:
  - Are different perspectives narrated?
  - How do these narrations create meaning?
- Historical empathy
  - What beliefs and values are there in different historical cultures' narrations?
  - In what ways do these contextualize fears and hopes in different historical cultures?

Social media and developing intercultural competencies

Today history teachers and students have access to an almost unlimited range of digital historical resources (Staley, 2015). This statement corresponds to the idea that digital history is the study of the past using resources like digitalized primary sources, as well as historical narratives or other representations of the past (Cohen & Rosenzweig, 2005; Seefelt & Thomas, 2009). At the same time, the digital media landscape today allows anyone to spread historical statements. This can leave digital users frustrated regarding which internet sources to believe

and not to believe, which is problematic when we seek an informed and critical public essential for a strong democracy.

The Internet, and in particular social media, has over the last decades changed the way in which people outside the schools and universities experience history (Dron, 2015; Tosh, 2008). A Facebook or Twitter post can easily be read by more people than a history book by a prominent historian. Students today use blogs, wikis and discussion forums such as Twitter to make arguments and debate history (Haydn, 2013). There is, however, limited evidence that students use social media to learn more history or to deepen their historical thinking (Crook, 2012; Ofcom, 2013). Moreover, there are warning signals showing that young people have a hard time discerning bias and propaganda in information they get from the Internet and too often also use inaccurate content, misinformation and conspiracy theories in their school work (Bartlett & Miller, 2011; Walsh, 2008). Indeed, Walsh makes the unpleasant statement that although the so-called digital natives may be better at handling the technology, they are not wiser when it comes to assessing the information that reaches them (Walsh, 2008). This is alarming as governments, companies, activists, but also anyone with a historical interest, often promote particular kinds of historical understanding in public history (Conrad et al., 2013). Thus, students need to learn how to uncover manipulative or just bad uses of history on the Internet (Rollet, 2010). Furthermore, they must learn how to see "sweeping generalisations for which there is not adequate evidence" (Macmillan, 2009, p. 37).

However, developing intercultural competencies using digital technology is something more than teaching students how to weigh sources, facts and opinions, and uncover poor use of history. The fact that people, and groups of people with certain interests or stemming from different historical cultures, can discuss and make historical accounts on the Net also means possibilities for the history classroom. Dron (2015) claims, "the exponential rise in social media gives us exponentially more opportunities to learn from and with others" (p. 1). Such an opportunity seems particularly vital to expose and learn how people from different historical cultures perceive and communicate history in order to develop intercultural competencies. In this chapter, we want to use social media as an impact resource for intercultural history teaching – A resource that helps the history teacher to teach in a more powerful way how history actually orients people in their daily lives, and that helps the students to problematize historical accounts, and compels them to question their own preconceptions and understanding (Willingham, 2009).

Columbus Day on Twitter – A case study

Using Twitter to gather data refers us to the method called netnography: a method specifically designed to study online cultures and communities (Toledano, 2017). Netnography as a method understands the human being as historically and culturally situated, and the analysis should be the online experience of people as they argue and negotiate things such as identities, histories and myths (Kozinets et al., 2018). The netnographer use search engines such as Google, but also specialized sites such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and blogs (Kozinets, 2018). The main method for data collection is participant observation, where the researcher takes part of the groups and broadly observes them (Kulavuz-Onal, 2015). Mostly, the task for the netnographer is not to get a true story or reveal strange conspirations, but to understand the meaning making of others. From these insights, the understanding of the Other can be facilitated (Kozinets, 2010).

For this chapter, we wanted to study something we know is a controversial use of history; hence, we chose Columbus Day. On this federal holiday, Columbus is celebrated nationwide as the discoverer of America, with large parades in cities such as New York, Chicago and Cleveland, and most federal agencies and some business closed. In these contexts, Columbus is described as an adventurous traveller who initiates the transformation of a once uncivilized and largely uninhabited continent into the United States of America (Eason et al., 2021). At the same time, many historical accounts reveal him to be a brutal colonizer (Zinn, 2003). Given this, American activists for some decades have sought to eliminate the holiday and replace it with one that honours the experiences of past and contemporary indigenous people (Eason et al., 2021). Anti-Columbus Day efforts in some American states have faced fierce protests (Sasko, 2017). This is a typical struggle for different perspectives in history. Thus, we wanted to know how this is outlined on Twitter and test the concepts of significance, perspective and historical empathy as we have described them. Our goal is not strictly research, but rather an example of how to use Twitter in the history classroom.

On October 12, 2021, Republican congress person Lauren Boebert twittered the following: *Great #ColumbusDay celebration in Pueblo!* This initiated, as so many times before, a long thread where people used history to discuss an important historical event significant for the contemporary, in this case, Columbus Day. Boebert highlights Columbus Day in the town of Pueblo, Colorado, established as trading post in 1842. In 1905, Italian Americans erected a bronze bust of Columbus in the centre of the city, with a nearby memorial wall commemorating many members of Pueblo's large Italian American community. Importantly, this area is also significant in the heritage of ancient native American culture.

Consequently, Boebert's tweet is even more controversial for many people, and the responds to her tweet were immediate:

> AWESOME — Honoring our national hero who literally roasted Native Americans over an open pit, who led his troops as they cut a swath of wanton murder of thousands of Natives Americans, in a place called Pueblo. Perfect!

This first response is clearly sarcastic, with the author dissociating himself from the original tweet. Analysing his tweet using the first concept, the historical significance, it is evident it is the antithesis of what Boebert considers significant. Instead, Columbus is more or less accused of the genocide of Native Americans. Moreover, the choice of Pueblo for the celebration is also problematic for the respondent, as he obviously refers to the Pueblo Indians the place is named after. He takes a stand for the Native Americans, as the meaning of his narrative clearly makes Columbus the perpetrator and the Native Americans the victims. This creates a totally different perspective, the second concept, of Columbus, and one you do not want to identify with. Asking the question from the third concept of historical empathy, we can say that the respondent in this case cares for exposed minorities in contemporary society. Encountering a tweet that honours Columbus Day in a town such as Pueblo causes him to react as this can be seen as a threat to the Native Americans. Not making visible the disastrous consequences for the Native Americans due to European colonisation can mean new abuses in the future. In his response, he therefore criticizes Boebert in two ways: her interpretation of the past is not correct, because Columbus is not a historical person to honour; and her doing it in the wrong place, because of Pueblo's historical roots as an ancient Native American civilization.

Apparently, we have two different historical perspectives in this twitter thread: Boebert's, in which Columbus is described as a hero, a discoverer of America and somebody who should be celebrated; and the first respondent's perspective, in which Columbus is a villain and therefore not should be celebrated. Reading the following thread, we can see how the two different perspectives use history when connecting the past to the present and implicitly give fears and hopes for the future. We begin with the perspective where Columbus is interpreted as a villain in the following tweets – he is accused of killing Native Americans, of being a "slave trader", of being a "murder of thousands of native Americans", and as being a thief of the land of the Native Americans. One of the respondents places Columbus at the beginning of a long historical line of perpetrators: "Tell me how different is Christopher Columbus to Adolf Hitler to Cecil Rhodes and other racists dictatorships." The significance of Columbus becomes what he did to the Native Americans, and it places him in a narrative at

the onset of hundreds of years of ongoing oppression. This is why the historical event has an important significance in the present.

For many of the respondents, the place Boebert chose for her manifestation, that of Pueblo, is interpretated as a place of great significance for native Americans, and therefore is proof of the ongoing oppression:

> Imagine how completely out of touch you have to be to boast about Columbus while in a place named for a Native American tribe.

Many tweets emphasize that there is no such thing as a Columbus Day in Pueblo. Instead the spotlight is on an Indigenous Day, with Boebert being reminded it should be "Happy Indigenous Day" and "The correct term is Indigenous Peoples Day." Many respondents also use Columbus in a contemporary political context and make him a metaphor for today's immigration policy:

> Do you even know who Columbus was? In this day and age you would call him an overseas invader and would accuse him of entering the country illegally!

The respondent makes an anachronistic remark: that if Columbus were to come to the USA today, he would be illegal and not a celebrated hero. Another respondent even tweets that Columbus is the only illegal immigrant that Republicans like Boebert enjoy. Here, the respondents criticize the Republican anti-immigrant policy by underlining that their hero could be interpreted as an "illegal" immigrant. The significance in the argumentation is in the contemporary and not in the past. When Boebert chose to celebrate Columbus as a hero, he becomes a significant person also for her dissenters; and the past is used to identify with antiracism and undocumented immigrants' rights. Honouring Columbus today becomes a part of an untrustworthy agenda to oppress minorities and stop immigration. In the tweets essentially describing Columbus as a perpetrator, we find values and beliefs such as the struggle for human rights, minorities' rights and a longing for a more open migration policy. Because the respondents in the thread take a stand against celebrating Columbus Day in general and Boebert's political agenda in particular, they thus seek to influence the future by using history.

Some respondents use history in a more scientific way, arguing:

> …a historian of the Spanish conquest of the Americas, noted that multiple sources confirmed accounts of "exhausted Indian carriers, chained by the neck, whose heads the Spaniards severed from their bodies so they might not have to stop to untie them."

Even though the respondent uses scientific methods, history is still used to influence the contemporary and the future. It is like the history by itself, what really happened, has moral standards, and the significance for Columbus in this

way is understood by how he or other colonisers treated the Native Americans. Perspectives of him as a discoverer, or adventurer, are not significant; rather, they become of secondary importance. One respondent links to an article: "vox.com 9 reasons Christopher Columbus was a murderer, tyrant, and scoundrel", with the same effect – the significance of Columbus is that of his crimes against humanity. Others use historical facts to show how wrong Boebert is: "He discovered the Bahamas", or "I prefer Leif Eriksson Day", other facts about Columbus that make the hero narrative problematic.

Because of the nature of Twitter, few respondents in this thread favour the perspective of Columbus as a hero. However, there are exceptions: "Saint Columbus was a hero and the liberals and WOKE democrats are not wanting to school [sic!]." Even here Columbus' significance is placed in a contemporary controversial political context, where the fight for the right for an Italian American identity is real for the respondent and where the school's content does not allow this identity. Conversely, we find respondents that present a more complex picture of American Italian heritage and the celebration of Columbus. One such narrative is that of defence, in which the respondent feels he is under attack for being an Italian American:

> My grandparents came to this country from Italy and became proud Americans. For generations, their culture has been passed down in my family and I'm proud to continue their legacy. Happy Columbus Day.

In a context where Columbus is recognized as an Italian, and who is seen as a hero by Italian Americans, the Italian identity is imagined as being under attack. Therefore, the tradition must be protected by showing other families with Italian roots that they have played an important historical role in American culture and society. One respondent even asks Boebert "Are you even Italian?" in order to distance the Republican congress woman from the Italian American community. However, another respondent maintains that this is not an Italian American feast day and ironically writes, "I blame The Sopranos!" as a way to show this is a fictive controversy. Of course, the Italian American identity is present in American history. However, there is a sense of division regarding the perspective and what history is significant. A respondent asks Boebert:

> Did you bother to converse with the folks in "Steel City"? Those Italians migrated for a better life. What are you doing in DC to make it continue? Infrastructure? Debt ceiling? Vaccines? Healthcare? Columbus Day ship has sailed.

The reference to the "Steel city" concerns the Italian Americans who migrated to Pueblo to work in the steel factories. It relates to the significance of a more recent

history of working Italian migrants, in which Columbus Day is not important in this perspective. On the whole, the perspective of those identifying with or caring about the Italian American heritage is more complex due to more contemporary issues and more uncertain identities.

Conclusion

By using historical tools as historical factual information and historical concepts manifested in narratives, we get the opportunity to communicate with those who share the same historical-cultural resources. Even in a conflict such as celebrating or not celebrating Columbus Day, both groups must share common information about a past that partly has a common meaning. It is obvious that Columbus and the story of the landing is a shared past between the respondents in the Twitter thread. The controversy lies in the qualities of meaning-making and the different values and/or fears and hopes for the future. In one of the perspectives, the Columbus landing becomes a turning point and an obvious decline. In the other, it is a turning point in an incline until the Italian American identity is experienced as being questioned. In both narratives, significance for Columbus as an important historical figure is found in the contemporary situation. In one historical culture, Italian Americans are honoured as an important part of American history and culture. In the other, contemporary minorities' rights and refugees' needs must be raised whenever possible. This shapes different narratives with different meanings and perspectives, and it leads to historical perspectives that clash.

This takes us to the most important aspect: the understanding of the Other. As we have worked with the tweets using the three concepts elaborated here – historical significance, historical perspective and historical empathy – we understand the clash in the Twitter thread as based not on historical content per se but on how different narrative forms use history in closed historical cultures today. In one perspective, the most important value is to safeguard human rights. In the other perspective, the right to feel proud of being an Italian American is accentuated. These different fundamental values do not clash out of necessity. However, using history to orient in time, manifest and recollect particular perspectives and to construct identity is not neutral. It has consequences (Alvén, 2017). Most Italian Americans do not celebrate Columbus Day to oppress the Native Americans, and people do not object to the celebration of Columbus Day to oppress Italian Americans. However, this is how it is experienced by the different groups. What really clashes is the picture of Columbus as he is used in the different historical narratives. If the students can be helped to see this, we can

assist them in what is really at stake – existential questions and how important these are for identity, for the students themselves and for others. If they can analyse narratives within historical cultures, they will be more prepared as citizens to see what really clashes, and instead negotiate from this starting point. In our Twitter case, one group cares for human rights and the other for their right to their identity. The first benefit would be that the students can analyse the consequences of using history, for example polarization between groups and the outbreak of conflicts. The second benefit would be to make it possible for the students to see how different historical perspectives are constructed and used. The third benefit would be to make it possible to discuss the real issues, in this case human rights and the right to an Italian American identity, instead of defending positions where there are no real clashes. Citizens trained to understand the use of history in historical cultures might likely react in another way to Boebert's tweet: "Celebrating a figure like Columbus to me means to celebrate a man that treated the Native Americans really bad. Is there no way else to honour the Italian American heritage?" Such a response might not solve the conflict, but the conditions for doing so would be better. By understanding how history is used, students are able to make a historical distance, that is a way to distance themselves from their own historical situation, being in time that is, their historical culture and its narrative templates. This helps them to understand the Other and her use of history. Furthermore, it would increase their historical literacy capacity, while using disciplinary concepts to understand vivid historical debates in their own existence.

Finally, we want to offer a methodical tip about using controversial historical issues on social media in the classroom. Many sexist, misogynistic, racist and violent expressions appear on social media. There is no need to bring these into the classroom. Consequently, the teacher should find discussions about historical controversies and select the media to be analysed in the classroom. This means that students do not have to be exposed to the worst deviations and instead can concentrate on the task of analysing how history is interpreted, used and its consequences.

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Chapter 11. The historical learning for a culture of democracy, coexistence and cooperation

Introduction

Nous vivons en utopie, et pourtant…

Se plonger dans l'histoire des utopies, c'est suivre le fleuve sinueux des lendemains – dont-on – le rêvait. Et deriver jusqu'à l'infini ocean du Monde-d'après (Testot, 2022, p. 6).

This sense of, when working in the present with our students, simultaneously thinking about the construction of a future, is crucial when dealing with Education and its contents. The most recent UNESCO report (2021) emphasises the importance of *Reimagining our futures together*, highlighting the prospective and plural vision, *for a new social contract for education*. In turn, the Council of Europe, in its *Quality History Education in the 21st Century: Principles and Guidelines* (2018), showed how that discipline can contribute to this future of peaceful and solidary coexistence, regardless of past traumas.

Without underestimating some attempts to dilute the scientific specificity of History within the scope of Social Sciences (refer to, for example, the manual for "Cycle 3" edited by Retz, in 2022, "Apprendre aux élèves à décrypter la société", by Leo Lecardonnet, Gérôme Truc, and Benoit Falaize), it is important to clarify how a competent history didactics can irreplaceably contribute to a true European citizenship.

Theoretical frame

Contextualising across a broad spectrum

Schools must be protected as spaces where students encounter challenges and possibilities not available elsewhere. […] We must ensure that schools bring together diverse groups of people to learn from each other (UNESCO, 2021, p. 101).

Documents and reports from public and private official bodies highlight the need for change: at the level of educational agents, the syllabus, the organisation

of school time, the type of sessions (otherwise called classes), the role of students and teachers, the processes of teaching and learning, means and resources, pedagogies to be implemented, educational purposes, …

Once again, as main topics for reflection, the Council of Europe (2018, p. 9) chose eight points that should cover the teaching of History in European countries:

> 1. Flexible curriculum plans and interactive pedagogies that recognise cultural differences; 2. Teach and learn about the complex history of democracy; 3. Reflect on how the activities of common individuals and groups have shaped the history of societies; 4. Recognise that people from different cultural, religious and ethnic backgrounds are rooted in societies; 5. Valuing the multiple identities of others; 6. Provide tools to analyse historical sources and fight against manipulative propaganda; 7. Address issues that may be sensitive or controversial; 8. Balancing the cognitive, emotional, and ethical dimensions in the teaching and learning of history.

When thinking about a resource laboratory for teaching in Europe, choosing relevant topics, selecting materials and pedagogical-didactic processes, promoting thinking skills which allow meaningful learning, we must bear in mind these general objectives and purposes to, in each country, feel that we are working for a common good, taking advantage of the potential of the discipline of History.

It is important to remember this aspect, because other initiatives have already been started in the past and did not yet have this more general and regulatory perspective, although never standardising. We would highlight three: the elaboration of the monumental work *Europa-Notre Histoire*, under the direction of Étienne François and Thomas Serrier, in 2017; the creation of a History of Europe textbook, prepared by twelve historians and published in 1992, in France, and later translated in some countries (in 1992 in Portugal); or a more literary one, but with obvious ramifications for History – *Lettres Européennes* –, also published in 1992. None of the above objectively aimed to enter the classroom and make resources and activities available with a common objective, for students of compulsory education from different countries. Naturally, they never took into account the new approaches to pedagogy and didactics resulting from the evolution of research in the field of Historical Education. They were never able to notice issues that are visible today with regard to the exercise of citizenship, concerns with inclusion or, for example, the introduction of technological resources, currently more democratised and accessible.

Faced with these changes, some more disruptive than others, the different countries have also adapted, creating regulatory mechanisms and ambitious goals for the short, medium and long term. Using the Portuguese case as an example, from the PASEO (*Perfil dos Alunos à Saída Escolaridade Obrigatória*),

to the *Digital Education – Action Plan* (2021–2027), to the National Education Strategy for Citizenship, to the *Estratégia Nacional da Educação para a Cidadania*, ao *Referencial da Dimensão Europeia da Educação* ou ao *Regime Jurídico da Educação Inclusiva*[1], all decisions converge with the concerns highlighted by European macro-educational spheres. In fact, the OECD, when preparing its report – *Review of Inclusion Education in Portugal* (2022) –, praises the path, sometimes anticipatory (for example in the case of technologies, with decisions prior to the COVID-19 pandemic), carried out by Portugal, as well as the referential and legal framework created and implemented at the level of initial and continuous training of teachers and, in certain cases, of guardians.

The point of arrival will have to be the development of skills for a culture of democracy, as it is reminded by the Council of Europe. The image below, authored by the CE, shows the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to be taken into account for this greater objective, if the role of History is fulfilled.

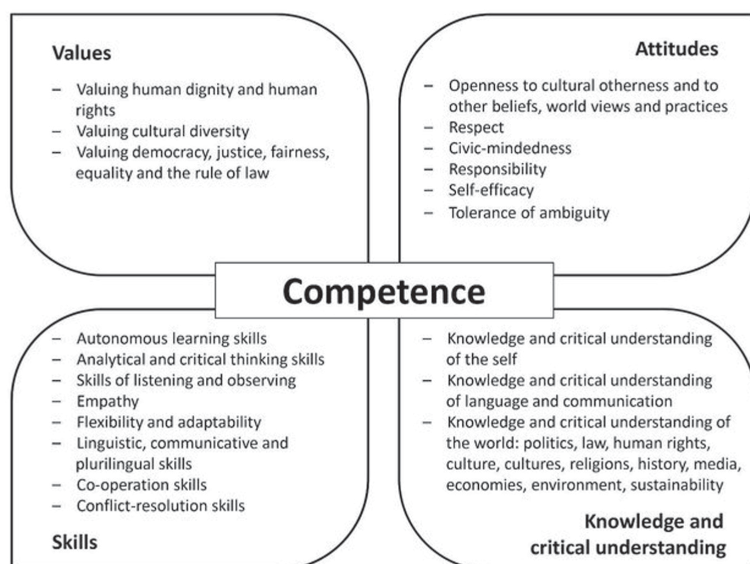

Figure 1. Competences for democratic culture
Source: Council of Europe, 2018.

1 All these, and other documents, can be consulted on the website of the Directorate-General for Education of the Portuguese Ministry of Education: https://www.dge.mec.pt/.

Based on this general framework, we seek to design certain types of pedagogical proposals within the scope of different topics. However, we also had to privilege another approach: the sustained perspectives arising from research in Historical Education. In the following lines, we seek to explore this dimension.

Didactic assumptions: From tacit ideas to argumentation

[…] Problem- and project-based educational approaches can be more participatory and collaborative than conventional classes. Inquiry-based and action-research-based pedagogies can engage students in the acquisition, application, and creation of knowledge. (UNESCO, 2021, p. 97).

The presuppositions for theorising the role of the discipline of History, and the type of didactics that must be implemented to fulfill it fits in what the German Jörn Rüsen referred to as dimensions of the Philosophy of History.

Its manifestations encompass the "materialist philosophy of History as a comprehensive theory about human life forms" (Rüsen, 2021, p. 13), in the sense of establishing a correlation between past events and human experience over time. In this perspective, knowledge of the past should constitute an extension of experience about what we cannot live or face, but understand, developing empathy and argumentation skills.

"The formal philosophy of history thematises the specific way of thinking, where the past is approached as history" (Rüsen, 2021, p. 14), thus associating itself with the theory of historical narrative (whose characteristics we enumerate below), as a material consequence the way in which meaning and explanatory coherence are given to the facts of the past, the present and even to the horizons of expectation, and based on the clarity and epistemological depth of its production.

Furthermore, "the functional philosophy of history guarantees a cultural orientation that has the past as a reference and where memory plays an important role" (Rüsen, 2021, pp. 14–15), assuming a critical sense of the use of memory, that is, the clarification of the foundations and principles that give it sense and meaning.

This three-dimensional Philosophy of History must be at the service of an effective historical consciousness, known as "the orientation of human life over time" (Gago, 2016, p. 159)[2]. Therefore, with regard to the educational practice

2 References to an interview conducted by Marília Gago, in 2016, with Jörn Rüsen, whose ideas resulted from a deepening of her perspectives shaped in *Teoria da História – uma teoria da história como ciência* (2015) and *JörnRüsen e o Ensino de História* (2010).

associated with that curricular component at school, we must take into account the "philosophy of history or the epistemology of historical thinking" (Gago, 2016, p. 160), namely from the research already carried out on the subject. There are several research subjects that can be taken into account, such as historical sources and their interpretive possibilities, official narratives and those with divergent meanings, the multiperspective in relation to historical facts, amongst many others. In this way, perhaps the learning of History, in the classroom, "as an organised process of development of historical awareness" and, also as a promoter of "rational argumentation as a mode of communication" (Gago, 2016, p. 160). Figure 2 systematises, in a very clear way, these principles of historical sense.

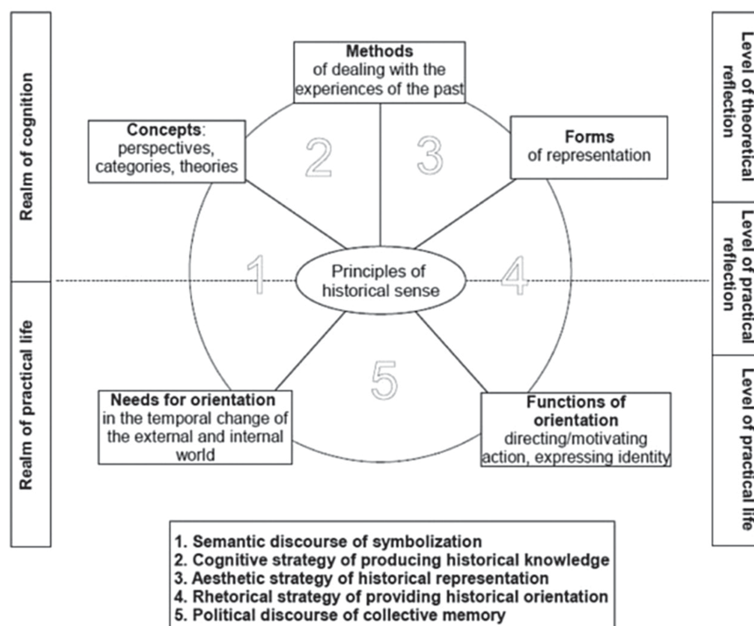

Figure 2. Matrix of historical thought, according to Jörn Rüsen.
Source: *História Hoje*, 2016.

This systematisation becomes even more relevant if we consider the transposition of such conceptual constructs to the didactic process. As Ana Monteiro warns (in: Schmidt, 2021, p. 54):

> an important contribution of studies based on didactic transposition is the change to the understanding that teaching implies a process with its own characteristics, corroborating the idea that the principles of teaching cannot derive from the study of learning.

In this regard, we need to find a way that, considering the specificities of students, teachers, and contexts, incorporates ways of organising teaching and learning that are also based on conceptions arising from research in Historical Education and provide the production of narratives (communication) guidelines for an intervention in everyday life that reflects a consistent historical culture.

Answering to the question – *how could History make sense to students today?* – Rüsen, in the aforementioned interview with Marília Gago, states:

> to teach history it is necessary to base it on a connection between the present and its future and the past. This relationship can be conceptualised (in meta-history) by a historical anthropology. […] This is the synthesis of the universal characteristics of human life and the idea of change and development. When teaching history in school, one has to emphasise this synthesis so that students find a common and basic similarity in the forms of human life and basic differences due to variables and changed circumstances. (Gago, 2016, p. 165).

This didactic of intertemporality, bearing in mind the concept of historical time in its plurality (short, medium or long), the correct perception of the different spaces, and their specificities, where the historical events took place, the multiple narratives that were built on them and shared, need to be transposed into the teaching and learning process in the classroom, so that young people improve (historical) thinking skills essential for the subsequent realisation of conscious and consistent actions in the daily life of spaces and times in which live.

This is also why, through their work, Rüsen, Bodo von Borries, Peter Lee or Isabel Barca have underlined the

need to build projects and proposals for curricular guidelines that emphasise working with the mental operations of historical consciousness that develop the narrative, because it is only from this that knowledge becomes conscious and the student increases his/her ability to see the past as historical past and not just as a practical past or a dead past (Schmidt, 2021, p. 52).

As that first author clarifies, "metahistory provides a concept of historical identity and the didactics of history transforms it into a context for the development of historical awareness through learning" (Gago, 2016, p. 166).

In the Portuguese case, the creation of the *Aprendizagens Esssenciais* of the discipline of History for the various levels of education sought to operationalise this formative sense, identifying:

> the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are intended to be achieved and constitute a basic curricular document for planning, carrying out and evaluating teaching and learning, contributing to the achievement of the *Perfil dos Alunos à Saída Escolaridade Obrigatória*. By identifying the AE, it is possible to deepen topics, interdisciplinary explorations and the mobilisation of local components of the curriculum[3] (2018, p. 1).

By replacing other documents that have fallen into disuse – *Programas* or *Metas Curriculares* –, those learnings summon History to its role of contributing to a more current understanding of the World, in an intertemporal perspective and based precisely on the functional philosophy of History. In turn, by privileging competences to "use" in everyday life, within a community like Europe, the borders of nationalist history are broken and the culture of democracy and cooperation visible in the main European documents is highlighted.

Furthermore, the most current document incorporates in its basic philosophy, and in its operationalisation, the concept of Humanism as a structuring element for the creation of a certain historical meaning. Moreover, along the same lines:

> the demand to humanise the human species should be carried out in historical teaching and learning. The didactics of history should give itself a humanistic form. In this way, the challenge of intercultural communication in our era of globalisation could be tackled. (Gago, 2016, p. 166).

Armed with a set of concepts that today mark the panorama of research in Historical Education – historical thinking, historical awareness, intertemporal orientation, historical learning, narrative, humanism, empathy, amongst others -, we seek to incorporate and materialise them by via the activities described below, with the ultimate objective that students who experience them are able to then assume the exercise of European citizenship, denouncing a historical learning understood in this way.

We know that "each subject builds a particular conception of History from what is told, read, heard, seen or reconstructed" (cit. by Moreira, 2018, p. 41). We are aware that what is processed in the classroom is a crucial element for a historically consistent reasoning in its humanistic insertion in the present; tolerant of the most painful pasts (living with them); critical, assertively, in the face of propagandistic manipulation; claiming an active individual role in the defense of Human Rights.

3 This document can be consulted on the website of the Directorate-General for Education of the Portuguese Ministry of Education: http://www.dge.mec.pt/aprendizagens-essenciais-0.

Activities to apply historical thinking competencies

After this brief theoretical framework, it makes sense to move on to the description of the activities proposed for the teaching and learning of certain historical topics, seeking to make them profitable for the development of specific historical thinking skills.

Activitiy 1. The War from within: Weapons, soldiers and war spaces

It is important to recognise, from the outset, that the study, in a school context, of the phenomenon of war and its contours (parties involved, weapons, circumstances, …) allows students to learn about colonisation processes, border changes over time and in different latitudes, more or less immediate causes and consequences, situations of disrespect for Human Rights.

In the words of Jean-Vincent Holeindre and Testot (2014, p. 13):

> la guerre est la plus extreme des violences et sembleé chapper à toute tentative de rationalisation. Elle apparaîts ouvent comme une défaite de la raison, ou de moins comme une victoire des passions violentes (haine, ressentiment, volonté de domination…) sur la partie raisonnable de notreâme. Cependant, la guerre n'est pas qu'instinct de mort et desolation. C'est aussi l'un des domains d'action oùs 'exprimel' ingéniosité humaine.

First of all, there are at least three ideas that it is important to keep in mind: violence with its corresponding trauma and the need to incorporate it into a coexistence without resentment (Ferro, 2009); the timelessness of phenomena that occur in different contexts and deprive it of the character of innovation or occurrence that it victimises in the present (Holeindre & Testot, 2014); the ingenious capacity of the human being that can be channeled for evil as well as for good (Galor, 2022).

In this context, and if the main objective is the development of historical thinking as enlightened, elaborate and honest reasoning, then the mobilisation of diversified didactic resources, as well as the option for varied work strategies can be a starting point to take into account.

Theoretical, encouraging the construction of (historical) knowledge based on evidence, namely to support assumed perspectives, is an idea that permeates the suggestion of the following activity.

With regard to the topic "The war from within – weapons soldiers and war spaces", it is suggested to be held five classes of 50 minutes each, during which the assessment, by the teacher, should be formative and based on descriptive items of the actions to be carried out and/or the skills to be developed by the students.

The first class, and in the logic of raising the students' tacit ideas and conceptions regarding "war", starts with the writing of that word on the board, by the teacher,

asking students to reflect autonomously and silently on feelings, perceptions or other words that link to the word “war”. In addition to inventorying the different perceptions of the concept, carrying out the task in silence prevents the probable contamination of one over the other. The divergence is important for the didactic richness to be better explored.

After this initial moment, students must write down, using the *Mentimeter* application, the terms they thought, forming a virtual word cloud that is visible to the whole class. Exploring the ethical dimension adopted by each one, the teacher can, from the observed image, encourage the sharing of individual opinions on the meaning(s) given to the phenomenon of war in general.

The use of available technologies, in addition to being a resource for the didactic process, also bears in mind that:

> The evolution of the human brain was the main impetus for humanity’s unique advancement, and it is not of little importance that it has helped to precipitate *technological progress* – that is, to discover ever more sophisticated ways of transforming natural materials and resources around us for our benefit. These advances have shaped future evolutionary processes, allowing humans to adapt more effectively to their changing environments and to constantly develop and use new technologies, a repetitive and intensified mechanism that has led to ever greater technological advances. (Galor, 2022, p. 29).

In this sense, every moment is important to monetise means associated with motivation and to explain, in a world dominated by technologies, the good use that can be made of them in achieving different goals (scholar or not). It also helps the development of digital literacy, in addition to promoting a critical feeling about its disorderly use.

To end the class, and already anticipating the work to be carried out during the next session, the teacher proposes to organise the class into six groups of three or four elements and distribute digital historical resources (in different formats) referring to soldiers, weapons and war contexts in Europe. The characters and historical events considered will be the following:

1. *Hoplites* | *Greco-Persian Wars*
2. *Legionaries* | *Romanexpansion*
3. *Crusaders* | *Crusades*
4. *Napoleonicsoldier* | *NapoleonicWars*
5. *World War I Soldier* | *WWI*
6. *World War II Soldier* | *WWII*

In the second class, the required actions refer to a collaborative work strategy, since each group of students formed in the previous class must start an online research, not forgetting the *HistoryLab's digital library*, to collect fundamental evidence for the creation of an infographic using the *Canva* application. Focusing the investigation on various historical sources, it allows students to understand the relevance of temporal and spatial location in their argumentation, based on the evidence available in historical and/or historiographical documents. Their infographic, in the end, will include the identification of weapons, other equipment, military tactics, in a combination of text and images.

The third class should be used by the groups to continue/finish their infographics in digital format, using the aforementioned *Canva* application, improving their skills in the intentional handling of information and communication technologies. In the end, the work is handed over to the teacher, who takes responsibility, using another application, *Padlet*, to form a digital wall that, in a chronological line, clarifies which soldiers, weapons of war, other equipment were involved in the selected conflicts.

Session four aims to explain, by the students, the main facts related to the war included in the infographics created, and in this class released by the teacher after his compilation work. Each group must then select an element to present the final result (about 5 minutes of oral presentation), and to answer the doubts and/or questions raised by classmates. In a more or less explicit sense, the competence of causality is explored here, with the aim that students are able to highlight different causes and consequences inherent to the war scenarios framed and characterised.

The last class transports the phenomenon of war to the present day. Thus, in order for students to develop the competence of historical thinking inherent in understanding changes and continuities over time, the teacher presents a set of current news about ongoing wars. The large group dialogue is intended to enhance reflection on changes and permanence regarding the ways of "making war" and, also, a broader debate on the contemporary dangers underlying the use of nuclear and biological weapons in of armed conflict. At the end of the class, it will be important for students to record, in their notebook, a conceptual map of the debate.

Finally, it is important to justify some of the assumptions in this session:

1. As Rüsen tells us (2021, p. 18), "the past is made effective when it is seen and learnt as History that prevails everywhere. Its vitality manifests itself in different ways: in historical circumstances that determine the lives of students […]".

2. History is a powerful subject to develop students' critical thinking, as long as they are provided with the (real) diversity of existing sources and perspectives, in line with the principles advocated by the Council of Europe (2018).
3. "The Education 2030 Framework for Action programme proposes a perspective of education that goes beyond its utilitarian sense, being rather an approach that seeks to integrate the multiple dimensions of human existence" (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 5).
4. One cannot ignore "a model of education: centered on the student and not on the teacher; that attends to the development of skills and does not just conform to the memoristic repetition of information; that seeks the harmonious development of all dimensions of the person and not just intellectuals" (Ontoria et al., 1994, p. 28). A perspective that corroborates the idea that new knowledge is incorporated in a substantive, non-arbitrary way, in the knowledge already held by the students.

Clarifying the assessment technique and instrument, the fact of opting for its formative intention requires considering items such as: adequate temporal and spatial location; careful selection of information; choice of relevant historical sources; exploration of the multiple potentialities of digital tools; adequate historical communication; sustained and respectful debate of ideas. In relation to each one of them, the teacher will be able to verify if each student has already improved that competence, if it is still in its development phase or if, perhaps, he shows difficulties, pointing it out in a registration table.

This systematisation prioritises the abilities and limitations of the student during the process, promoting, in a formative way, the creation of complementary strategies that guarantee an effective success in the context of the competences listed as the objective of this activity.

Activitiy 2. Narratives and uncomfortable heritage in Europe

The uncomfortable and controversial historical narratives, which are part of the collective memory, remain present over time.

The process of teaching and learning History, therefore, cannot neglect these socially alive issues, whether massacres, genocides or situations of "ethnic cleansing", older or more recent.

Alberto Manguel (2022, p. 32) reminds us that it is not enough to "study History to avoid the traps of the past. The grandchildren of the men and women murdered by the tyrants of the past are now filled with enthusiasm to crown the tyrants of the future." Along the same lines, Gurnah (2022, p. 44) challenges us to think that "no society accepts the crimes it has committed in the past", hence

it is so important that education in general, and school in particular, promote a didactic of *socially alive issues*. In fact, Simonneaux (2019, p. 10) states that "la didactique des QSV étudie les processus d'enseignement-apprentissage sur des objets porteurs de controversies et des débats dans la sphere scientifique, dans la societé et les medias et donc dans la classe".

In an excellent work recently published (Schurster et al., 2022), the various authors help us to reflect on topics as pertinent as they are traumatic and provide us with important clues to deal, scientifically and didactically, with these "new topics":

> Often due to its complexity, genocide becomes an interdicted, paralysing object, due to its difficulty of representation and discursive limits. Studies that can categorically distinguish what we would call mass crimes or systematic massacres committed by States or organisations become fundamental. One of the biggest interpretive difficulties of those who focused on the great massacres before 1948 (legal definition) was to understand and know 'nameless crime'. There is no doubt that the awakening of this field of study was painful. He was responsible for opening the wounds and socially problematising the guilt and responsibilities for the death of millions of individuals. (p. 17–18).

We have to dare to transport these topics to the classroom context, from more or less digital didactic resources, as a formative contribution to the development of historical thinking that is also intended to be elaborated from an ethical dimension, explained in a capacity for argumentation, and evidence-based counter-arguments, attentive to sources that provide clues for multi-perspective analysis.

The activity that is explained below intends, therefore, to meet this meaning given to historical learning in the present day of the 21st century.

Thus, in relation to the topic "Narratives and uncomfortable heritage in Europe", we propose four lessons of 50 minutes each. Once again, throughout them, the teacher's assessment should be formative and based on descriptive items of the actions to be carried out and/or the skills to be developed by the students.

The first session aims, in addition to defining structuring concepts, to survey students' previous ideas about genocide, massacres or socially alive issues. After an initial dialogue, in a large group, which enhances the sharing of perspectives on the historical subject in question, the class is divided into six groups of three or four elements and, to each one, a single concept is assigned, amongst the discussed ones. The main objective underlying this distribution is the construction of a definition, with about 50 words, of the assigned concept. After their writing, the groups share it with the class, with the teacher making the same

record in the *lucidspark.com* application, in order to draw a collective conceptual map. Finally, students copy it into their daily notebook.

In class two, the teacher begins by historically contextualising the existence of massacres and other similar acts of violence. He then suggests that each group of students select a specific historical period, from Classical Antiquity to contemporary times, and carry out a research alluding to the subject under analysis at that chosen time. Using diversified historical sources, and working on their ability to give historical significance to certain events and characters, students must gather information in different formats (text, image, video, …) for the subsequent construction of a digital timeline.

In the third class, exploring historical thinking that is able to understand multiple causes and multiple consequences inherent to historical facts, students will begin to shape the (collective) timeline using the *cdn.knightlab.com* application. This construction, which includes several examples of massacres and genocides that took place in the course of history, will combine the data provided by all the working groups into a single final product.

The last class related to the topic will be an essential contribution to promoting ethically enlightened debate amongst the students in the class. Sharing knowledge acquired during the previous sessions, they will be able to orally explain the phenomenon of systematic violence against specific ethnic groups, alerting to the necessary attention, nowadays, in the face of *socially alive issues* and the relevance of an active and responsible citizenship, oriented towards a just and healthy world.

Returning to the question of evaluation, its continuity during all activity sessions implies that items such as: adequate temporal and spatial location are taken into account; careful selection of information; choice of relevant historical sources; exploration of the multiple potentialities of digital tools; adequate historical communication. In relation to each one of them, the teacher will be able to verify if each student has already improved this competence, if it is still in its development phase or if, perhaps, he has difficulties, pointing it out in a registration table.

Activitiy 3. Propaganda and culture of war before and during armed conflicts in the History of Europe

The quote below appears as a preliminary clarification so that the teacher, from the outset, transports to the teaching of the topic with the students the timelessness of the same and the approaches in the different historical epochs that should be privileged. In fact:

> La propaganda est fille de la démocratie. L'expérience totalitaire d'une propaganda poussée à son paroxysme, enconférant à cemot une connotation pejorative, a longtemps masque cette réalité: c'est dans la démocratie athénienne et la République romaine qu'est apparue la première forme de propaganda – entant qu'effort organise pour propager une croyance ou une doctrine particulière – c'est la Révolution française qui a posé les jalons de la propaganda politique modern, et sont les démocraties en guerre entre 1914 et 1918 qui ontinventé la propaganda de masse, reprise ensuite par les regimes autoritaires et totalitaires. La propaganda n'estdonc pas le proper des regimes autoritaires, et encore moins l'envers de la démocratie (Colon, 2019, p. 9).

This perspective allows us to expand the temporal space of the analysis, encouraging students to explore the changes and continuities visible in the various processes of propaganda throughout the different periods, therefore fulfilling a first major objective – *To analyse the changes and continuities visible in propaganda through the ages*.

In a study that will have to choose, above all, the moments that led to or embodied major conflicts, the concept of "culture of war" as "the ability to adapt to the extreme conditions in which its protagonists lived, but also to justify some behaviours that are absolutely irrational to us" (Alves et al., 2016, p. 200), induced by military propaganda, must be present in the approach within this topic.

A more didactic component also forces us to consider the students' research, the multiple perspectives on the subject, the different narratives depending on the sides in conflict, encouraging the understanding of the subjectivity of the points of view, the natural incorporation of the multiperspective and the capacity for critical analysis that makes students potential researchers.

Within this pedagogical and didactic apparatus, it will make sense to privilege primary sources (today widely available in national or private archives and in libraries) and to clarify the meaning of causes and consequences, allowing the advancement of a superficial historical thought to another more consistent and based on core competencies.

In the first session the teacher shows a video (video 1 of the Complementary resources) about propaganda and how it has been used throughout the times. After ten minutes of debate, the teacher divides the students into groups of 4–5 people and, using the computers, the students research online and in the *History Lab's digital library* information about the use of propaganda since the Ancient Age until the present time.

This type of work refers us to the methodology of "class-workshop or class-colloquium", conceived and applied by the Portuguese researcher Isabel Barca. She explains to us that:

> if the teacher is committed to participating in an education for development, he/she will have to assume himself/herself as a social researcher: learning to interpret the conceptual world of his/her students, not to immediately classify it as right/wrong, complete/incomplete, but so that his/her understanding helps him/her to positively modify the students' conceptualisation, as proposed by social constructivism. In this model, the student is effectively seen as one of the agents of his own knowledge, the diversified and intellectually challenging class activities are carried out by them and the resulting products are integrated into the assessment. (Barca, 2004, p. 132).

In the second class, the teacher presents the template created on *https://www.wix.com/* to elaborate a website with the joined information collected by the students and explains how it works. The insertion of the contents should be done by the groups, in the page indicated by the teacher and related to the epoch investigated by the group.

In the next session, the students keep doing the insertion of the contents in the website.

In the last session, each group selects a student to give an oral presentation (approximately 5–10 minutes), allowing the group to respond to doubts, questions and comments raised by students from other groups.

In addition to knowledge and its support deriving from the use of reliable sources, the capacity for argumentation is also worked on, which is fundamental for realising the density of the process and the consolidation of knowledge. Chapman reminds us (2021, p. 26) that "an argument is a series of connected instructions designed to establish a proposition"; and adds that "analysing arguments presupposes the recognition of the arguments themselves. We then need to help students recognise the arguments in the stories they read and understand how historians' argumentation works." In a topic like this, the necessity becomes more evident, since we need to provide students with tools to avoid the traps of a society that promotes "non-thinking", in the happy synthesis of Rui Pereira (2019).

In the last session, the teacher shows a video about propaganda nowadays (watch video 2). After watching the video, the teacher creates the necessary environment for a debate about the dangers and the limits about the use of war propaganda these days, and register in the class board the main ideas achieved by students. The students should write in their notebooks the final conceptual map as the result of their opinions and thoughts.

The ideal would be that, later, the students could construct a historical narrative on the subject, in particular the ones of Secondary Education (age groups between 15 and 18 years), for the teacher to better observe the process of construction of their thinking and the their historical consciousness.

We assume, along the lines of Gago (2018, p. 71), that “historical narrative must be understood as a system of mental operations defining the field of historical consciousness”. And each of the narratives elaborated by the students would be associated with a type of historical consciousness, highlighting the evolution of individual (historical) reasoning. Based on the characterisation proposed by the same author – traditional, exemplary, critical or ontogenetic narrative[4] (2018, pp. 72–74) – references emerge to understand the level of development of students’ historical awareness and eventually trigger other teaching and learning processes to overcome the identified gaps.

Simultaneously, through the writing carried out individually, the more or less improved skills of historical thinking will be perceived, as well as the training course to be followed in order to bring about a really enlightened, logical and conscious reasoning.

With the activities proposed within the scope of the three aformentioned topics, we hope, due to the diversity of subjects, but above all the outlined strategies outlined, and mobilised resources, to contribute to, around the (History of) Europe, the potential of the discipline of History to be used to form young people with a structure of (critical) thinking that helps them to deal with a world where they can intervene in a sustained and intentional way.

Conclusion

History seeks to understand the human being and his actions in different times and spaces. The dialogue between different perspectives, times and spaces is a key operation for the construction of sense and meaning of the realities that are sought to understand-explain. (Gago, 2021, p. 7).

This was clearly the path that the thematic and pedagogical-didactic proposals sought to follow.

Despite this point, regardless of the suggestions and materials available, teachers are particularly fond of incorporating the school manual into the teaching and learning process. Self-indulgence, but also often the lack of alternatives, drive us to the recurrent use of such an educational artifact. Its omnipresence should, however, be considered under the critical focus of its

4 Marília Gago thus characterises the four types of narrative, based on Jörn Rüsen’s (2010) proposal. The doctoral thesis carried out by Ana Isabel Moreira (2018), with Portuguese students of the 2nd cycle of Basic Education, showed that historical narratives of a critical and ontogenetic type are mainly expected in students at higher education levels.

quality, because "all specialists agree that the textbook is the most important tool in the teaching of History" (Schmidt et al., 2011, p. 109). But, after all, what is the "ideal textbook"?

The characteristics that distinguish a good textbook are essentially four: a clear and structured format; a clear didactic structure; a productive relationship with the student; a relationship with classroom practice (Schmidt et al., 2011, p. 115).

More than this exogenous format, for a project like *HistoryLab*, it is important to consider its usefulness for historical perception, and this aspect depends on three essential characteristics: "the way in which the materials are presented; the pluridimensionality in which the historical contents are presented; of the pluriperspectivity of the historical presentation". Naturally, all in the service of "interpretations that correspond to the norms of historical science; able to highlight the processes in a multiperspective; with narratives that clearly elect evidence and convictions" (Schmidt et al., 2011, pp. 119–122).

Not defending the prevalence of textbooks in the most diverse didactic projects associated with History, in a preventive way, it is not possible to avoid them. As such, the most important thing will be not to forget the meaning of what is intended with the discipline and its contents, depending on such historical criticism of the process advisor – the teacher.

As José Pacheco and Ila Maia remind us – in line with the book by Neil Selwyn, *Should robots replace teachers?* (2019):

> the nature of education is intrinsically human and only teachers, in the pedagogical context, are able to maintain a cognitive and social relationship with students. Only teachers have the ability to rethink a pedagogical situation and understand all of its variables, in addition to being the only ones who demonstrate the ability to improvise in an educational context marked by uncertainties. (2021, p. 87).

Only initial and continuous training, and above all professional reflexivity, can transform the most diverse resources into a means of operationalisation in the classroom, into a congruent historical thought, capable of accompanying citizens who are historically aware of the past and, therefore, more understanding in the face of to the future to reimagine, in the happy concept of the Unesco's report.

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Conclusions

As we said at the beginning of this book[1], titled "Teaching history to face world today", there is a double target in this study: on one side, the first part of the book, is dedicated to understanding and reflecting about the new challenges in history teaching in terms of strategies and active-learning methods. On the other side, the second part od the book, focused on croncrete examples of activities and exercises to develop in history lessons and that are based on the framework of the historical thinking competencies.

Regarding to the first part of the book, we can find four chapters. Each one related to a different strategy or digital resource to teach and learn history.

The first chapter reflects about inquiry strategies and the historian's method. Authors like Prats (2001) defended the necessity of creating laboratory-classrooms (Gómez & Miralles, 2017), not just for STEAM courses, but also, for Social Studies classes. Traditionally, history education has been based on the transmission of conceptual contents, closed and pointed by the textbooks. The students did not ask the validity of the narration or the veracity of the historical sources. The role of the students was to listen to the teacher and memorize the contents.

The authors, Monteagudo, Chaparro and Felices indicated that it is important to reflect about two main pillars in history education: epistemology (what history we teach) and methodology (how we teach history). In this sense, it is remarkable that historical contents are not created by heart, but rather, we to make reinterpretations based on historical evidences and sources. That supposes to establish a historical education from the point of view of scientific knowledge with empirical foundations (Carretero & Montanero, 2008).

In this sense, the best way to learn history is to act like historians do. Researching through archives, documents and iconographies; selecting the

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sources, both primary and secondary, to make questions to the sources to interpret the interests; to select and filter the best sources to reconstruct the facts, to make their own hypothesis and, finally, to explain and discuss the events liking them with the present. To reach that goal, the authors suggest the use of strategies as Problem-based learning, challenge learning, historical empathy, field trips or service-learning (Moreno-Vera & Leguizamo, 2022).

Related to this inquiry and active-learning methodologies, we find the second chapter of the book where the authors, Campillo and Sánchez, analize the implementation of a didactic programme to teach history throught Webquests.

Webquests, as a didactic tool to teach Social Sciences, could be understood as a way to promote self-exploration, research, and critical thinking among the students. Dodge (1995) defined the webquests as a highly potential tool to provide the students new digital and interactive research-based approaches. Infact, interactivity and teamwork is essential for accesing and analyzing historical information.

In this sense, the primary and secondary sources available on-line could be very helpful for teachers to design their own Webquests processes and facilitating their tasks. The digital library available on "HistoryLab for civic engagemement" website is relevant in this sense (Gómez-Carrasco, 2022).

Also, linked to the previous chapter, the use of digital resources, concretely emerging technologies as virtual reality, augmented reality and robotics, is discussed in the third chapter of the book. The authors, Cózar and López, think that the development of activities taking into account these new tools and digital resources could allow innovative procedures and proposing methodological alternatives to improve the educational efficiency.

According to some authors, digital society is transforming: social networks, cloud learning, webs, 3D printing, virtual environments, artificial intelligence and other tools are proliferating and becoming crucial resources to disseminate knowledge and learning. In this sense, virtual and augmented reality in education is continuously growing. Lissa and Bhuvaneswari (2022) defined them as the use of computer technology to design environments that allow the students to interact with the 3D universe, simulating sense such as sight, touch, hearing or smell. This is, following Brown et al., (2020) a very meaningful resource in history education because of its immersive characteristics.

The fourth, and last chapter, of this part of the book is also related to inquiry methodologies. In this case, the authors, Castro, Ledo and Rey, discuss about the use of cultural heritage and museums as a tool to implement changes in history education. For them, an environment, as a social product represents the

community, but it is necessary to have new perspectives to use reinterpret it and use it as a didactic tool (Valera & Pol, 1994).

In this context, the use of heritage and museums could enable exchanges regarding citizenship and democratic participation. At the same time, the use of heritage and museums is capable to create an emotional and meaningful knowledge (Cuenca & Estepa, 2017). In fact, among the functions of cultural heritage and museums wone of the most important is to keep the shared memory of the community. The authors use the works of the Museum of Pontevedra (Galicia, Spain) to overcome the ideologically covered up of Franco dictatorship's victims in Spanish history education. The collective amnesia and the memory of the victims should be vindicated from a democratic point of view (Bernecker, 2003; Godicheau, 2001).

The second part of the book is dedicated to concrete proposals to teach history following the framework of historical thinking competencies. That means, that te exercises and activities suggested by the authors are based on different skills that the students have to develop more over the mere memorization of concepts.

Chapter number five, by Arthur Chapman, reflects about historical interpretation and historical reasoning (Heller, 1989). As the author said, the competence to make correct interpretations is the base of historian's labour. Historical interpretation, thus, is linked directly to the use of historical evidences, explaining the changes and continuities, and discussing causes and consequencies (Seixas & Morton, 2013). The author proposed four activities: one to make the students reflect abour the different types of history; the second one based on different methodologies of investigation, the third about how to create concepts and theoretical frameworks and, the last one, dedicated to the diverse modes of narration on historical interpretations.

The following chapter, number six, is related to the topic of violence, crime, rebellions and punishments in European history (Van Boxtel, 2022). The authors, in this case, suggest three different activities promoting inquiry-based learning and the use of historical sources (primary, secondary and, also, terciary). The students have to develop the capacity of historical reasoning, so the activities are very related to the competencies of explaining causes and consequencies, but as well as to changes and continuities. The first activity is about vagrans and is linked to the ethical dimension of history. The second activity, about crimes and punishments is related to the causes of crimes. And, lastly, the third activity is based on collaborative learning and is related to the multicausality of rebellions and revolutions agains power.

The chapter number seven is linked to the development of historical empathy (Endacott and Brooks, 2013). The authors reflected about the cross-cutting topic

of power and powers in European history. The three activities proposed develop at the same time, three different historical thinking competencies (Seixas & Morton, 2013): the use of evidences, historical empathy and ethical dimension, and, lastly, change and continuity. The first activity makes the students reflect about power in medieval life and how the concept of power has changed over the years until now. The second activity is linked to art history and the ways of representing power. In this sense, the students are proposed to use different evidences as iconographic evidences. The last activity is about participation and democracy. The students must use historical empethay to compare the conception of democracy in United Kingdom's 19th century and the concept of democracy nowadays in the United States of America.

The following chapter, number eight, reflects on the use of digital resources in history education classes. In fact, the authors suggest several digital sources that could be very useful for the teachers when designing their own activities. In this case, there are two transversal topics for the activities: on one hand, travels, travellers and cultural connections (Borghi and Smurra, 2022); and on the other hand churches and religions (Galletti and Ghizzoni, 2022). The first activity is related to pilgrimage during the Middle Ages and the social, economic and cultural connections that created. The second activity promotes the discussion about the ethical aspects of religious discriminations over history.

The chapter number nine develops the topic of peasantry (Moreno-Vera & Monteagudo, 2022), the importance of the rural world (Leeds, 1994) and the social and economic inequalities of bourgeoisie (Hobsbawm, 1974). The authors proposed three different activities, all of them based on the use of evidences, the explanation of changes and continuities and the reflection about the ethical dimension of history. The first one is based on archeological objects and evidences to support the importance of the rural world. The second one uses Google Earth (Gómez Trigueros & Moreno-Vera, 2018) as a didactic tool to establish the changes in urbanism and cities through the use of maps and other illustrations. The last activity is based on two primary sources about the labour movement during the Industrial Revolution.

The tenth chapter is based on digital literacy and the use of Social Media to teach history. Concretely, the authors reflect about multiculturalism and the creation of different cultural identities on the social media: facebook and twitter. This chapter deepens on the competence of the ethical dimension of history.

The last chapter of the book, number eleven, is related to democratic values, the development in history classes of a culture of democracy, coexistence and cooperation (Pinto Ribeiro et al., 2022). The authors think that a competent history didactics can irreplaceably contribute to a true European citizenship.

In this sense, they develop the matrix of historical thought from Jörn Rüsen (Gago, 2016) attending topics like the war from within: weapons, soldiers and war spaces, in the activity number one. The second activity about the narratives of uncomfortable heritage in Europe (Simmonneaux, 2019), and, lastly, the third activity to make the students understand the means of propaganda and populism during armed conflicts in the history of Europe.

So that, as we explained at the beginning of this last chapter, the book had two main goals: first, the explanation of epistemology changes in history education provoked by the use of digital sources, applications and digital libraries that help to implement active-learning methodologies like inquiry and research strategies. The second goal was linked to the creation of concrete examples and activities that help teachers to implement that epistemological changes. In that sense, the activities suggested are all based on cross-cutting topics, some of them invisible, some of them uncomfortable, but all of them necessary. Moreover, all the activities are not related to the mere memorization of concepts, if not, are linked to the development of historical thinking competencies that allow the students to research, select sources and evidences and then, to make their own arguments, interpretations and reasoning about the past and its relation to the world today.

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