A COMPARISON BETWEEN TURKISH AND ENGLISH
HISTORY TEXTBOOKS: DESIGN, CONSTRUCTION AND
USABILITY ISSUES

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.
ABSTRACT

This study is about the comparison of Turkish and English history textbooks in terms of the issues of design, construction and usability. In order to address design and construction issues, a number of components of Turkish and English history textbooks were examined and compared. This incorporates the qualitative and quantitative comparisons made on the legibility and page layout, illustrations, readability, content and organisation of text, presentation of value judgements and controversial issues in the Turkish and English history textbooks. In addition, bureaucratic process and approval of a textbook in Turkey and England were also investigated.

In order to find out the viewpoints of Turkish and English history teachers on the textbooks that they use, questionnaire and interview techniques were used. As a result, a total of 135 questionnaires and 14 interviews with the Turkish and English history teachers have been used for this research. In addition, two Turkish and two English textbook writers were interviewed to understand the processes and difficulties that they had in writing. Furthermore, in order to understand the importance and role of history textbooks in Turkish and English educational settings, a total of 108 lessons were observed in these countries.

The findings of the research reveal that Turkey and England have very different history teaching policies in terms of the way historical knowledge, illustrations, controversial issues and value judgements, content and organisation of the text and page layout of the textbooks are presented. These countries have very different textbook approval systems as well. The findings of the empirical study also indicate the existence of very different viewpoints of Turkish and English history teachers and textbook writers about the quality of the textbooks. The roles that textbooks play in teaching processes in Turkish and English classrooms are considerably different from each other. Thus, this study can be taken as the story of the Turkish and English teaching experiences which appear to contrast with each other.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The advent of the printing press made it possible for ordinary people to have access to the vast body of knowledge accumulated and transmitted across generations. Since then, textbooks have occupied a remarkable position in all educational settings. They not only determine the content of the lesson, but also the skills that students are required to gain in different fields.

History textbooks have also played a crucial role. They have served as the teaching materials through which young people are introduced to knowledge of the past which societies regard as sufficiently important to pass from generation to generation. The knowledge and skills that are included in textbooks frequently provide an insight into cultural attitudes and government policies. As a result, history textbooks do not have a unique methodological or teaching stance; but rather, these are determined by the needs of the children and the attitude of society.

In this research, the Turkish and English experience in writing, producing and using history textbooks will be compared. The similarities and differences in the methodology and teaching policies will be investigated in the light of the qualitative and quantitative data obtained as a result of the analysis of history textbooks and the empirical study that the research required.

Previous studies by the researcher on Turkish history textbooks sparked off the idea of conducting the present research. In these earlier studies, it was mainly the effects of political ideologies on history textbooks which were examined through the content analysis of a number of history textbooks written between the 1930's and the 1990's. This study has informed the research now being reported as it has provided some perspectives on the methodological and teaching components of Turkish history textbooks.

The introductory chapter provides a concise comparison of the Turkish and English curriculum, as it is to meet curriculum needs that textbooks are written. In Chapter 2, a survey of the research already published on the processes of producing textbooks and examining and criticising textbooks will be presented. This review sets the scene for Chapter 3 in which the design and methodology of the present study is set out in detail: aims and research questions are specified; the basic research tools for addressing those questions are outlined; the research methodology is laid out and discussed. In Chapter 4, a detailed examination of a number of different components of the Turkish and English history textbooks will be made. Chapter 5 includes the results of the empirical study which has been carried out to address the issues
concerning the usability of history textbooks in the Turkish and English classrooms. Finally, the research findings and their educational implications will be given in Chapter 6.

A Concise Comparison of the Turkish and English History Curriculum: Aims and Skills

In general, there is a direct relation between the curriculum and textbooks, since the curriculum sets out the general teaching and learning aims. Although different perspectives and philosophies exist in regard to what the curriculum is, it can simply be defined as "both content and process as to what is taught in schools, and as the process of deciding what to teach" (Heathcote et.al, 1991; Sharpes, 1988). The curriculum embodies both the teaching objectives and the intended learning outcomes of the discipline. The curriculum aims are generally specified throughout the age and grade levels of schooling - primary, secondary and high school. Some general information will now be provided about the Turkish and English history curricula, their major course goals, objectives and the education philosophy on which they are based.

To begin with, it should be pointed out that there are few official documents describing the aims of teaching history in secondary and high schools in Turkey. Those that exist are vague about the purpose of teaching history and issues of teaching method and assessment. So, the users of the curriculum, the teachers, are not able to establish a clear relationship between objectives and subsequent content. In other words, the objectives are not grounded in a systematic way, they are defined at a highly abstract level.

The history curriculum is laid out in a chronological manner: events are presented in the order in which they took place. The "curriculum" strictly defines all the headings and subheadings of the historical events taught in the classroom. The Turkish history curriculum, therefore, can be described as a 'chronology-based curriculum' which attempts to cover all of the past. As far as the content is concerned, there is a considerable resemblance between what is taught in the history departments of the universities and in the schools, because the principal idea has been the teaching of the whole of Turkish history to pupils.

Interestingly, the Turkish history curriculum has not been changed or developed, except in small ways between the 1930's and the 1990's. This neglect has been recognised even by the Ministry of National Education in a book which explains the general framework of the existing history curriculum. It says that "The history curriculum which has been implemented in our country since the first years of the Republic has not experienced any dramatic changes except for some additions and deletions. However, there have been great changes in the world with regard to history and to our appreciation and knowledge of history during the last seventy years" (Milli
Egitim Bakanligi, 1993, p. 4). In 1998, history was made a part of the Social Studies curriculum, and this was the result of the simple amalgamation of the existing history, geography and citizenship curricula.

The Turkish history curriculum is designed on the basis of repetition of the same topics from primary school to high school and students have to learn the same historical events three times. The only thing that changes during schooling is the amount of information that pupils are expected to learn. Pupils in secondary and high school acquire more and more information about the same topics they were taught when in primary school (Kabapinar, 1995).

The Turkish history curriculum is designed to develop national and personal values and attitudes, and as a result, Turkishness, national identity and respect for one's ancestors and the heroes and leaders of the past are the dominant features emphasised throughout the curriculum.

In the secondary school curriculum, it is clearly emphasised that "Each lesson must be considered as a means for implementing the national goals", and in accordance with this idea, "The duty of the teacher in a history lesson is not only to impart knowledge but also to teach that the Turkish nation has shown its superiority since ancient times, that the Turks have spread their culture to other nations and created a role model for them, and that they have endured a great deal of hardship to establish this superior civilisation through their brilliant example" (Milli Egitim Bakanligi, 1995, p.163).

The history curriculum particularly stresses that Turkishness is at the heart of teaching by stating that "As can be gleaned from the aims and subjects of the curriculum, the history of the Turks and Turkey will form the basis of history teaching". Hence, it has also been pointed out that "The successes of the Turkish nation will be taken into consideration" and "The great role that Turks have played in history will be emphasised". It is one of the curriculum targets that "Pupils' attention will be drawn to the idea that our nation, which has established large states, empires and civilisations, and won glorious victories, has sometimes been exposed to misfortune and injustice but the strength which derives from its history and its inborn skills help it to overcome these problems (Milli Egitim Bakanligi, 1993, p. 4).

The history curriculum in England, however, stresses intended learning outcomes in terms of pupil achievement. These intentions or objectives are in the form of abilities, skills and attitudes which will be acquired as a specified learning outcome of the curriculum. In England, the history curriculum does not specify in such detail what is to be taught, it only gives guidelines about the content and structure of teaching.
In the English history curriculum, some ‘Key Elements’ of pupil attainment have been specified in accordance with the methodology of history, such as “knowledge and understanding of history”, “interpretations of history” and “the use of historical sources”. As described in the curriculum documents, ‘Key Elements’ are the backbone of the National Curriculum. They are the means by which a pupil’s progress in a subject is measured and assessed (DFE, 1995).

Throughout the English history curriculum, the main idea is to introduce pupils to the distinctive meaning and methodology of history. It is clearly explained in the curriculum documents that “History syllabuses have also to engage closely with the issue of historical process. They have to offer answers to further questions. What is the nature of historical study? What are the essential skills of the historian? What cast of mind is necessary for the study of history and grows out of its pursuit? .... Pupils need to have early and repeated experience of historical methodology, to learn about the relative strengths and weaknesses of a wide range of evidence -a set of skills which is particularly necessary in democratic societies and which has great value beyond the study of history” (DES, 1990, p. 11).

As can be seen from the examples given above, the Turkish history curriculum focuses on information to be learned and the teacher’s responsibilities as the conveyor of the official aims, values and ideas. The English history curriculum by contrast specifies some content, but focuses on historical methodology and pupils’ skills, knowledge and understanding. In brief, while the needs and intellectual growth of the pupil as an individual are taken into account in the English curriculum, a number of government-tailored aims, values and ideas are incorporated in the Turkish history curriculum as educational targets.
Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW CONCERNING HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

The Literature Related to the Processes of Producing a Textbook

*The research on who history textbook writers are*

*The research carried out on the production of textbooks*

*The research carried out on usability of history textbooks*

The Literature Review Related to the Examination and Criticism of History Textbook

*Bias and stereotype against the other nations*

*Ideological effects on history textbooks*

*Illustrations in history textbooks*

*Text structure of history textbooks*

*Readability of history textbooks*
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW OF HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

Most of the research on history textbooks emphasises the importance and place of textbooks in classrooms. Textbooks are very important teaching tools in many educational and cultural systems, though they have different teaching roles in different contexts. In general, textbooks are defined as “the books specifically written for use in schools to support a course or syllabus” (Johnsen, 1993; Colin, 1997). Thus, textbooks are likely to be the concrete embodiment of the curriculum. The aims and targets become visible in the reality of the textbooks. They offer not only a certain amount of knowledge related to the subject areas, but also a set of systematic, methodological skills and techniques that that subject requires.

Textbooks are designed to serve the pupils’ needs. They often provide the students with their first contacts with the printed world and the book. Therefore planning, writing, producing and using textbooks are complex processes which must take into consideration the cognitive development, psychology and the language capacity of the pupil. In addition, the different abilities of the students, the needs of the different age-groups and a consideration of different values and points of view in society should ideally be taken into account as well.

So, any literature review on textbooks will need to include the research in these areas. It may be argued that any literature review of textbooks can be categorised as follows:

• the literature related to the processes of producing a textbook, covering research on writing, publishing and using textbooks in classrooms;
• the literature related to the textbook itself, covering the examination and criticism of the different functions and constituents of history textbooks.

The Literature Related to the Processes of Producing a Textbook

This part of the literature review will focus firstly on the literature addressing the history textbook writer’s perception of the concept ‘textbook’ and will explore issues related to textbook writing. Then, the research related to the process of designing textbooks will be introduced. Finally, there will be an examination of studies on the use of history textbooks.
Research about who history textbook writers are

The literature suggests that there are few studies of history textbook writers. However, research should be carried out in order to clarify methodological, bureaucratic, educational, political issues that textbook writers face in the writing of a textbook. The only direct research on textbook writers is the one carried out by De Baets (1994). He interprets the function of a history textbook writer as a mediator between historiography and society. He refers to the lack of research on history textbook writers, and emphasises that textbooks have been generally analysed from two perspectives: "historical didactics (‘are they fit for a specific public at school’) and historiography (‘do their contents correspond with the scholarly state of affairs’), but rarely from the perspective of historical popularisation” (p. 516). This research involved discussions with 33 history textbook authors as ‘the mediators of historical knowledge’. The main issues in this research were

• to search the biographical profile of history textbook authors;
• to describe the historical inspiration of the authors;
• to seek the influence of society on the textbook.

Hinrichs (1992) also examined the function and responsibility of the history textbook writer. According to him, one of the most frequent and obvious demands made on the authors of history textbooks is “the international scholarship”, which is the presentation of “the current state of research” in the field of history. For instance, he explained that German textbook writers do not rely solely on German historians, English textbook writers do not rely solely on English historians and so on. Thus, new historical themes and discussions are included in history textbooks to provide “subject matter adequacy” on an international level, and help to develop an international understanding as well. From this perspective, writing and producing a textbook must be a work of scholarly international synthesis.

It could be argued that much more research needs to be carried out to understand who textbook writers are and the nature of their perceptions and responsibilities in writing history textbooks. Comparative studies would also be helpful to clarify the general and specific issues related to history textbook writing in the different educational cultures so as to arrive at some general principles and criteria.
Research carried out on textbook production

The literature reveals that there is little specific research on the production of history textbooks, although there is a wider literature on the production of textbooks in general. UNESCO has ascribed great importance to the improvement of textbooks in developing countries, and has provided grants for research which describes the issues related to preparation, production and distribution of textbook in these countries. The availability of a textbook to a student was one of the central concerns of UNESCO, since having a textbook was regarded as a critical factor affecting successful learning in many less industrialised societies. The research carried out by Richaudeau (1980), Seguin (1989), and Pearce (1990) on behalf of UNESCO are considered as guidelines providing different practical approaches to the solution of problems encountered during the overall process of textbook preparation, production and distribution. Their aim was to respond to the needs of authors who wished to improve the existing textbooks and to the educational authorities who are responsible for the promotion and the quality of textbooks.

Apart from the studies funded by UNESCO, the research carried out in the field of legibility helps to clarify the general issues in publishing textbooks. The term legibility is used to refer to aspects of typography. This includes the use of design of type face and particular type font, paper quality, layout variables and print variations (Hartley, 1993, 1994; Mobley, 1986; Watts and Nisbet, 1974).

Research carried out on the usability of history textbooks

Although a number of theoretical studies have been carried out in which the different constituents of history textbooks have been examined and criticised, there have been few empirical studies addressing the function and effectiveness of history textbooks in the teaching and learning of history in classrooms. The questions “What is the importance of textbooks for students and teachers? How effectively are textbooks used in classrooms? What is the importance of other teaching materials in the teaching process?” still need to be answered in the field of textbook research.

One study which deals with this issue was carried out by Newmann (1990a, 1990b), though it is not directly related to the use of history textbooks in the classrooms. Newman proposed the concepts of “higher order thinking” and “classroom thoughtfulness” and applied some criteria in order to measure if these are achieved in history classrooms. In sum, more
research is needed to shed light on the importance and function of the textbooks, together with the other teaching materials used in the history classrooms.

**Literature Review Related to the Examination and Criticism of the History Textbook**

The literature reveals that research on the examination and criticism of history textbooks is limited due to lack of a clear methodology in the evaluation of the history textbook. Moreover, methodological restrictions remain at the heart of textbook research, and researchers do not yet have a set of reliable methods and instruments for measurement and assessment in this field. In a workshop held in Braunschweig (Germany), the methodological issues in textbook analysis were considered in detail. The main issues under analysis were the “theory of knowledge, design, subject content, subject theory and methods and educational design” (Weinbrenner, 1992). There is a general consensus that only a few of these aspects of textbook research can be examined on the basis of quantitative methods of analysis. As a result, it must be emphasised that there is no detailed and universally recognised theory of the textbook. In this respect, countries and writers construct their own criteria and perceptions for writing, producing and evaluating their textbooks. In other words, their own educational, cultural, political experiences affect the ways they implement their textbook theory, writing and research.

Despite the fact that there is no clear answer to the problem of the methodology of examining textbooks and no common theory of textbook writing, it seems important to conduct comparative studies, since this kind of research might offer some general criteria and methodologies to be applied to knowledge, subject theory, methodology, and educational design in different educational systems.

Research on history textbooks, however, has focused on a few aspects of history textbooks. These are:

- bias and stereotype with regard to other nations;
- ideological effects on history textbooks;
- text structure of history textbooks;
- illustrations used in history textbooks;
- readability of history textbooks.

**Bias and stereotype with regard to other nations**

The eliminating of stereotypes and bias and the exposing of adverse images and distortions of other nations has been a most popular subject for research. It is worth emphasising
that the worldwide efforts of UNESCO, The Council of Europe and The George Eckert Institute have raised the level of awareness about these issues in history textbooks and, it is argued, have improved international understanding in promoting and preserving peace.

Much research has been funded by UNESCO to support this kind of enquiry, so as to prevent the misuse of history teaching and textbooks and to encourage worldwide agreement in history textbook writing. Several international discussions have been dedicated to this topic as well (UNESCO, 1953, 1970a, 1970b, 1983). Nations which had formerly been at war with one another have been a particular target. Many conferences have also been organised, and textbooks exchanged between countries which had historical problems in their dealings with each other. A large number of revisions and recommendations were made in order to eradicate inaccurate statements, misrepresentations, stereotyped and distorted statements from history textbooks (Clammer, 1986; Luntinen, 1988, 1989).

The Council of Europe's school history and textbook activities have also helped to promote an understanding and awareness among European countries to help establish the idea of a united Europe. The Council's declared aim has been the eradication of bias and prejudice from textbooks (Slater, 1995).

The George Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research has also been an important textbook research centre since its foundation in 1951. One of the main purposes of the Institute has been to compare, through international textbook research, historical, geographical and political presentations in textbooks. The Institute publishes a journal called the "Internationale Schulbuchforschung" (International Textbook Research) which covers worldwide research carried out on all aspects of textbooks (Slater, 1995).

As a result of this systematic research conducted by the various organisations, it has been widely recognised that stereotypes, prejudices and adverse images in the textbooks of different nations have to be eliminated in order to create international understanding and historical awareness among different countries. Many scholars have researched the extent to which school textbooks nurture and reflect crude nationalistic biases and stereotypes in their presentation of national histories (Berghahn and Schissler, 1987; Schissler, 1987; Hutton and Mehlinger, 1987).

2.2.2. Ideological effects on history textbooks

It is fairly widely acknowledged in history teaching that one of the main aims is to develop skills of analysis and criticism in a situation in which there can not be a single correct answer. It is also often emphasised that historical interpretations vary from one historian to another, and one
person to another (Husbands, 1996; Levstik and Bartok, 1997; Lee, 1991; Aldrich and Dean, 1991). In line with this basic idea, the research emphasises that history textbooks have an important role to play in developing an unbiased perception of the self-image of a society.

The literature search reveals many examples from different countries of the ways in which ideology and politicisation affect history textbooks. In his study Ferro (1981) analysed how history has been taught according to the textbooks used in different societies (Spain, Poland, Soviet Union, China, Japan and others). Ferro points out that historical content are modified and seriously altered depending on political interests. The literature review also indicates that political effects on history textbooks has been effective in Estonia (Tulviste and Wertsch, 1994; Bulgaria, (Dimitrova and Kaytchev, 1998), Turkey (Ozbaran, 1992; Kreiser, 1987; Kabapinar, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c). Carretero et al. (1994) also point out that in Mexico history textbooks are modified under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. This modification produced an enormous controversy in Mexican newspapers and mass media. Interestingly there were even teacher demonstrations against the new textbooks imposed by the government. As emphasised by Marsden (1989), and Apple (1993), ideological effects and the politicisation of history and history textbooks only help to create a false or defective awareness in society.

Most researchers agree that history textbooks should not be used to convey an ideological viewpoint or one-sided account of history with 'orthodox' interpretations. School books should not be tools to satisfy the political ends of governments and political ideologies. To put it another way, history textbooks should not claim to be authoritative tools shaping the minds of pupils (Lee, 1991; Aldrich and Dean, 1991, Marsden, 1989; Apple, 1993). As emphasised by Fritzsche (1992) "it has become standard practice in textbooks to present socially controversial subjects critically and from a variety of perspectives". This means that the controversial issues and uncertainties in the explanation of historical events should be used to develop the skills of analysis and criticism.

**Illustrations in history textbooks**

Illustrations -or visual sources- are very important components of a history textbook. In recent decades, the function and use of illustrations in history teaching have been redefined and widened. Illustrations have been acknowledged as important message conveyors and sources from the past, to be examined. In other words, pictures and other visual aids provide evidence of the society from which they come (Laspin, 1998; Choppin, 1992; Unwin, 1986). Therefore, one of the many purposes of using illustrations in history textbooks is to involve the student in
evaluation, deduction and decision-making. Pictures, for example, can be used to pose questions to the readers. A cartoon drawn by a Russian and/or German cartoonist in 1940's; or a Nazi propaganda poster showing Hitler as the saviour of Germany have been regarded as first-hand sources to be examined and interpreted in a situation in which teacher and pupils are involved. Photographs of artefacts from the past are used to inspire and encourage children to empathise with what happened then. For example, photographs of the same part of a town at different points in time provide opportunities for demonstrating continuity and change over time (Cooper, 1995). However, while there exists theoretical research conducted on the function of illustrations in the history textbooks, little empirical research is available in the literature.

Research carried out in the field of cognitive psychology also indicates that the assimilation of information can be much faster when looking at pictures and other visual aids, such as diagrams, charts, maps, since they provide information, rather than reading related textual descriptions (Levin and Mayer, 1993). As far as the pedagogical and psychological features of illustrations are concerned, they may provide cues for identifying difficult words and concepts (Filippatou and Pumfrey, 1996; Liddell, 1996). Pictures may also stimulate interest in reading the text and promote a better understanding of the textual information. Research in cognitive psychology has also shown that when texts included pictures, comprehension is improved (Woodward, 1993, Levin and Mayer, 1993).

**Text structure in history textbooks**

The language and structure of the writing in history textbooks has been one of the substantial issues in textbook research which may directly affect the student's comprehension. The research indicates (Armbruster and Anderson, 1984; Armbruster, 1984; Kantor et al., 1983) that the reader is able to construct a coherent model of the text's meaning if it is well structured. Thus, it is clear that the form of the explanations, the style of writing and text organisation used, and the explanation of historical concepts in textbooks play a vital role in the pupil's comprehension.

Britt et al. (1994) support these conclusions and point out that there are many fine details in American history textbooks, but the main ideas are largely missing. Armbruster and Anderson (1984) propose the concept 'considerate text' which facilitates understanding, learning and remembering. Some text-organisation models are suggested in order to increase comprehension. Armbruster and Anderson (1984) especially have suggested a “causal explanation model” for history textbooks, where causal relationships, which are those of “Goal-Plan-Action-Outcome”
are crucial in the explanation of events. The goal, plan, action and outcome are the slots of the frame, and are assumed to constitute the main ideas of the explanation of an historical event.

Later, Britt et al. (1994) and Perfetti et al. (1995) proposed a new model called "the argument model". This model of text organisation is intended to expand both student comprehension of historical texts and student reasoning about historical methodology by introducing a variety of claims and assertions about historical events, as well as the evidence to support them. So students are offered access to a variety of historical evidence to develop a variety of skills and cognitive activities.

Readability of history textbooks

Readability is concerned with the problem of matching between reader and text, and it is used to define aspects of the text which affect its appeal and comprehensibility (Graham, 1978; Johnson, 1979). Research in the field of readability incorporates legibility of the written material, visual aspects in the text, organisation of information, and clarity of meaning. Although this definition of readability is very broad, in theory most of the research carried out under the title of readability deals with the difficulty of written materials by using some specially developed formulae so as to assign grade levels to text.

However, the function and reliability of readability formulae has always been a subject of controversy and debate. Much of this has emphasised that readability formulae ignore the legibility of text, the readability of the pictures, tabulated data, and diagrams and interest-level of readers (Mobley, 1986; Arkell, 1982; Johnson and Johnson, 1987; Newton, 1984). It has also been suggested (Stokes, 1978; Klare, 1984) that readability formulae must be used with caution, both in the choice of formula and in the interpretation of results, since the results of different readability formulae are likely to be incompatible with each other, and either too simple to be accurate or too complex to be convenient.

Despite these criticisms of readability formulae, their use is becoming popular. The formulae have had an important effect on the textbook publishing industry in the last two decades. Especially in the USA, the effects of readability are so influential that the New Jersey law states that "a consumer contract shall be simple, clear, understandable, and easily readable (Fry, 1988).

As far as the literature related to readability is concerned, the research carried out on the readability of history textbooks is very limited. Arkell (1982), in his evaluation, explained his experience with readability formulae. After measuring a variety of excerpts taken from different history textbooks, he concluded that "readability formulae had little of value to offer to hard-
working history teachers". With his pessimistic approach to the value of readability formulae, he concluded that "there must be more reliable methods of assessing reading difficulties in history texts".

Other readability research on science textbooks indicated that the results of readability analysis were often controversial. Johnson and Johnson (1987), Newton (1984), Johnson (1979), Graham (1978) concluded that the formulae used in measuring the difficulty of text had serious shortcomings when used to assess the suitability of materials commonly used in science teaching. For example, it was reported that readability formulae described the language of science as difficult, but one of the main aims of science teaching is to teach knowledge of scientific language. In addition, readability formulae were not efficient at measuring the difficulty level of figures, pictures and tabulated data which were allocated an important role in science textbooks.

As a result, although readability formulae are not the most reliable tools in measuring the difficulty level of the texts, they will probably continue to be used until some widely applicable alternatives are found.

Recently, cognitive theorists and reading researchers have gone beyond the concept of comprehensibility as simply vocabulary difficulty and sentence length, and have begun to describe text features that may directly influence comprehension of history textbooks. In addition, some research on history textbooks was carried out by revising and rewriting history text. In this kind of research, researchers rewrite the textbooks, and the original textbook material was then tested against the rewritten version. Beck et al. (1991) emphasise that this process orientation provides more access points from which to consider reader/text interactions and the places where they may break down. In this kind of research, the rewriting techniques include:

a. reorganisation of the order of ideas;
b. signaling the structure of the content;
c. incorporating preview sentences;
d. adding logical connectives and other structural information;
e. changing and removing details;
f. explicitly stating main ideas and examples (Britton et al., 1993, p. 2).

The results of the research carried out by Beck et al. (1991) and Britton et al. (1993) indicate that the proportion of recall and the proportions of questions correctly answered were relatively higher for the students who read the revised version than for the students who read the original text. The improvement in comprehension was not only a matter of remembering more of the text: the students who read the text developed for the research purposes were able to present
the events and ideas in a casual/explanatory style. This means that students understood not only the events but also why the events occurred and how events and ideas were related to one another. Britton et al. (1993) also stress that 34 out of 38 pieces of research which were based on the revising and rewriting the textbook for different subject matter were successful in increasing the comprehensibility for students.

An examination of the literature revealed that there are many areas in textbook research which need to be investigated. Much more research should be carried out on the methodology of textbook research, textbook writers’ perceptions on writing history textbooks, history textbook production, the use of history textbooks in the classrooms and the comprehension of text. Moreover, a comparison of different textbook writing approaches would help to find some common grounds and methodologies for textbook writing and evaluation.

The results and implications of the research on history textbooks mentioned in the literature review will be largely used in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 where a comparison of the Turkish and English history textbooks was made from the point of view of design, construction and usability.
Chapter 3
THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Aims and Research Questions of the research

Research aims and questions related to dimension one: textbook analysis

*Research Aims for Textbook Analysis*
*Research Questions for Textbook Analysis*

Research aims and questions related to dimension two: teachers' attitudes to and use of textbooks in history lessons

*Research Aims for Teachers' Attitudes to and Use of the Textbooks*
*Research Questions for Teachers' Attitudes to and Use of the Textbooks*

Research Design and Methodology

Research sample

*Sample used in the textbook analysis*
*Sample of the empirical study*
   I. The sample for the questionnaire
   II. The sample for the interviews
   III. The sample for the observation

Research Instruments

*Questionnaire*
*Interviews*
   I. Interviews conducted with the history teachers
   II. Interviews conducted with the textbook writers

*Observation*

The Pilot Study of The Research Instruments

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data derived from the examination of the history textbooks:

The data analysis of the empirical study:

*Data Analysis of the Questionnaire*
*Data Analysis of the Interview*
*Data Analysis of the Observation*
CHAPTER THREE
THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the issues of design and methodology employed in this comparative study. First, the research aims and questions are presented, followed by a discussion of the sampling and data collection phase of the study. This follows an explanation of the pilot study and data analysis.

Aims and research questions on the research

The original impetus for undertaking this research stems from a previous study by the researcher on the examination of Turkish history textbooks (Kabapinar, 1992). In this research, 53 Turkish history textbooks published between the 1930's and 1990's were examined to investigate:

- the weaknesses in the presentation of the methodology of history;
- the ideological influences on history textbooks during the Republican Period;
- the nationalist exaggerations, distortions, inconsistencies and lack of criticism in Turkish history textbooks.

At the end of the research, these points were illustrated by giving a number of actual examples from Turkish history textbooks. The author also stressed the importance of the presentation of different viewpoints and the need to present pluralist ideas in history textbooks. In order to develop the research further, this comparison of Turkish and English history textbooks and their use was formulated in order to understand the similarities and differences in the rationales of history teaching in the two countries.

The research has two dimensions. The first is an examination and comparison of Turkish and English history textbooks, and the second is an empirical study of teachers' attitudes to and use of history textbooks in the classroom.

Research aims and questions related to dimension one: the textbook analysis

In this phase of the research, the rules and criteria for writing history textbooks, the readability level of English and Turkish history textbooks and the way in which historical judgements and controversial issues are presented in history textbooks are explored and compared. The aims of this phase of the research are given below.
Research Aims for Textbook Analysis:

1. To investigate, in the Turkish context, the official criteria and rules for writing textbooks imposed by The Ministry of Education on the textbook writers, and to discover if there are any equivalent criteria in England.

2. To make a comparison between Turkish and English history textbooks from the point of view of the structure of text, readability, page layout, use of illustrations and historical sources.

3. To consider, as far as possible, the motives and purposes of the textbook writers and so to elucidate the ways in which any value judgements and historically controversial issues are presented in Turkish and English history textbooks.

Research Questions for Textbook Analysis

In Turkey and England:

- Are there any criteria or rules in writing history textbooks? (What is the role of "The Textbook Examination Board" in Turkey?)

- How accessible are history textbooks in terms of their readability?

- Are there any similarities and differences in the use of illustrations and historical sources, the structure of texts, and page-layout?

- What are the similarities and differences in presenting historical information to pupils in these two different educational cultures?

- How are value judgements and controversial issues presented in history textbooks and are these related to divergent cultural and democratic conditions?

Research aims and questions related to dimension two: teachers' attitudes to and use of textbooks in history lessons

In this part of the study, teachers’ perceptions and use of history textbooks both in classrooms and for home study will be examined. The aims of this dimension of the research are given below.

Research Aims for Teachers’ Attitudes to and Use of the Textbooks:

1. To understand teachers' expectations of the textbooks and their use of history textbooks in lesson preparation and in lesson delivering.
2. To understand the relationship between the use of history textbook(s) and other resources in the classroom.

3. To examine the use of history textbooks in the classroom.

*Research Questions for Teachers' Attitudes to and Use of the Textbooks:*

In Turkey and England:
- What use do the teachers make of written and visual materials in their classrooms?
- What use do teachers make of textbooks during their teaching?
- What determines whether history teachers use textbooks or not in the classroom?
- What are history teachers views about the quality of textbooks?

In the following diagram, the overall design of the research is presented.

**Diagram 3.1. A diagrammatic summary of the nature of the research carried out**

**A COMPARISON OF TURKISH AND ENGLISH HISTORY TEXTBOOKS**

- The Ministry of Education
- Textbook Writers
- Textbook Analysis
- Teachers' Views

The criteria/rules for writing textbooks
Explicit/implicit pressure on history textbook writers
The function of the Textbook Examination Board (Turkey only)
Readability levels of the history textbooks
Legibility and page layout of the history textbooks
The use of illustration in the history textbooks
The organisation of text in the history textbooks
The presentation of value judgements and controversial issues
Teachers' views about the quality of the textbooks
The use of written and visual materials in classroom
The use of textbooks during teaching
Factors that affect textbook use in the classroom

**Research Design and Methodology**

**Research sample**

**Samples used in the textbook analysis**

The comparison between Turkish and English history textbooks includes Turkish and English history textbooks used by Year 8 (12-13 year-old) and Year 10 (15-16 year-old) classes.
The first reason for choosing these different age groups was to explore the difficulty levels of words, sentences used in writing together with illustrations and questions used to help and promote comprehension. The second reason was that the age range of students in the secondary and high schools in Turkey are 11-14 and 14-17 respectively. It was thought that these age ranges selected for study represent suitable age-points. In England, the two age-groups were likely to be in the same school.

The criteria applied to choose the textbooks were:

- commonly used books, as judged by the experience of the researcher and supervisors (so as to ensure wider implications for teaching and learning),
- availability and practicality (commonly used textbooks were likely to be used by a wider range of schools, and hence to help the researcher to find the sample for the second phase of the study).

The target textbooks were therefore:

**Turkish History Textbooks:**

For Year 8 age group: Prof. Dr. E. Mercil, Prof. Dr. I. Miroglu, Prof. Dr. Y. Halacoglu, Y.Doc. Dr. Z. G. Oden (1996) *Ilkogretim Milli Tarih 7*, Altin Kitaplar, Istanbul

For Year 10 age group: Altan Deliorman (1992) *Tarih Lise II*, Bayrak Yayinevi, Istanbul

**English History Textbooks:**


These books were accepted as the target textbooks to measure readability, page layout and illustrations and so on. Subsequently, a number of other textbooks, itemised in the bibliography of the study, were used to provide examples related to the presentation of value judgements and controversial issues and to offer a wider representation of approaches taken by both Turkish and English textbook writers.

**Sample of the empirical study:**

History teachers and textbook writers were the subjects of this empirical study. Four schools were visited in England, each of which had both year groups within it. However, because of the fact that schools in Turkey were composed of only one of the age-groups chosen, 8 schools were visited in order to make the number of classrooms visited in both country equal.
In England, heads of history departments were personally contacted and asked for their help in conducting the research in their schools. However, an official permit from the education authorities was needed to conduct research in Turkish schools. Also, the schools where the empirical phase of the research was conducted were chosen from the ones which used the target textbooks.

In this research, in order to answer the research questions (related to ‘teachers’ attitudes to and use of the textbooks), questionnaire, interview and observation data-gathering techniques were used. It was necessary to use a combination of different data-collection techniques so as to get an accurate view of the ideas of history teachers. The use of different data-collection techniques not only helped the researcher to elicit detailed information about history textbooks, but also to increase the ‘credibility’ of the research. As indicated by Robson (1995), the use of evidence from different sources, of different methods of collecting data are called triangulation techniques. Triangulation provided a means of testing one source of information against other sources. To some extent, the data obtained through different research tools cross-validated each other.

A wider sample of teachers’ views on textbooks were obtained through the questionnaire. In order to obtain detailed information about the quality, effectiveness and use of history textbooks, it was decided to interview some of the teachers in the target schools in Turkey and England. In addition, classrooms were observed to obtain an idea as to the use of history textbooks and the other teaching materials, the techniques and activities used in teaching history in these divergent educational cultures. In this way, each research tool was backed up by the results of the other research instruments, and might be seen as a validity check.

I. The sample for the questionnaire:

The sample of history teachers, which was randomly chosen due to time limitations in eliciting the data from both Izmir and Leeds, was contacted and asked to complete the questionnaire. The main purpose was to elicit as many responses as possible within a limited period of time. The principal questionnaire data used in the study was derived from 61 English and 74 Turkish teachers’ responses.

The researcher used self-administered questionnaires for data collection in schools in Izmir, since postal questionnaires are not widely recognised or used in educational research in Turkey. The researcher also had the support of colleagues in Turkey to distribute the
questionnaires to the schools, and facilitate their return. 74 questionnaires were collected from the history teachers in Izmir.

However, postal questionnaires were used in Leeds. It should be pointed out that obtaining a response from English history teachers was more difficult than anticipated. In order to increase the response rate, heads of departments were contacted by telephone before sending the questionnaire, and asked if they could help. In addition, trainee teachers in the School of Education, while on teaching practice, were also asked to help the research by asking their historian colleagues to fill in the questionnaire. As a result of these attempts, 61 questionnaire were completed by English history teachers. It is recognised that the number of questionnaires is not large and representative of the issues considered. However, the outcomes might indicate some ideas and preferences, taking the sample size into consideration.

II. The sample for the interviews:

It was planned that two teachers were to be interviewed from each of the target schools in England. However, it was only possible to interview six English teachers because of examinations at the time of the data collection. In Turkey, since schools were composed of one of the age-groups chosen, the teachers in eight schools were targeted. As a result of this arrangement, one history teacher was interviewed from each school.

Two Turkish and two English history textbook writers were also contacted and asked for their participation in the research. These interviews helped the researcher to identify textbook writers’ perceptions about textbook writing in Turkey and England. The interviews conducted with history teachers and textbook writers were audiotaped with their permission.

III. The sample for the observation:

An observation schedule was also devised to provide a basis for analysis of teachers’ and students’ use of textbooks and other teaching materials during history lessons. Sixteen teachers were proposed to be observed for four lessons which included both Year 8 and Year 10 classes in Turkey and England. Due to lack of time and the practical issues faced during the school visits, 54 classes were observed in each country.

Research Instruments

In this section, the research tools will be introduced to give an idea of the questions included and asked of the respondents.
Questionnaire

The questionnaire was composed of an introduction and six different sections (see Appendix 1a). These were as follows:

1. Introduction and collection of background information: In the introduction, respondents were invited to cooperate and assured of confidentiality. For sampling purposes, some questions such as respondents’ sex and position in the school were posed.

2. The materials used in Year 8 and Year 10 classes: In this section, ten different teaching materials were listed in order to understand how much textbook and other teaching materials were normally used in Year 8 and Year 10 classrooms. In order to find the differences in the use of teaching material, separate sections were offered to respondents for Year 8 and Year 10. The five-point scale ('Never', 'Hardly ever', 'Sometimes', 'Often', and 'Nearly Always') was used to elicit the data.

In Turkey, the use of worksheets and Teachers’ Guide Book Activities are little known, so these items were excluded from the Turkish version of the questionnaire. Once again, the five-point scale ('Never', 'Hardly ever', 'Sometimes', 'Often', and 'Nearly Always') was presented to elicit the data.

3. The use of history textbooks during lessons: The intention in this section was to find which parts of the history textbooks were used most. In the English version of the questionnaire six different options were offered to respondents. However, in the Turkish version of the questionnaire the options for written and pictorial historical sources were excluded, since they have no place in Turkish history textbooks. ‘Never’, ‘Hardly ever’, ‘Sometimes’, ‘Often’, and ‘Nearly Always’ were again used.

4. What determines whether you use textbooks or not in the classrooms: In this part of the questionnaire, the factors which affected textbook use in the Turkish and English classrooms were sought. Ten different factors were offered, and they were given the opportunity to tick as many as they thought relevant.

5. The quality of the textbooks used: This section covered 14 statements related to the teachers’ perception of the quality of the textbooks they use. The statements relating to the quality of written and pictorial sources again were eliminated from the Turkish translation of the questionnaire. A five-point scale, ‘strongly agree’, ‘agree’, ‘no idea’, ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ was offered.
6. Function of textbooks: This part of the questionnaire focused on the perceptions and understandings of the Turkish and English history teachers about the concept of a ‘textbook’. Five different options were offered. The option “Textbooks help me produce worksheets” was excluded from the Turkish questionnaires. A five-point scale was again used.

7. What use do you expect your pupils to make of a textbook?: Teachers were invited to tick as many options as were appropriate for them. This section was intended to elicit teachers’ expectations about students’ use of textbooks and as well as the skills that pupils are expected to gain from textbook use.

Throughout the questionnaire, additional space was allocated for the teachers to comment and express their ideas more freely.

Interview:

So as to obtain more detailed information about teachers’ use of textbooks, their ideas about both the quality of history textbooks and their perception of textbooks, eight Turkish and six English history teachers were interviewed. Apart from history teachers, two history textbook writers from each country were also interviewed about the processes of writing a history textbook. The content of the interviews conducted with history teachers and textbook writers covered the following kinds of issues.

I. Interview conducted with the history teachers:

It was thought that interviewing history teachers would help to elicit more detailed information. It was decided to use a structured interview in the research and an interview schedule was prepared. The interview comprised three main sections of questions. In the first part of the interview, questions about the function and use of history textbooks in the preparation and presentation of lessons were asked. In the second, teachers’ ideas about the quality of history textbooks were investigated and opinions about the effectiveness of some components of history textbooks such as the print and general layout of textbooks and visual aids were sought. It was also expected that these questions about the quality of the components of history textbooks would test the consistency of the results of the questionnaire with the interview. In the third section, history teachers’ views about textbooks were also examined. This contained questions about the criteria teachers used in choosing history textbooks, and also their ideas about what constitutes the ideal history textbook. Teachers were also asked to consider whether the use of textbooks was decreasing. Turkish teachers were introduced to some English history textbooks near the end of
the interview and their opinions were sought. In the same way, English history teachers were shown Turkish history textbooks and asked to comment on them.

The Interview conducted with the textbook writers:

Interviewing textbook writers was an essential part of the research since they create the textbooks. Two textbook writers were interviewed from each country during the limited time available for data gathering. The questions asked (see Appendix 1b) were a mixture of the questions asked in teacher interview, 'the quality of history textbooks’ and ‘textbook writer’s perception of the textbook’. Some questions were also asked relevant to the processes of textbook writing and approval in each country. Textbook writers’ opinions about Turkish/English textbooks were also elicited.

Observation

Apart from the data obtained through questionnaire and interview, it was decided to observe the teaching and learning of history in classrooms in Turkey and England, since they are the arena where textbooks are used by students and teachers. In order to record activities taking place in classrooms, an observation schedule was prepared (see Appendix 1c). The schedule was composed of sections for recording general information on the lesson, such as the materials used, school name etc., and sections for recording the activities and their duration. During observation, the main focus was to understand the use of history textbooks. All the activities carried out during teaching and learning were recorded on the schedule. The following diagram summarises the empirical part of the study.

Diagram 3.2. A diagrammatic summary of the empirical study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONNAIRE</th>
<th>INTERVIEW</th>
<th>OBSERVATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkish questionnaire: 74</td>
<td>Teacher’s Interview</td>
<td>Turkish observation: 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English questionnaire: 61</td>
<td>Turkish teachers: 8</td>
<td>English observation: 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English teachers: 6</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Textbook Writer’s Interview</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Turkish Textbook Writer: 2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English Textbook Writer: 2</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Pilot Study of The Research Instruments

Before administering the research instruments in the target schools, they were piloted in a small group of schools to allow the researcher to appraise the effectiveness of the research instruments. To do this, two schools were visited in Leeds, and history teachers were asked about the research instruments. Five history teachers in the pilot schools helped to pilot the data-gathering mechanisms. In these schools, interviews were conducted, and lessons were observed. Revisions took place in the light of the findings.

For the Turkish part of the research, all research instruments were translated into Turkish, and their comprehensibility discussed with four Turkish students in the University of Leeds, School of Education. Five Turkish history teachers also helped the researcher to pilot the research instruments. The history teachers who helped the researcher to conduct pilot study were not used in the main study. The pilot study conducted in Izmir and Leeds helped the researcher:

- to gain experience of schools;
- to gain experience of interview and observation techniques;
- to ensure that final versions of the research instruments would be more effective as a result of revising and improving them;
- to ensure that the questionnaire and interview questions were comprehensible and effective.

Data Analysis

Since the research is composed of two different dimensions, one analytic and the other an empirical study, the analysis of the data should also be explained.

The analysis of the data derived from the examination of the history textbooks:

The data obtained through the examination of history textbooks was both qualitative and quantitative. As previously mentioned, the existing research literature reports the examination of different components of history textbooks, but does not offer methodologies on how to analyse the qualitative data. Thus, an attempt was made to turn qualitative data into quantitative data through measurements and calculations. For example, the space allocated to text, illustrations and the unused part of the textbook were calculated by specially designed grids which fitted the target textbook pages. The number of illustrations was also counted and categorised in order to analyse the number and types of illustrations used in Turkish and English history textbooks.
However, some parts of the data were not suitable for calculation and measurement. For example, value judgements and the presentation of controversial issues in Turkish and English history textbooks were examined and analysed in the light of considerations about the methodology of history, such as:

- whether textbooks offered different points of views;
- whether textbooks presented all the historical facts related to events;
- whether there was bias and stereotypes relating to other nations, religions etc., in the textbooks;
- whether history textbook writers' value judgements influenced the explanations in the textbook;
- whether the methodology of history was applied to the writing of the textbook.

In addition, readability formulae and concept maps were used in order to explain some aspects of the structure of the text. Details of the methodology used in analysing textbooks are explained in Chapter 4 in detail.

The data analysis of the empirical study:

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data were also used in this part of the thesis, since questionnaire, interview and observation were used.

I. Data Analysis of the Questionnaire

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for coding and analysing the data. The raw data from the questionnaire was entered into this computer program. The analysis of the Turkish and English questionnaires was carried out by using two main kinds of statistics, namely t-test for independent samples and chi-square.

The t-test was used to evaluate the significance of the difference between the means of two sets of data. One of the assumptions underlying the t-test is that the variable being measured is normally distributed in the populations from which the samples are drawn. However, "statisticians have demonstrated that the t-test is extremely robust with respect to violation of these assumptions" (Robson, 1995, p. 75). Thus, although the views measured may not be normally distributed, t-tests were applied to discover the differences within and between the responses of the Turkish and English teachers. The t-test provided a basis for the following comparisons between the responses of the Turkish and English history teachers in the questionnaire.
• materials that teachers use in Year 8 classrooms;
• materials that teachers use in Year 10 classrooms;
• the use of history textbooks during lessons;
• the quality of the textbooks that history teachers use;
• the function of textbooks.

The chi-square statistic technique was appropriate for use with data in the form of frequencies. In other words, the chi-square technique is used to test the statistical significance of the difference in proportions, by counting the number of times something occurs (Robson, 1995). The chi-square helped the researcher to compare the parts of the questionnaire given below.

• What determines whether teachers use textbooks or not in the classroom?
• What use do history teachers expect their pupils to make of a textbook?

The criteria applied to interpret the results of the t-test and the chi-square were: if there was a statistically significant difference between the sample means in the results of t-test or the sample frequencies in the results of chi-square, the null hypothesis would be rejected and it would be concluded that the populations were different in these variables. If the probability values were greater than 0.05, the usual indicator of significance, we should avoid rejecting the null hypothesis and conclude that the differences in the sample means or sample frequencies were not statistically significant.

II. Data analysis of the interview

Turkish interviews were transcribed by the researcher. English interviews, however, were transcribed by an expert who was English. The written data of the interview was read three times in order for the researcher to become familiar with its content. In the light of the interview questions asked, a set of categories and patterns were obtained from the written data. These were:

• The significance of the textbook in the process of planning and delivering the lesson;
• The other teaching materials used in these processes;
• The factors that affect textbook use in the classrooms;
• Teachers' ideas about the quality of textbooks;
• The criteria applied in choosing the textbook;
• The concept of the "ideal" history textbook";
• The importance and/or function of the textbook;
• Teachers' ideas about existing English/Turkish history textbooks.
III. Data analysis of the observation:

The initial analysis of qualitative data was the reading of the observation schedules to become familiar with the content. During this preliminary analysis, some key themes and structures related to teaching and learning activities were derived from the raw data as suggested by Foster (1996). The general characteristics of the Turkish and English classrooms were discussed using the classroom examples and taking into account the prevailing teaching and learning ethos. Teaching materials and their importance in the lesson were also scrutinised. In sum, in the light of the examination of the raw data, the main categories in reporting and comparing the findings appeared as follows:

- the teaching/learning activities organised in the Turkish and English history classrooms, indicating the importance and use of history textbooks in accomplishing these activities,
- time allocated to organise and conduct these teaching/learning activities,
- what materials are used in the history classrooms during instruction.

In addition, reliability of the categorising and analysing procedure of interview and observation was established by having two Turkish research students. According to Frick and Semmel (1978), coder agreement is the harmony between the judges when they are coding the same occurrences and is analogous to the concept of reliability.

The coders were also research students in the School of Education, University of Leeds. They were initially briefed on the aims and rationale of the study. They were then given copies of the interview and observation schedules and category sets for the questions asked in the interview and observation. After the coders had finished the codings independently, discussions ensued so as to address any discrepancies in categorisation and categorisation procedure. This helped to increase the consistency of categorisation decisions. After each coder felt comfortable with the procedure, the analysis of the interview data in two randomly chosen categories was given to each coder. The coders then categorised the analysis independently. After intercoder agreement was established, the researcher analysed the remaining categories alone. The analysis of the some parts of the remaining categories were also given in the Appendix both to give the reader an idea about how the data was analysed and increase the reliability of the analysis.

The quotations taken from Turkish history textbooks were translated into English by a lecturer who has a PhD degree in teaching English. She is currently working in a Turkish university in Izmir. Turkish interview extracts, however, translated into English by the researcher. Translations made were also confirmed by the coders mentioned above.
Chapter 4
THE TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS: A COMPARISON OF DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION ISSUES OF TURKISH AND ENGLISH HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

A comparison of Legibility and Page Layout in Turkish and English History Textbooks
What is on the pages of Turkish and English history textbooks?
Text in the textbooks
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Analysis of the Legibility and Page Layout of Turkish and English history textbooks
The Sizes of textbooks
Design Aspects of Textbooks
Paper Quality
Print Quality of Illustrations
Type Sizes, Type Faces and Print Variations
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The Use of Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks
A Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis of the Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks
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Some Detailed Quantitative Comparisons on the variety of Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks
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A Comparison of the Readability Level of Turkish and English History Textbooks
The Methodology Applied for the Comparison of Readability Levels of Turkish and English History Textbooks
Applying Readability Formulae to the Turkish and English Textbooks
Selecting and applying a readability formula to English excerpts
Measuring the difficulty level of English excerpts
Measuring the difficulty level of Turkish excerpts
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The comparison of the Content and Organisation of Text in the Turkish and English History Textbooks
The Content and Organisation of Text in Turkish History Textbooks
The Content and Organisation of Text in English History Textbooks
Background Information
The Use of Evidence in English History Textbooks
Activities in English History Textbooks
A Comparison of the Content and Organisation of Texts in Turkish and English History Textbooks

Value Judgements and Presentation of Controversial Issues in Turkish and English History Textbooks
Value Judgements and Presentation of Controversial Issues in the Turkish History Textbooks
What about the other side of the coin?
Assigning overemphasise to ‘us’ and underestimation to ‘others’
Value Judgements and Presentation of Controversial Issues in the English History Textbooks
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Pluralism in the English History Textbooks
CHAPTER FOUR
TEXTBOOK ANALYSES: A COMPARISON OF DESIGN AND
CONSTRUCTION ISSUES OF TURKISH AND ENGLISH HISTORY
TEXTBOOKS

In this chapter the results of the textbook analysis are reported. First, qualitative and
quantitative comparisons will be made about the legibility and page layout of the target Turkish
and English history textbooks. Following this, the space allocated for illustrations will be
discussed in the light of the qualitative and quantitative analysis. The third issue is the comparison
of the readability levels of the target Turkish and English history textbooks which will be
compared by using one of the existing readability formula for English textbooks and a modified
version of it for Turkish textbooks. In addition to these issues, the content and organisation of the
text in the Turkish and English history textbooks will be examined by using some concept maps
which help to identify the main structural characteristics of the text. Finally, the way in which
value judgements and controversial issues are presented will be discussed on the basis of the
actual examples found in a variety of Turkish and English history textbooks.

A Comparison of Legibility and Page Layout in Turkish and English History Textbooks

The role of the textbooks is not only to facilitate teaching, but also to be attractive to
students. They should be sufficiently attractive and durable to be useful in classrooms.
Consequently, legibility and page layout are of particular importance to the young or less-able
reader. Research carried out in this field indicates that legibility and page layout also play a
notable role in motivating the reluctant learner (Hartley, 1993, 1994). The terms legibility and
page layout are used to refer to aspects of typography. This includes the lettering, design of type
face and particular type font used, paper quality, layout variables such as line length, size of
margins (Richaudeau, 1980; Watts and Nisbet, 1974).

Bearing in mind the research carried out in the area of legibility and page layout, a
comparison was made between some features of the Turkish and English history textbooks. First
of all, the space allocated to text and illustrations was examined and the amount of unused space
in each textbook considered.
What is on the pages of Turkish and English History Textbooks?

It is likely that the amount of space allocated to different aspects of a textbook may be seen as an indicator of the education philosophies and policies of history teaching. To perform this analysis, ten percent of the total number of pages from each textbook was selected.

Grids (10*10) were made to fit the pages for each textbook, and these were used to calculate the percentage of each page devoted to the particular aspects of textbooks. The measurements were carried out to decide what percentage of each of the boxes in the grid includes text, illustrations and unused space. The percentages were then calculated to find the actual ratio of the components in the textbook. The analysis was based on the following categorisations.

Text in the textbooks

This refers to any writing which the child would be required to read in order to understand the historical events, actions and ideas. The writing in English history textbooks included background information, written historical sources, instructions and activities. The text in Turkish history textbooks was composed of background information and some ‘preparation and evaluation’ questions. Since the components of the text in Turkish and English history textbooks and their functions will be explained in following sections, they will not be repeated here.

Illustrations in the textbooks

Another crucial component of the textbook is the illustrations, though their functions are very different in Turkish and English textbooks. As explained earlier, illustrations are regarded as visual historical sources in English history textbooks which assist in widening the interpretation of historical events. Pictures, paintings, maps, cartoons, caricatures, timelines, engravings, tables, graphs are used to support historical understanding. However, in Turkish history textbooks, illustrations seem to have no such function. Illustrations are generally accepted as the tools used to decorate pages of textbooks.

Unused space in the textbooks

Unused space in the textbooks may be defined as all the remaining space on each page after the calculation of pupil text and illustrations is made. This unused space is generally related
to the design of a textbook. In addition, writers and editors sometimes deliberately leave unused space in order to avoid confronting the students with condensed texts and visual confusion.

The results of the analysis

The results of the analysis of the target textbooks regarding the proportion of the text devoted to illustrations and unused space are set out in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. The space allocated for Text, Illustrations and Unused Space in Turkish and English textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parts of textbooks</th>
<th>E. Mercil (Year 8) %</th>
<th>A. Deliorman (Year 10) %</th>
<th>Shephard et al. (Y8) %</th>
<th>Walsh (Year 10) %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>35.16</td>
<td>34.83</td>
<td>27.75</td>
<td>24.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illustrations</td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>12.05</td>
<td>28.10</td>
<td>19.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unused space</td>
<td>50.14</td>
<td>53.12</td>
<td>44.15</td>
<td>55.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results clearly indicate that Turkish history textbooks are much more text-based with little emphasis on illustrations. However, English history textbooks offer students a different combination of text and illustrations. This stems from the very different rationale of teaching history to students in Turkey and England. The absorbing of information is at the centre of history teaching in Turkey whilst the enquiry based teaching approach in England aims to give pupils the notion that historical methodology necessitates answering questions to the written and illustrative sources available and interpreting them.

The Analysis of the Legibility and Page Layout of Turkish and English history textbooks

Printing a textbook is extremely complex. There are a great number of factors which affect the quality of the textbook printing. In order to understand the points related to printing, legibility and page layout of Turkish and English history textbooks, advice was sought from an expert in this field. It was decided to apply to the Leeds University Printing Service experts. This means that the sources used in reporting the printing features of Turkish and English textbooks will be based on expert advice.

1 With more than 25 years’ experience, Mr. Bernard Whitely, the General Director of Leeds University Printing Service, kindly devoted almost two hours of his time and helped to explain problems with regard to the page layout and printing features of Turkish and English history textbooks.
The expert stated that the quality of the printing in a book depended on the design, the materials used in printing, and ‘finishing’ which referred to the procedures related to the appearance of the book, binding, cutting to shape it. The market for which the book is produced directly affects the choices related to this printing quality. Thus, the requirements and criteria for printing a magazine and textbook totally differ as far as design, the use of materials, printing and finishing the product are concerned.

The Size of the textbooks

Turkish and English history textbooks for the most part differ in size. Turkish history textbooks were often about 15.50 cm wide and 23.50 cm long. However, the sizes of the history textbooks of Shephard et al (1993) were 19.20 cm in width and 27.30 cm in length, while Walsh’s are 21.30 cm wide and 27.50 cm long. The question of “Why this should be” was answered by the Leeds University expert as “the choices made in the two different cultures”. However since illustrations are accepted as historical sources every detail must be considered, so the larger textbooks provide the opportunity for bigger and potentially clearer illustrations.

Design Aspects of Textbooks

Our expert also pointed out that the layout of Turkish history textbooks made use of a single-column design. On the other hand, a two-column design system was used for the text and illustrations in English history textbooks. Mr Whitely stated that a single-column design for text and illustration may not be exciting for pupils, since it displays the text in a very dense form.

One of the disadvantages of the single-column layout was that of word hyphenation throughout the text. Text was broken up and difficult to read. However, a double-column design of the page avoided breaking up the words. An examination of the Turkish and English history textbooks revealed that both of the Turkish history textbooks examined had severe hyphenation problems. However, no hyphenation problem was found in the English history textbooks.

It was also explained that the single-column design is the easiest and simplest way of designing textbooks. It is not difficult to adjust the pages. Once they are modified, the same design can be used throughout the textbook. On the other hand, it is more difficult to design a double-column textbook. Every page needs to be designed carefully by adapting the text and illustrations to the pages of the textbooks.

Research carried out by Hartley (1980) suggests that a two-column layout is preferable to a single-column one for the setting out of straightforward prose. He emphasised that it is possible
to get more words on a page with two-columns layout, and this layout uses less space than a single-column one.

Paper Quality

The paper used in publishing is a very important financial aspect of book production. The quality of paper directly affects its resistance to wear and tear, its colour and opacity, the quality of printing, the clarity and speed of deterioration of illustrations in colour (Pearce, 1990).

Our expert maintained that the paper quality of the English textbooks, especially that of Walsh, were far better than the Turkish ones. Mr. Whitely particularly referred to the idea of the 'opacity' of the pages. This is also known as 'showthrough'. When poor quality papers is used, the print from one side shows through and blurs the other side and it reduces the reading ease of the text by the students (Mobley, 1986).

Print Quality of Illustrations

In both Turkish and English history textbooks, the method known as 'the four-colour printing method' were used to publish the illustrations. However, since the quality of paper and the scanning quality of the pictures is poor, the illustrations printed in the Turkish history textbooks are not as bright and attractive as in the English history textbooks. It was particularly emphasised that paper quality is one of the greatest determinants in having good quality illustrations. This is also affected by the technology used in printing, because the number of dots per inch, known as DPI.

Type Sizes, Type Faces and Print Variations

It is accepted that in the area of legibility the size of type should be 10-12 point for readers aged from 9-13, and 8-10 point for readers aged from 13 to adult (Watts and Nisbet, 1974; Mobley, 1986; Hartley, 1994; Richaudeau, 1980). The regulations issued by The Textbook Authorisation Council want writers to publish their textbooks in 10 point and above for those textbooks written for students aged 13+ (Tebligler Dergisi, 1995). Our expert confirmed that both the Turkish and English history textbooks were printed in 10-12 point, and these type sizes are suitable for these students' age ranges.

However, it is recognised that type face can be crucial for younger and less-able students (Mobley, 1986). Turkish and English history textbooks are mainly composed of serif type-face and sans-serif. Thus, there is no difference between Turkish and English history textbooks as far
as type face is concerned. It should be noted that there is no general agreement on the type faces to be used in printing the materials. Some researchers suggest sans-serif type faces whilst others prefer the use of serif type faces (Hartley, 1994).

Italicised and bold characters are often used in instructional materials as a means of emphasising a word in the text, for the titles of books and in bibliographic references. Both in Turkish and English history textbooks, print variations are largely used for these purposes. However, bold is the main print variation used in Turkish history textbooks. Italicised characters are only used in printing 'Evaluation Questions' in the textbook written by Deliorman (1992). On the other hand, italic characters are widely used to represent written sources in English history textbooks, but researchers into legibility suggest that the italic style is disliked by most readers, because it requires greater concentration to read (Hartley, 1994; Mobley 1986). Bold characters are used in emphasising a word and in the headings of English history textbooks. In addition, bold is also used in the instructions which explain the activities in Walsh (1997).

Binding of textbooks

The finishing process of a textbook consists of binding and covering. The choice of the quality of binding and covering directly influences the physical life of the textbook since textbooks which have an adequate 'finish' will last longer and be more resistant to daily handling. However, a large part of production costs is related to binding the textbook (Seguin, 1989).

Our expert stated that the bindings of the Turkish history textbooks were poor, and it should be emphasised that pages of the textbook written by Altan Deliorman had already started to disintegrate. However, the bindings of English history textbooks were better produced. He also confirmed that the binding and covering are the factors which directly effect the cost of the textbook.

In Turkey, parents have to buy all the textbooks in all subjects for their children. Because of this, Turkish parents pay 300 million $ for textbooks every year (Yeni Yuzyil, 6th of July 1998). Every school term, parents are required to buy 6-8 different textbooks for all the subjects in the curriculum. Since the national income per person is less than 2000$, and the wealth of the society is not as high as in Western countries, parents are not able to pay high prices for the textbooks. As a result, textbooks are sold for around 2-3 pounds. This means that the economic level of the society directly determines the quality of printing textbooks. There is no doubt that every technological advance in printing high quality textbooks is available in Turkey, however the cost of such textbook is not affordable for most ordinary Turkish families.
However, in England, textbooks are mainly supplied by the schools, so it does not cost the parents anything. Most of the textbooks are around £5 to £11. The comments made in the questionnaire reveal that some schools have difficulties in buying the necessary textbooks. However, it was observed during the visits made to English schools, that most had more than one textbook to offer students during the lessons. In a word, the quality of printing textbooks would seem to be directly related to market conditions and the wealth of the buyer as customer.

The Use of Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks

The two principal ways of communicating historical information to students are words and pictures. Thus one possible way to improve the effectiveness of a textbook is to give greater importance to an adequate use of illustrations. It has been a generally accepted view in cognitive psychology over the last 30 years that recognition of objects and assimilation of certain information is much faster when looking at pictures and other visual aids, such as diagrams, charts, graphs, maps, because they provide information more effectively than reading related textual descriptions (Levin and Mayer, 1993).

Levin (1981, cited by Mayer and Gallini, 1990) proposes five functions for text illustrations. These are:
- decoration - illustrations can help the reader enjoy the textbook by making it more attractive;
- representation - illustrations can help the reader visualise a particular event, person, place or thing mentioned in the text;
- transformation - illustrations can help the reader remember key information in a text;
- organisation - illustrations can help the reader organise information into a coherent structure;
- interpretation - illustrations can help the reader understand the text” (p. 715).

By their nature, historical texts are often composed of narrative and argumentative writing, and abstract concepts and ideas, such as democracy, monarchy, class struggle etc., which may make student comprehension more difficult. For that reason, illustrations are of considerable importance in facilitating historical understanding and learning. Research has shown that illustrations can elucidate a difficult concept, stimulate interest by combining an illustrative image with the written word, and expand the content and meaning of the content of the text if they are related to the text and serve an instructional function (Moore and Skinner, 1985). Levin (1983 cited by Filippatou and Pumfrey, 1996) suggests that pictures in social studies texts should provide not just representations of text, but interpretations and transformations since pictures serve as analogical devices.
Apart from their psychological function of facilitating learning and comprehension, illustrations have special significance in history and history textbooks. In recent decades, the function and purpose of using illustrative materials in history textbooks has been transformed, since illustrations such as photographs, drawings, pictures, caricatures have been used as historical sources in Western countries. As a result of this comprehensive change, the amount of text has diminished in many history textbooks, and high quality pictures and illustrations have appeared throughout the pages. Laspina (1998) does not perceive this as a competition between text and illustration; on the contrary, this is seen as a "partnership" between two components of a textbook, because the space allocated for illustrations in a textbook is called by him "a space filled with creative possibility". This position views both text and images as information. Thus, information about the historical past in recent history textbooks both incorporates text and illustration as a combination that helps pupils to explain and investigate the past.

Choppin (1992) suggests that "the picture is no longer regarded as a mirror in which a past age is reflected, but as a communicative act by the society which produced it, in short it is a historical source". The illustrations are very important sources since the artist/creator may bring out many details of the historical period. The pictures, drawings represent the illustrative appearance and interpretation of what the artist/creator saw at a point in the past with his/her own eyes.

A Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis of the Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks

In the following section, some qualitative and quantitative analysis were reported in order to see the similarities and differences in the use of illustrations in Turkish and English history textbooks. Firstly, as a qualitative comparison, the differences in rationale for using illustrations in Turkish and English history textbooks were examined. Secondly, space allocated for illustrations in the textbooks in both educational systems were calculated and gauged in order to obtain quantitative results.

The Differences in Rationale for Using Illustrations: A qualitative analysis

As far as the use and function of illustrations in history textbooks is concerned, there is a great deal of difference between English and Turkish history textbooks. This difference is fundamental, and can be seen in the rationale for using illustrations. In Turkish history textbooks, illustrations seem generally to serve as 'decoration' and 'representation'. This implies that most
of the illustrations help to make the text more attractive for the reader and to visualise the events, persons, places or things mentioned in the text. The Textbook Authorisation Council, in its regulations, stresses the importance of illustrations as “the media which make comprehension easier” without making reference to any use of illustrations as historical sources to be examined and interpreted (Tebligler Dergisi, 1995). Another indicator for the limited role and use of illustrations is that activities in Turkish history textbooks, such as ‘The Preparation Questions’ and ‘Evaluation Questions’ examined do not refer to the illustrations at all, but relate to extracting information from the text.

Illustrations in English history textbooks, however, are regarded not only as a medium which helps pupils’ comprehension of the text, but also as illustrative sources whose function is to allow pupils to interpret the past. Pupils have the opportunity to look at and make interpretations and inferences about the illustrations, and this process can be seen as learning about the past through illustrations which convey messages from the historical period. Thus, as pointed out by Laspina (1998) in the new textbooks, the illustrations are not thought of as explaining the text, they actually are the text to be interpreted, since they are responsible for carrying the content as visualised information to be studied.

Some Detailed Quantitative Comparisons on the variety of Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks

Paintings, maps and photographs are generally the most common illustrations used in Turkish history textbooks. Apart from these, textbooks may also include a few figures and tables. The vast majority of the illustrations come from primary and secondary sources, art books and encyclopaedias and so on. In order to carry out this analysis, all the illustrations in the target Turkish textbooks were counted and categorised. The categories of illustrations used in Turkish history textbooks is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Categories of Illustrations in Turkish History Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Illustrations</th>
<th>Mercil et.al. (Year 8) (138 pages)</th>
<th>Deliorman (Year 10) (228 pages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photographs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figures/Tables</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paintings</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>63.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2 clearly shows that paintings, photographs and maps are the most widely used illustrations in these Turkish textbooks. However, the use of figures and tables is very rare, and if they are used, they are made up of family trees of sultans. No charts, graphs or cartoons are found. Thus, pupils are not encouraged either to interpret numerical data or to understand the hidden messages in cartoons, since they are not used in Turkish textbooks.

In Table 4.3, the question of what kind of paintings are provided for pupils in Turkish textbooks was investigated. In order to do this, sub-categories were devised. As a result of the substantial emphasis on political history, it was decided to calculate the proportion of rulers’ portraits and war scenes in the total number of paintings in the target Turkish textbooks. It was also necessary to examine the extent to which paintings about social life, such as entertainment, disease, living conditions and so on, and paintings on science and art are to be found in Turkish history textbooks. The data for this enquiry are set out in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3. Categories of Paintings in Turkish History Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Paintings</th>
<th>Mercil et.al. (Y8) (138 pages)</th>
<th>Deliorman (Y10) (228 pages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>War Scene</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rulers’ Portraits</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Life</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science &amp; Art</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results confirm that most paintings in these textbooks are those of rulers’ and war scenes. However, paintings related to everyday social life have virtually no place. Moreover, few paintings were found for science and art: these were mainly the portraits of scientists, novelists and so on. Students in Turkey, therefore, have little opportunity to see what daily life was like in for instance, the Ottoman period, where people lived, what they were wearing and so on. Aydin (1997) also points out that the illustrations in Turkish history textbooks are composed of sultans’ portraits and the photographs of mosques. As a result, virtually the same paintings and photographs are used in a range of Turkish history textbooks.

However, English history textbooks present students with a wider variety of illustrative sources, including pictures, paintings, cartoons, tables, charts, posters, engravings. For example, Cooper (1995) explains that photographs are historical sources and indicates that old photographs and postcards provide good illustrative materials for observing the changing features in people’s daily lives, in architecture and so on. Therefore, studying illustrations can assist pupils in developing the idea of ‘change’ and ‘continuity’, and in grasping these historical concepts. Blyth
(1994) called this process "picture reading" which includes asking pupils to tell a story about what is happening in a certain picture and to sequence the 'events' in it.

Another important difference between Turkish and English textbooks is that Turkish textbook writers compose the text and then find the necessary complementary paintings and photographs from books, encyclopaedias and art books. English textbook writers, however, often create visual resources themselves. For example, a series of historical events may be summarised in a time chart, or illustrations which were developed by the author as an idea, may then be drawn by an professional artist. In this sense, the concept of "visualised text" can be used for this kind of material created by the textbook writer and artist.

Considering the structural differences in the function, use and variety of illustrations between Turkish and English history textbooks, it is not possible to apply the same analysis to the target English history textbooks. For instance, because of these differences, two categories of illustration found in English history textbooks are proposed here. First, there are illustrations created by the author/artist to assist understanding, such as maps, tables and diagrams. Second, there are the illustrations that the author has not created himself/herself, such as caricatures, posters (Choppin, 1992). The following table shows the number and percentages of illustrations created by writers/artists themselves and the ones taken from primary sources in English history textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Type of Illustration</th>
<th>C. Shephard et al. (Y8) (169 pages)</th>
<th>B. Walsh (Y10) (327 pages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illustrations as primary sources</td>
<td>185       67%</td>
<td>377           70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illustrations created by writers</td>
<td>91       33%</td>
<td>157           30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>276      100%</td>
<td>534           100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data shown in Table 4.4 suggest the proportion of illustrations created by textbook writers/artists are almost the same for both Year 8 and Year 10 textbooks. It is obvious that the textbook writer/artist plays an active role in creating the illustrations, such as tables, graphs, charts and graphs in English history textbooks. In many cases, the textual or numerical information have been converted into an illustrative aid so that students can easily recognise the similarities and differences and interpret them. The textbook writer, therefore, assumes the responsibility of presenting information in the most comprehensible way by displaying it in illustrative form.
Table 4.5 also exemplifies the type and proportion of primary source illustrations used in these English history textbooks. To perform this analysis, the illustrations as primary sources in English history textbooks were counted and categorised. The captions of the illustrations were also helpful in categorising this type of illustration.

Table 4.5. Types of illustrations as primary sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of illustrations as primary sources</th>
<th>C. Shephard et al. (Y8) (169 pages)</th>
<th>B. Walsh (Y10) (327 pages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paintings</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engravings</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photographs</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cartoons</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documents</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results obtained in Table 4.5 suggest that while paintings and engravings are of great importance in the Year 8 textbook, photographs, cartoons and posters constitute the bulk of the illustrations. Since, the camera was not invented during the period between 1500 and the early 1800's, there are no original photographs for use in history textbook. Thus, Shephard’s textbook mainly covers primary documents, such as engravings and paintings. On the other hand, in Walsh’s textbook, mainly about the 20th century, there are a vast number of photographs used as primary sources as a result of the invention of the camera.

Table also reveals the use of cartoons and posters in the Year 10 history textbook. Apart from their availability in the time period studied, Year 10 pupils may be academically and intellectually ready to grasp the hidden meanings behind these illustrations. As one of the important constituents of history, documents such as newspapers, parliamentary documents, diplomas are also presented in an illustrative form in the same proportion in both textbooks.

Table 4.6 shows the type and proportion of illustrations created by textbook writers in their English history textbooks. While categorising the illustrations created by writer/artist, it was decided to put graphs, tables and diagrams together, since they include numerical and diagrammatic representations of information.
Table 4.6. Type of illustrations created by writer/artist in English history textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of illustrations created by writer/artist</th>
<th>C. Shephard et al. (Y8) (169 pages)</th>
<th>B. Walsh (Y10) (327 pages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maps</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphs/Tables/Diagrams</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Lines</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity related to illustrations</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 4.6 shows, graphs, tables, diagrams and reconstructions are the most used, in the category of 'illustrations created by writer/artist'. The first two are usually devised to represent numerical data so as to make them more concrete and more accessible. Furthermore, diagrams and reconstructions are used in order to explain historical events in either caricatural or diagrammatic form, instead of by means of textual explanation. In order to visualise place and geographical position, maps are also used. Timelines also help pupils to see chronological events in a diagram. Some examples will be given in the next section.

At the end of the qualitative analysis of the illustrations, it was decided to examine the ratio of illustrations to total page in the Turkish and English history textbooks. To do this, the number of illustrations that the textbooks contain were divided into the total number of pages of the target textbooks. An overall analysis of this is shown in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7. Ratio of Illustration/Page in Turkish and English History Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mercil, (Year 8)</th>
<th>Shephard et al. (Year 8)</th>
<th>Delorman, (Year 10)</th>
<th>Walsh, (Year 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Illustrations</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio (Per Page)</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that Turkish history textbooks have approximately one illustration every other page. However, there are every two pages roughly three illustrations in English history textbooks. The data, from Table 4.7, also confirm that the proportions of total illustrations per page is almost three times more in English textbooks.

In a word, the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the illustrations reveals that the rationale for using illustrations, the space allocated for them, their variety, and the responsibility of the textbook writer/artist for producing them are very different in the textbooks of the two countries. It is evident that the prevailing emphasis in Turkish textbooks is on text with some
accompanying illustrations. On the contrary, English history textbooks offer a “partnership” of textual and illustrative information.

**Comparison of Some Examples of Illustrations in Turkish and English History Textbooks**

In this section, some examples of illustrations are shown by considering their possible functions in history classrooms. As explained earlier, more than fifty percent of the total number of paintings in the Turkish history textbooks examined are dedicated to pictures of rulers, and most of the books include identical portraits. Below, some examples chosen from Turkish history textbooks are shown.

![Illustrations](image_url)

A. Deliorman, *Milli Tarih 7*, p. 27

A. Deliorman, *Tarih Lise II*, p. 43

N. Ergezer, *Tarih Lise 2*, p. 73

E. Mercil et al., *Milli Tarih 7*, p. 68
The pictures taken from Turkish history textbooks seem to indicate that the same pictures may be used both in Year 8 and Year 10 textbooks, since the content of Year 10 textbooks is more in-depth repetition of Year 8. It may be that textbook writers do not use a variety of pictorial sources, because they are in short supply. Two related issues need to be addressed. Firstly, the existence of the same illustrations in history textbooks may not be noticed by the students. Secondly, bearing in mind the fact that portraits of rulers occupy almost 60% of the total paintings in the target Turkish textbooks as shown in Table 3, their usefulness could be called into question, since relatively limited number of questions could be asked about the portraits of rulers, and limited information could be extracted from them.

War history is at the heart of the Turkish history curriculum and textbooks. As a result, war scenes also seem to figure prominently in history textbooks. They must be used to strengthen nationalist and patriotic feelings in the students. Two of them are shown below.

A. Deliorman, *Tarih Lise II*, p. 49
Regardless of whether they are realistic or not, the illustrations shown above can give students the impression and feeling that their ancestors were patriotic, heroic fighters defending and expanding the territories of their empire, making whatever sacrifices they were required in their endeavour to attain fame and glory over the enemy. Moreover, the flag which can be seen in the first war scene is the flag of a political party in Turkey, which appears to have a similar purpose to that of The British Nationalist Party. The historical flag would normally be green, but in this painting, the textbook writer seems to be trying to impart some political message as well.

The illustrations in Turkish history textbooks might be called silent illustrations since neither history teacher nor students ask questions about them to elicit information about the past. However, the illustrations used in English history textbooks give information about the past, and help to interpret historical events and ideas. In addition, the research carried out (Barton and Levstik, 1996; Lynn, 1993; Harnet 1993; West, 1981) on the effectiveness of using historical illustrative materials to and pupil comprehension have shown that even pupils at primary school level are able to use their interpretative skills, see pictures in an historical time context, sequence and place them in time, and grasp the similarities and differences in pictures taken in different times. Shawyer et al. (1988) also emphasises that in developing a sense of historical time, visual presentations can be one of the most effective tools used in history classrooms.

In accordance with this viewpoint, caricatures, cartoons and posters are acknowledged as valuable primary illustrative sources in English history textbooks, reflecting the thinking of the
Some examples taken from textbooks are given below in order to clarify the use of cartoons and caricatures.

**Source 1**

A Soviet cartoon from the Second World War, showing Hitler ordering his troops to their death.

**Source 2**

A cartoon by David Low from the Evening Standard, the London newspaper, published in November 1942.


In the light of the examples given above, the use of cartoons in English history textbooks offer a challenge to the students to build their interpretative and critical thinking. In addition, students may enjoy history lessons built around cartoons and caricatures. Heitzmann (1996) explains that the use of cartoons and caricatures may assist pupils in gaining interpretative competence and skills, such as:

- understanding that cartoons may contain stereotyping that does not reflect reality,
- comprehending historical references and images,
- explaining the issue in question,
- explaining the caption,
- appreciating the use of humour and exaggeration,
- interpreting the message or viewpoint (p. 3).

Additionally, cartoons may sometimes be so effective that instead of listening to long lectures, or reading hundreds of pages to grasp the main point of an historical issue, a cartoon may be good enough for students to recognise and grasp the underlying meanings and implications of the issue. However, it has been suggested that caricatures and cartoons should not be used before
the upper years of the secondary school, since their meaning may not be adequately understood. For that reason, history teachers may need to give significant background information to extend the student’s comprehension of the cartoon (Unwin, 1986; Choppin, 1992).

As an illustrated advertising medium used by governments during World War II, war posters are as valuable primary sources in English history textbooks in investigating the manipulation of patriotic and nationalistic feelings through national symbols. As a form of government propaganda, war posters incorporate patriotism, confidence, strength against the enemy (Orbis Publishing, 1995). Interestingly, in most English history textbooks, which deal with World War II, a number of English, German, American and Soviet war posters can be found. Some examples are shown below.

The text reads ‘Hard times, hard tasks, hard hearts’ 1943 poster telling people to black out their windows.

Ben Walsh, Modern World History, John Murray, p. 140
The examples given show that these kinds of illustration help students to understand what kind of strategies were used to manipulate society during the war. They are very important sources for an understanding of the concept of propaganda and what makes it effective. In history classrooms, teachers may also help pupils to recognise contemporary propaganda techniques in the newspaper, television, advertisements etc.

As mentioned earlier, textual information is very often converted into visual information by textbook writers in English history textbooks so that students can grasp more easily. This may be called the pedagogical concern of textbook writers who direct their products to a very special audience. Some example of this types of visual are shown below.

**SOURCE 27**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>One person took 180 kg</th>
<th>One person took 1-2 tonnes</th>
<th>Two people took 50 tonnes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Changes in the transport industry

**SOURCE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Walking</th>
<th>Farm wagon</th>
<th>Stage wagon</th>
<th>Packhorse</th>
<th>Stagecoach</th>
<th>Mailcoach</th>
<th>Horseback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average speed</td>
<td>3 mph</td>
<td>3 mph</td>
<td>2 mph</td>
<td>2 mph</td>
<td>6 mph</td>
<td>10 mph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments</td>
<td>Ideal for short local journeys. Some people were skilled at carrying large containers on their heads or on a yoke across their shoulders.</td>
<td>Heavy frame, iron wheels, used in towns and villages.</td>
<td>Carried up to 20 passengers and a variety of goods. Needed 6-12 horses to do 10-15 miles per day.</td>
<td>Useful on really bad roads—10 miles per day.</td>
<td>Wealthier passengers only. So-called because the journey was broken into stages. At the end of each stage there was a coaching inn where the horses were exchanged for fresh ones.</td>
<td>Only began in 1784, carried mail and passengers. The best method, but only for the wealthy. Highwaymen posed a danger. Highway robbery was a capital offence but with no police to enforce the law there was little control.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Methods of road transport in the 1700s.

B. Walsh, *British Social and Economic History*, John Murray, p 129 and p 140
These examples suggest that in some cases, textbook writers may prefer to set out the information visually, instead of writing half a page or a page about an historical account. By using this kind of illustration, pupils may have more opportunity to grasp and recognise change and continuity during historical periods. Additionally in the field of cognitive psychology, it has been suggested that visual memory has different properties to memory used for textual information. Visuals are better retained both in the short and long-term memory. Also, less time is spent in comprehending their textual counterparts (Standing, 1973; Dechant, 1991; Levin and Mayer, 1993).

Maps are traditionally the main constituent and ‘conceptual centrepiece’ of a history textbook. According to Laspina (1998) “Maps are composed of single lines which conform to a conventional set of highly naturalised illustration codes that convey information about historical events through shape, pattern, and form rather than through written text”. Research has also shown that students tend to recall more information from a text when they are also able to study a related map. Maps also help to improve memory for related prose (Kulhavy et al., 1993; Abel and Kulhavy, 1986; Gilmartin, 1982).

As far as the maps in Turkish history textbooks are concerned, they are, in most cases, used to accompany an explanation of war history, and the treaties signed at the end of wars. They are generally used to show to what extent territories were lost or gained or to what extent sultans expanded the Ottoman Empire or other Turkish states in the past.

The textbooks examined show that there are some textbooks in which maps are effectively designed and sequenced, however there are also some textbooks which have hard-to-read and poorly rendered maps. What is inexplicable is that the Textbook Authorisation Council approves both, and this shows that there are no clear criteria for maps published in history textbooks. Some examples of maps taken from the same history textbooks are shown below. The shape of the island of Cyprus will be concentrated on in these maps.
Nevin Ergezer, *Liseler İcin Tarih 1*, Ocak Yayınları, pp. 33, 37, 137
As can be seen from these maps, they were drawn by hand with little attention to detail. In these maps, the island of Cyprus was drawn in different sizes and shapes and none of them looks like the actual island. In one of these maps, although the word ‘Cyprus’ is written on the map, it was omitted. The poor quality and inconsistencies shown suggest that the Textbook Authorisation Council either do not pay much attention to maps, or do not have criteria for approving the maps in Turkish history textbooks.

A Comparison of the Readability Level of Turkish and English History Textbooks

It is widely accepted that readability refers to every feature of a text which makes it either easy or difficult to read. The general framework of the field of readability are classified by the researchers (Mobley, 1986; Harrison, 1980) as follows:

- Legibility of the written materials
- Language aspects of the text
- Visual aspects in the text
- Content and conceptual level of the written material
- Organisation of information
- Clarity of meaning

As earlier mentioned in Chapter 2, the leading notion behind readability research is that of enabling writers and teachers to match the difficulty level of written material with the reading ability of the students so that the pupils’ understanding and comprehension of the text is increased (Fry, 1988). One of the most common ways of measuring and predicting the difficulty level of written materials is to use specifically developed readability formulas. In this way, it is possible to assign grade levels to texts used in the classrooms (Klare, 1984; Graham, 1978; Mobley, 1986).

Since the 1920’s a great number of such formulas have been created by researchers for a variety of age-groups and different purposes. The majority of readability formulas deal with the analysis of the sentence length and word complexity of the text. Such formulas quantify only a limited part of the readability mentioned above. For example, many readability formulae ignore the legibility of the text, the readability of the pictures, tabulated data and diagrams and the interest level of the readers (Mobley, 1986; Arkell, 1982; Johnson and Johnson, 1987; Newton, 1984; Stokes, 1978).

In the following section the methodology developed to compare the readability levels of Turkish and English history textbooks will be explained.
The Methodology Applied for the Comparison of Readability Levels of Turkish and English History Textbooks

A literature review of research carried out on readability reveals that there has been no research done on the difficulty level of Turkish texts nor has there been any attempt to devise a readability formula for the Turkish language. Thus, it was not possible to apply any formulae directly to Turkish textbooks. In addition, developing a readability formula for a language is a very complex process. For example, devising such a formula for the Korean language has provided the basis for a doctoral thesis in this field. (Fry, 1988). This kind of formula should take into consideration all the grammatical features of that language. In other words, it is a very complex research project which requires expertise in that area. Because of the difficulty of inventing a new formula for the Turkish language, it was decided to modify and adapt an existing readability formula which was, in fact, invented for English. Thus, despite these limitations, an attempt was made to implement the methodology mentioned below so that this would give the researcher an opportunity to compare both Turkish and English history textbooks written for 12-13 and 15-16 year-old students.

Four English books (which had been formally translated into Turkish) were used, together with their Turkish translated versions. It was assumed that both the English text and the Turkish translation would give some indication as to how many words and syllables were used in written English and Turkish. In other words, this analysis could help to find out the differences in word length and sentence length in Turkish and English languages, since ‘word length’ and ‘sentence length’ are used as the main determinants in most readability formulae. The books in English and Turkish were:

**In English:**

**In Turkish**
• John Tosh (1997) *Tarihin Pesinde*, (translated by Ozden Arikan), Tarih Vakfi Yurt Yayinlari, Istanbul

Ten excerpts were randomly chosen from each of the English books. The same paragraphs were also found in the Turkish translated version of the books. The number of words in the English and Turkish excerpts was calculated, and the ratio of English words/Turkish words was found. The ratio of English words/Turkish words is shown in Table 4.8 below (The results of each calculation of English and Turkish excerpts are given in Appendix 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The name of the authors and books</th>
<th>The ratio of English words/Turkish words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edward Hallet Carr, <em>What is History?</em></td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. G. Collingwood, <em>An autobiography</em></td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. G. Collingwood, <em>The idea of History</em></td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Tosh, <em>The Pursuit of History</em></td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The average ratio of all four books</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.34</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that while an excerpt is made up of 100 words in Turkish, 134 words are needed to write it in English. This difference springs from very different nature and grammatical structure of Turkish and English. For example,

• there is no definite article the in the Turkish language,
• some morphemes (the smallest structural unit of language that has its own meaning, such as a word) in English are only part of a word in Turkish,

  a house with a long chimney  
  from a newspaper  
  uzun bacili ev  
  gazeteden  

• time and/or personal markers in the verb indicate the tense of the sentence in Turkish, while time markers are words in English,

  Ben okula gidiyor/um. (Present Continuous Tense)  
  Ben okula gidecegim. (Future Tense)  

  I am going to school  
  I will go to school  

• modals are also defined within the verb itself:

  yapmalisin  
  yapabilirsin  
  should/ought to  
  can& may
In the second phase of the analysis, the number of syllables in the English and Turkish excerpts were calculated so as to find the ratio between the number of syllables used in the English and Turkish excerpts. The result of the analysis of the ratio of English syllables/Turkish syllables is shown in Table 4.9 below (The results of each calculation of English and Turkish excerpts are given in Appendix 2).

Table 4.9. The ratio of English syllables/Turkish syllables in the books chosen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The name of the authors and books</th>
<th>The ratio of English syllables/Turkish syllables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edward Hallet Carr, What is History?</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.G. Collingwood, An autobiography</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.G. Collingwood, The idea of History</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Tosh, The Pursuit of History</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The average ratio of all four books</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.73</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 4.9, although English excerpts includes more words than Turkish ones, the number of syllables in the English excerpts is almost three quarters of the Turkish version of the same excerpt.

One of the leading experts in readability, Harrison (1980) defines the criteria for counting syllables, by saying that “Generally speaking, each vowel sound in a word corresponds to one syllable”. However, he also points out that “Longer words such as straight, write, which, splice or boot still only count as one syllable, since there is only one vowel sound in each. Words ending in -ed may look as if they have more than one syllable, but this is rarely the case. Think of combed, guessed, or grouped. In each there is still only one vowel sound”.

However, there are some ambiguous cases when counting syllable. “For example, is piano three syllables or two? Is visual three syllables or two? Is iron one syllable or two? There are no fixed answers to these questions, since pronunciation will vary according to differences in accent. The simplest expedient is to read the word aloud and listen to yourself, and to make the judgement on that basis” (Harrison, 1980). Thus, in this research, syllables were counted according to the instructions given by Harrison.

On the other hand, counting syllables in Turkish is totally different from English. It is very easy to count syllables, and at the end of the count, every Turkish speaker agrees about the number. The difference comes from the very different nature of the English and Turkish languages. In English, all written letters and syllables are not necessarily pronounced when
spoken. For example, the verbs called, stopped and guessed have only one syllable since the letter of -e is not pronounced. On the contrary in Turkish, as a general rule, the number of the vowels in a word determines the number of syllables. For example: Atatürk (3 syllables), karsilamak (4 syllables), kisisellestirme (6 syllables), Cumhuriyet (4 syllables). To clarify the issue, words in Turkish that come originally from English will be given. For example, the word "biscuit" has two syllables, but the same word in Turkish, biskvit has three syllables. In a word, these kinds of major structural and grammatical contrasts in the both languages cause the differences when counting syllables.

The next step was to count the number of words per sentence in both the Turkish and English textbooks. Thus, 10 excerpts, 100 words long, were chosen from each of the target history textbooks. The problem faced at this stage was to decide how to handle a possible fraction in the last sentence once the 100 words were ended. In many cases, the final sentences were not always complete. According to the suggestions made by Harrison (1980) "The solution is to consider the part of the sentence up to word 100 as a fraction of its total length, and then to add this to the number of complete sentences". In accordance with the example given by Harrison, let us suppose that there are seven complete sentences before the oblique stroke, followed by eight words of a 14-word sentence. The total number of sentences per hundred words is therefore \( \frac{7}{14} \), and if this figure is divided into 100, the average number of words per sentence is obtained.

Applying Readability Formulae to the Turkish and English Textbooks

In order to compare the readability level of Turkish and English history textbooks, the following steps were taken. First, ten excerpts of 100 words were randomly taken from different parts of the target Turkish and English history textbooks. Although three samples are suggested by Mobley (1986) in measuring the difficulty level of any written materials, ten excerpts were used in this research in order to obtain a more reliable prediction of the reading level of the textbooks. The number of words per sentence and the number of syllables were calculated in each extract. The same criteria and mathematical operations mentioned above were applied to the excerpts in order to calculate the number of words per sentence and the number of syllables. Table 4.10 shows the average number of words per sentence in the excerpts taken from the target textbooks.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case number</th>
<th>Mercil et al (Year 8)</th>
<th>Deliorman (Year 10)</th>
<th>Shephard et al (Year 8)</th>
<th>Walsh (Year 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that the average number of words per sentence in English texts is slightly more than that of Turkish extracts. This difference is reasonable, taking into account the nature and grammar of the languages. However, the inconsistencies between Year 8 and 10 Turkish passages are very interesting to note. According to the mean scores of the average numbers of words per sentence of Turkish excerpts, Year 10 excerpts comprise 9.3 words per sentence while Year 8 include 12 words. Normally, as happened in the English example the average number of words per sentence, in Year 10 history textbooks would be expected to be higher than Year 8, since Year 10 students are supposed to be mature enough to cope with relatively difficult texts.

It was thought that fewer words are used in the Year 10 history textbook may be due to the textbook writers' writing style. Thus, it was decided to take ten extracts from the textbook written by him (Deliorman, Milli Tarih 7, 1996) for Year 8 pupils. It was noted that the mean of the ten excerpts taken from the Year 8 textbook was also 8.9 words per sentence. Thus, it seems that the textbook writer's writing style is responsible for these scores.

Secondly, the number of syllables in each passage was also counted in order to use them in the readability formulae. The results are given in Table 4.11.
Table 4.11. The number of syllables in each excerpt in the target textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case number</th>
<th>Mercil et. al (Year 8)</th>
<th>Deliorman (Year 10)</th>
<th>Shephard et. al (Year 8)</th>
<th>Walsh (Year 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>300</strong></td>
<td><strong>292</strong></td>
<td><strong>136</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table also indicates that there are considerable differences in the number of syllables used in Turkish and English history textbooks. This is because of the very dissimilar grammatical structures of Turkish and English, previously mentioned. Moreover, while the Year 8 and Year 10 Turkish extracts have almost the same number of syllables, there is a slight difference in the number of syllables between the English Year 8 and Year 10 passages. Year 10 excerpts includes 11% more syllables than those of Year 8.

**Selecting a readability formula**

After obtaining the average number of words per sentence and the number of syllables in each of the excerpts, a decision was made regarding which readability formulae should be chosen and applied to the data obtained through counting the words and syllables.

As described previously, most of the readability formulae are not appropriate for the entire school-age range. Therefore, it was important to select the one most appropriate for measuring the Year 8 and Year 10 age-group reading materials which are the texts of this research. All the readability formulae were examined, and the Flesh Formula was found the most suitable for this research, since it measures the difficulty level of 10 years of age and above. In the field of readability, this formula is regarded as “one of the best-known readability measures” (Harrison, 1980). Mobley (1986) also pointed out that the Flesh formula has validity and reliability for materials with a difficulty level of 10 years of age or more.
Measuring the difficulty level of English excerpts using the Flesh formula

Since the formula was invented for English texts, it was decided to apply it first to English passages taken from English history textbooks. The reading level of an English text was measured by using the Flesh formula given below.

\[
\text{Reading ease score} = 206.835 - (0.846 \times \text{SYLLS/100W}) - (1.015 \times \text{WDS/SEN})
\]

SYLLS/100W = syllables per 100 words
WDS/SEN = average number of words per sentence

This formula was applied to the ten extracts taken from each target history textbook. The results are given in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 The results of the readability analysis applied to English excerpts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The number of the cases</th>
<th>The results of the ten excerpts taken from Shephard et al. (Year 8)</th>
<th>The results of the ten excerpts taken from Walsh (Year 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>57.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td>71.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>79.3</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>73.6</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>74.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to interpret the results of scores, the Flesh formula offers this ‘transformation table’ (Mobley, 1986):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formula Score</th>
<th>Age Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90-100</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-90</td>
<td>11 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-80</td>
<td>12 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-70</td>
<td>13-14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-60</td>
<td>15-17 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-50</td>
<td>18-21 years (College)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Graduate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score of the ten excerpts taken from Shephard et al. (Year 8) is 77.6, and, according to the ‘transformation table’, it means the Flesh formula score of this textbook is for 12
year olds. In other words, children aged 12 years of average reading ability should be able to cope with the vocabulary in this textbook. Since the textbook written by Shephard et al. is written for 12-13 years old (Year 8) students, it seems that the reading difficulty of this textbook is suitable for children of this age.

When the same process is applied to the textbook written by Walsh for 15-16 years old (Year 10) students, the mean score of 63.6 for the ten excerpts randomly chosen from this textbook imply that the difficulty of this textbook is suitable for 13-14 years of average reading ability. It means that this textbook is likely to be even easier for the average reading ability of Year 10 students coping with the text.

*Measuring the difficulty level of Turkish excerpts*

In order to show the results of the direct application of the Flesh formula, the mean values of the word ratio per sentence and the number of syllables in the Turkish passages given in Table 4.10 and Table 4.11 were used. The results are shown in Table 4.13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The number of the cases</th>
<th>The results of the ten excerpts taken from Mercil et al. (Year 8)</th>
<th>The results of the ten excerpts taken from Deliorman (Year 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-47.9</td>
<td>-38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-75.4</td>
<td>-27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-75.6</td>
<td>-51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>-71.5</td>
<td>-61.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>-37.9</td>
<td>-45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>-47.8</td>
<td>-30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-59.9</td>
<td>-69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-58.3</td>
<td>-58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>-42.4</td>
<td>-59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>-73.7</td>
<td>-56.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: -59.1 -49.6

Harrison (1980) explains that it is theoretically possible to obtain reading-ease scores outside the 0-100 range, but these are rare. In views of this, the results in Table 6 show that the direct application of the calculation of the number of words per sentence and the number of syllables were not applicable to Turkish textbooks, since the results fall below zero. Therefore, it was decided to use a modified version of the Flesh formula for the Turkish selections.
Modified application of the Flesh formula to Turkish excerpts

As a result of the ratios found by analysing Collingwood, Carr and Tosh's books, it was decided to modify the Flesh formula in the Turkish texts for those ratios found in that analysis. As previously shown earlier in Tables 1 and 2, the English texts have approximately 1.34 more words than the Turkish. This means that whereas Turkish texts had 100, the English texts had 134 words. However, when the Turkish texts had 100 syllables, the English texts had only 74. In short, although the English texts had more words, they contained fewer syllables than the Turkish texts.

Taking these ratios into account, the modified Flesh formula was expressed as follows:

Reading ease score = 206.835 - (0.846 * SYLLS/100W * 0.73) - (1.015 * WDS/SEN * 1.34)

SYLLS/100W = syllables per 100 words
WDS/SEN = average number of words per sentence

This modified formula was applied to the average number of words per sentence and the number of syllables obtained through the analysis of the quotations from the target Turkish textbooks. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. The results of the modified Flesh formula applied to Turkish excerpts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The number of the cases</th>
<th>The results of the ten excerpts taken from Mercil et al. (Year 8)</th>
<th>The results of the ten excerpts taken from Deliorman (Year 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-9.4</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-8.3</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>-3.1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 4.14 indicate that although the modified version of the Flesh formula was implemented in the Turkish extracts taken from the target Turkish history textbooks, the formula continues to produce some results outside the acceptable range of 0-100. Furthermore, the average mean scores of the sample taken from the Turkish textbooks worked out as 5.2 and 13.9 for Year 8 and Year 10 Turkish history textbooks. According to these mean scores, these
books would be suitable for adults. However, as far as the number of words per sentence and the number of syllables in each excerpt is concerned, the researcher does not think that these textbooks are as difficult as suggested by the results of the Flesh formula. So, having regard to the results in Table 7, it seems reasonable to assume that modifying the Flesh formula for the Turkish language is not necessarily valid for measuring the reading level of the texts in the Turkish textbooks. Although some attempts were made to adjust the Flesh formula for the Turkish texts, this was not successful enough since the altered formula continues to produce some dubious results for the Turkish texts.

It may be concluded therefore that this research has helped the researcher to gain some experience in the different grammatical nature of the Turkish and English languages. In addition to this, some research was also carried out to determine the level of difficulty in the English history textbooks. Although the attempts to measure the difficulty level of the Turkish textbooks were problematic, it is clear that further research is needed to develop an independent readability formula for the Turkish language.

The Comparison of Content and Organisation of Text in Turkish and English History Textbooks

In this section of the thesis, an examination of the analysis of text content and organisation of Turkish and English history textbooks will be carried out, together with the examples taken from textbooks. This is followed by an overview of the research on the content and organisation of texts in history which helps students to comprehend the historical events.

The Content and Organisation of Text in Turkish History Textbooks

The content and organisation of the text in Turkey is primarily determined by the regulations issued by the Textbook Examination Board. As previously noted, textbook writers are strictly required to obey the regulations so as to obtain approval for their textbooks. This means that textbook writers do not have much opportunity to decide on a change of content. Apart from this, documentation donated by a textbook writer (at the end of an interview conducted for this research) shows that there is even more detailed guidance from the Textbook Examination Board which summarises the main ideas to be written on every topic, almost paragraph by paragraph. For example, “During a description of the conquest of places in the Mediterranean, the results and importance of the victory of the Battle of Prevesa should be expressed by especially emphasising that the Ottomans forced the Europeans to accept their hegemony at sea as well. The
importance of the conquest of Cyprus should be underlined, and it should also be explained that the negative effects of the Battle of Lepanto were overcome” (From documents given by the textbook writer, p. 41). Throughout these documents, similar suggestions were made, using expressions such as “should be explained”, “should be emphasised” and so on. As can be inferred, these documents seem to suggest an official history, specially tailored for the history textbooks, so that when writing a textbook at school level, writers are forced to wear a straight-jacket. This kind of predetermined agenda also helps to explain why the existing history textbooks are all very similar.

In Turkish history textbooks, the presentation of historical events is provided in a such way that history is seen either as historical accounts such as the description of war, or as a list of facts, causes and results of past events such as the French Revolution. On some occasions there is an examination of the story with its reasons and results. The content and organisation of the text in Turkish history textbooks are exemplified in Figure 1 and 2 below.
Figure 4.1. An example of the content and organisation of texts in Year 8 Turkish history textbooks (from Mercil et al., 1996)

**Ottoman Empire in the 17th Century: The Stagnation Period**

- The General Conditions of the Ottoman Empire
- The Reasons for the Period of Stagnation
- Foreign Affairs

**Domestic rebellions: Reasons, Characteristics and Results**

- Seven reasons for the rebellions are given
  - 1. Istanbul Rebellions
  - 2. Celali Rebellions
  - 3. Eyalet Rebellions

**Reform Movements and Their Characteristics**

- Three reasons for the reform movements are given
  - Characteristics
    - Kuyucu Murat Pasha
    - Osman II (1618-1622)
    - Murat IV (1623-1640)
    - Tarhuncu Ahmet Pasha
    - Kopruuler Period

**Result**: The reforms made were not successful, so later the new reform movements were launched.

Five reasons for the occurrence of the Stagnation Period are given.

1. Ottoman-Iranian Relations
2. Ottoman-Venetian Relations
3. Ottoman-Polish Relations
4. Ottoman-Austrian Relations
Figure 4.2. An example of the content and organisation of texts in Year 10 Turkish history textbooks (from Deliorman, 1992)

The Period of Suleiman the Magnificent

1. The Conquest of Belgrade
2. The Battle of Mohac, and the Conquest of Hungary (1526)
3. The First Siege of Vienna (1529)
4. The Military Expedition against Germany (1532)
5. The Hungary's Acceptance of Ottoman Dominance
6. Ottoman French Relations and Capitulations

The Development in the West

1. The First Military Iranian Expedition (1534)
2. The Second Military Iranian Expedition (1548)
3. The Third Military Iranian Expedition (1554)

The Development in the East

1. The Conquest of Rhodes (1522)
2. Barbaros Hayreddin Pasha and the Involvement of Algeria in the Ottoman Empire
3. Sea Battle of Prevesa (1538)
4. Helping France and the Death of Barbaros
5. The Victory of Cerbe
6. The Military Expeditions against India
7. The Last Military Expedition of Suleiman and his Death (1566)

The Development at Sea

1. The Channel Projects
2. The Conquest of Cyprus (1571)
3. Sea Battle of Lepanto (1571)
4. The Involvement of Morocco with the Ottoman Empire
5. The Death of Sokullu Mehmed Pasha (1579)

The Period of Sokullu Mehmed Pasha

Activity Evaluation Questions

Figures 1 and 2 also suggest that Turkish textbooks are mainly used for the acquisition of basic facts and for the memorisation of the basic ideas. They do not include written or pictorial sources and activities to encourage pupils to interpret the historical evidence and information. As authoritative encyclopaedic texts, they emphasise the learning of ready-made answers, such as the
causes and effects of domestic rebellions in the Ottoman Empire. In short, history teaching is grounded on the chronological listing of historical events with the accepted (orthodox) causes and effects being provided.

This approach tends to suggest that everything in history can be explained in a concise and simple manner, because, according to Turkish textbooks, history is composed of a series of facts and events accompanied by some specifically fixed and definite explanations and consequences. Pupils are also encouraged to believe that every historical problem has been thoroughly solved by historians without leaving any room for uncertainties, doubts and different viewpoints. The prevailing manner of learning history is to receive expertly-proven correct answers from the textbook. This style clearly misrepresents the dynamic nature of history where interpretations are always temporary and often challenged.

By structuring historical knowledge in this way, textbook writers perceive pupils as passive recipients of fact-driven information. In accordance with this approach, students perhaps regard history teaching as the presentation of factual information and events in such a way that a critical view is inappropriate for history while memorisation is inevitable and inescapable. It is also likely that this way of presenting information makes history dull and unattractive for pupils, considering the fact that the textbooks do not offer activities for pupil involvement in learning and investigating.

The only activity in the Turkish history textbooks is the inclusion of “Evaluation Questions” at the end of the units. These are based on the repetition of what has been explained in the text. For instance, “Summarise the reasons for the domestic rebellions in the Ottoman Empire”, “What are the results of the Reforms made in the Ottoman Empire” (Deliorman, 1992, p.122-123), “Which places were conquered in the Sokullu period?”, “When did The Battle of Lepanto take place?” (Mercil et.al, 1996, p. 52-53). In order to succeed in these tasks, the only task for the student is to find the appropriate paragraph and copy the required sentences without thinking about them.

Another point is that although Turkish history textbooks sometimes make assertive generalisations and stereotypical statements, it is extremely difficult to explore or challenge the claims made by the writer about the past since they give no indication of the sources on which these explanations and/or interpretations are based. If pupils or even teachers have not had the opportunity to access the evidence from which the content was created and to understand the processes which produced the historical interpretation, history textbooks may easily be used for
political ends, without considering educational purposes, historical methodology or the cognitive processes in pupil teaching and thinking.

The Content and Organisation of Text in English History Textbooks

In English history textbooks, the topics covered in the text are determined by the appropriate curriculum (e.g. the National Curriculum or GCSE syllables) and by the textbook writer. The content and organisation is closely related to the current conception of history teaching, namely the enquiry-based teaching approach. As a result, the textbooks cover historical enquiry which involve pupils in asking questions and forming hypotheses in planning investigations about historical events. Pupils are required to find, evaluate, analyse information related to the historical events in question so as to develop historical thinking and reasoning which demand that they both learn about historical events and use interpretative reasoning.

It is acknowledged that reasoning about historical events necessitates the use of a range of evidence to understand the nature of historical knowledge. This process may also assist pupils to grasp the importance and place of evidence in understanding the nature of the discipline of history (Leinhardt et al., 1994, Husbands, 1996).

In line with this approach, the content and organisation of explanatory text in English textbooks is often composed of background information, historical source and activities. A simple summary of the structure of explanations in English history textbooks is shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 4.3. The organisation of text in an English history textbook

In the following section, three components of an English history textbook will be examined
Background Information:

It is taken for granted that one of the cardinal functions of a textbook is to provide a body of domain-specific knowledge to students. Having a solid knowledge base is of primary importance in every subject, since it is impossible to arrange any instructional sequences or to introduce the rationale of a discipline to students without constructing a framework of background information.

In history, background information is an explanation of what happened in the past, including the historical facts such as names, dates, numbers and the relations between events. One of the divergent features of the English text is that the writer also poses 'Key Questions' and raises the issues that will be focus of the background information, sources and activities. In other words, 'Key Questions' are those that draw and define the boundaries of the investigation.

Another important feature of the text is that textbook writers in England tend not to give all the reasons and results of historical events when providing the background information. They are not fully involved in the decision-making and interpretation process of historical events. Expressed in another way, it seems that the function and responsibility of the textbook writers has considerably altered since the enquiry-based history teaching approach was launched in England. They do not take an authoritative stance, but instead they have a very crucial and leading responsibility: to prepare the sources related to historical events, and activities which give pupils an opportunity to appreciate the nature of evidence in history, and to allow students to undertake historical investigation.

It is also worth noting that in the English history textbooks examined here, writers use "we" and "you" so as to maintain contact with pupils, increasing the identification between writer and reader, since these kinds of signals increase the pupil’s comprehension (Meyer, 1985). One of the English textbook’s writers studied, Shephard et al. (1993) uses this kind of signal in the introductory paragraph in order to direct the pupils’ attention to what will be learnt. For example, “You probably do not consider yourself to be rich. But do most people today have a better standard of living than rich people in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries?”.

The Use of Evidence in English History Textbooks

Although textbooks are generally seen as one of the main support tools of students in acquiring knowledge, historical reasoning and understanding require going beyond chronology or historical facts. In other words, historical understanding is seen as an act of judgement made on
the basis of historical evidence. Thus, it is acknowledged that students should be introduced to some of the uncertainty and controversy of historical sources in history textbooks in order to gain insight into the nature of historical understanding. In short, historical understanding is seen as a reasoning skill, a skill that includes interpreting historical evidence (Spoehr and Spoehr, 1994; Greene, 1994; Britt et al., 1994).

Text in English textbooks is accompanied by written and illustrative historical evidence. They are the tools that allow students to take part in the interpretation process of historical investigation. The historical sources are generally separated from the text, and placed where appropriate in boxes on the right or left of the text on a page.

In Table 4.15 below, the number of written and illustrative sources, and Source Number/Page Ratio in the target English history textbooks is given. To construct this table, the written and illustrative sources were counted in each target textbook, and then, the number of sources was divided into the number of pages so as to find the ratio per page.

Table 4.15. The Number of Written and Illustrative Sources, and Source Number/Page Ratio in the Target English History Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook Name</th>
<th>Written Sources Number</th>
<th>Illustrative Sources Number</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Source Number/Page Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shephard et al. (Year 8)</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>169 pages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Walsh (Year 10)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>878</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>327 pages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.15 shows that there are approximately three written and historical sources per page in both history textbooks. However, it should not be forgotten that an historical incident or a topic is often set out in not less than two pages, thus one topic in a textbook covers, on average, six written and illustrative sources. Furthermore, it seems that the written and illustrative sources in Year 10 textbooks are more complex than those in Year 8. For example, as mentioned in an earlier section (page 42), cartoons and posters are extensively used in the Year 10 history textbook, based on an assumption of greater academic and intellectual maturity. This helps pupils to see conflicts in the various ideas, uncertainties, inconsistencies and hidden messages in the historical events and sources.

In short, the use of sources in history textbooks may give pupils an opportunity:

• to gain more and detailed information about historical events;
• to gain an insight into the existence of different viewpoints;
• to understand that historical evidence and sources are at the heart of historical knowledge and understanding;
• to appreciate that the reliability of sources is really important;
• to recognise that every event in history can not always be fully explained due to lack of available evidence.

*Activities in English History Textbooks*

Pupil activities are central to teaching in English history. In accordance with the ‘Key Questions’ given in the text, activities are interlinked with background information and written and illustrative sources. Activities in English textbooks provide pupils with an opportunity for active involvement in asking questions and forming hypotheses by analysing and evaluating background information and historical sources. This process engenders a critical ability and allows students to experience and understand the nature of the discipline and create their own historical account. Thus, activities are introduced as a means to help students learn and think critically about any given historical issue. That is, activities provide the pedagogical substructure and conditions for teaching students how to learn, analyse and structure their views.

The rationale underlying the classification of the activities in history textbooks are taken directly from The National Curriculum and the ‘Key Elements’. They are the aims of history teaching and “set out the expected standards of pupils’ performance” (DFE, 1995). These are:

1. Chronology,
2. Range and depth of historical knowledge and understanding,
3. Interpretations of history,
4. Historical enquiry,
5. Organisation and communication (DFE, 1995).

The general framework of the activities in the English history textbooks is examined in Figure 4 according to the National Curriculum Key elements.
Figure 4.4. A General Categorisation of Activities found in the Target History Textbooks Examined

ACTIVITIES IN THE ENGLISH HISTORY TEXTBOOKS EXAMINED

- **Chronology**
  - Drawing timeline
  - Examination of timeline
  - Sequencing events

- **Range and Depth of Historical Knowledge and Understanding**
  - Change and continuity
  - Similarities and differences

- **Interpretations of History**
  - Interpretations of written and visual sources
  - Working on historians' disagreements
  - Asking pupils' opinions
  - Agreement/Disagreement about an idea or statement
  - The for and against of an idea
  - Preference about statements
  - Empathy

- **Historical Enquiry**
  - The reliability of sources
  - The usability of sources

- **Organisation and Communication**
  - Underlining the main idea
  - Drawing poster/picture
  - Diagram completion
  - Diagrammatic representation of knowledge/interpretation
  - Grouping and ranking
  - Extract key information from text or sources
  - Extended writing
Figure 4 shows that the textbook writer provides a vast number of types of activity so as to fulfil the demands of the National Curriculum. A closer examination of the activities in English history textbooks reveals that writers generally use some special vocabulary to help pupils develop analytic and evaluative skills. For example, "What can you infer about the effects of this action from the statements given?", "Are Sources 9-12 reliable in telling us what entertainments were really like in the seventeenth century?", "Do you think Source 6 was painted by opponents or supporters of the Bolsheviks?". The tasks clearly tell student that they will take responsibility for making decisions and interpretations after a careful examination of the relations between sources and background information.

In the activities provided, textbook writers also ask students questions with multiple answers or several equally correct answers, requiring students to defend their assertions with reasons and evidence. For example: "Explain how far you agree or disagree with this statement given. Back up your answer with evidence from this chapter", "Do either of Sources 16 or 17 suggest that people in Germany wanted a war?", "What do you think? Do you think the Big Three should have done better or do you think they did the best they could in different circumstances?", "Describe fully the contrasting moods shown in these three cartoons". It goes without saying that these activities involve students in discussions and debates about conflicting views which need to recognise and discover more than one side of an historical issue, requiring students to back arguments with evidence.

The activities also offer a variety of suggestions to pupils as to what the components of the methodology of history are and what importance sources have in constructing historical knowledge. For example: "How reliable would TV advertisements be in telling a future historian what we eat and wear?", "Source 18 comes from a novel. In what ways is it useful as evidence about the mood in Britain before the First World War", "Why is this source valuable for the historian?", "Does the new evidence you have just read show why it is important for historians to look at as much evidence as possible?". From these kind of activities, students may get the impression that there might be some sources which are unreliable and less effective, thus they should be treated carefully when drawing conclusions from them. Yet it is clear that the activities in English history textbooks help students to grasp and experience how history is written since they can follow the same process of making similar kinds of choice as to historian makes, working on different historical evidence and analysing and interpreting it with the help of the activities available throughout their history textbooks.
The pupils' work may be structured and guided by the tasks and activities which are set by the textbook writer for securing specific learning outcomes which are set out in The National Curriculum. However, the teacher may find his or her own way of using these activities, taking the ability of the pupils into account, though textbooks play an important role in offering day-to-day teaching activities. Therefore, worksheets are also devised by teacher either as an alternative teaching tool to textbook, or linked with the information, sources or activities in history textbooks.

In view of this theoretical examination, two examples of the content and organisation of explanations in the target English history textbooks are shown in the form of a concept map. To do this, all the paragraphs in the background information, sources and activities were examined. The relations between background information, 'Key Questions', Sources and activities were examined.
Figure 4.5. An example of the content and organisation of text in the target Year 8 English history textbook (Shephard et al. 1993, p.2)

**England in the 1500's**

**Key Questions**

Q1. If you travelled through England in the 1500's what would you have seen? Q2. And how different was it from England today?

- In 1500, land was not changed by humans
- Farming
- Life in the countryside
- Cloth making
- Information on towns

- Three changes in the life in villages in 1577
- The description of farmers' houses
- A sixteenth century dinner

- Cloth-making
- Tin-mining
- Lead-mining
- Iron-mining
- Towns (population over 6000)

**Activity**

"From the information and the sources on this page make a list of differences between England in the 1500's and England today. Use the following headings for your list".

- population
- size of towns
- houses and furniture
- meals
- industries
- jobs
- the countryside
Economic Disaster (in Germany in 1920's)

Written and Illustrative Historical Sources

Activities

Illustrative Sources:
1. Children used banknotes as toys.  
2. Five million Mark Banknote

Written Sources
3. The cost of a loaf of bread  
4. Exchange rate of mark in pounds  
5. An excerpt taken from primary evidence

Economic disaster in Germany and the effects the Treaty of Versailles

"See if you agree that the Treaty of Versailles was responsible for economic problems in Germany"

The Treaty of Versailles and paying reparations to Allies. Germany could not pay. France and Belgium occupied Ruhr

People at the time, historians since, have disagreed as to whether Germany could afford the reparations payment

The result of the occupation was terrible, German currency collapsed

German government printed money which are worthless German mark

The effect of economic disaster on poor Germans

A new government took action in Germany. American loans were taken.

A German poster against the occupation of Ruhr

A British cartoon about the German economy

Historian says Germany could pay reparations

Historian says Germany could not pay it

For both poster and cartoon write an explanation of their messages

An evaluation of sources: which historian supports the view that Germany could not pay it

- "Look at Source 2, Use Source 3 to work out bread this banknote could buy in July and November 1923".  
- "Use sources 1-5 to describe in your words how poor German were affected by the collapse of the mark"
As can be seen from Figure 4.5, the title of the investigation is “England in the 1500s”, and writers begin by proposing two questions to students related to the topic. These are: “If you travelled through England in the 1500s what would you have seen?” and “And how different was it from England today?”. By asking these questions, writers draw the boundaries of the examination of the situation of England in the 1500s. They then focus on the first question by supplying students with background information about the topic.

In this example, the main purpose in using the historical sources is to give additional information to the students from primary sources. The three written sources give information about some features of life in the sixteenth century. In addition, a map as an illustrative source is given in order to support the information in the text and written sources. The information that the map supplies is directly linked with the information in the text and written sources.

By reading the text and searching through the written and illustrative sources given, pupils find the answer to the first question at the beginning of the text. In the light of this information, the writers also want students to make a comparison of the differences between the past and the present. The idea is to strengthen the children’s understanding of the concepts of “change and continuity” during the sixteenth and twentieth centuries. For that reason, the students’ prior knowledge and observations related to the present is activated and linked with the past experience by being given an opportunity to examine the written and illustrative sources and background information. In a word, pupils are actively involved in finding the answer to the second question asked by the writers.

In Figure 4.6, the writer deals with the Economic Disaster in Germany in the 1920s, and the key question to be searched is indicated by saying “see if you agree that the Treaty of Versailles was responsible for economic problems in Germany”. The writer offers background information together with five written and four illustrative sources. The background information and the sources are linked with the activities which seek to find explanations as to the meaning of a poster and cartoon, an evaluation of the two historians’ divergent views on the economic disaster in Germany. The other two activities also motivate students to investigate the effects of inflation on impoverished Germans.

As these examples show, activities created by the textbook writer give a variety of opportunities for students to become actively involved in the evaluation and investigation process of historical issues.
A Comparison of the Content and Organisation of Texts in Turkish and English History Textbooks

In recent decades, some research has been carried out to identify important features of the content and organisation of text in history textbooks which may affect how well the text is learned and remembered by students. Alternatively, researchers have especially concerned themselves with finding an appropriate structure for the explanation of historical events which could help textbook writers and publishers to improve the quality of informative text that they produce.

Kantor, Anderson and Armbruster (1983), Armbruster (1984), Armbruster and Anderson (1984, 1985) focused on the concepts "considerate" and "inconsiderate" texts. They assumed that the primary purpose in writing a textbook was to convey information. Thus, the concept "considerate text" implies that the text facilitates understanding, learning and remembering. They principally dealt with both the "global coherence" which defines the overall text structure for particular content, such as narrative or expository text, and "local coherence" which covers links and ties that connect ideas within and between sentences.

In their another study, on the other hand, Armbruster and Anderson (1984) propose a structure for the explanations in history textbooks called "Goal frame". They formulated the following diagrammatic representation for the frame of historical story writing.

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Goal --+ Plan --+ Action --+ Outcome
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In this structure of explanation, the Goal represents the desired state sought by the main character. The Plan is the cognitive strategy for attaining the Goal. The Action denotes the behaviour in response to the Plan, and the Outcome is proposed as the consequence of the Action. Since this structure covers and the general aspects of narrative which is composed of the story, goals, actions and outcomes, it can not be applied to the comparison of the content and organisation of text in Turkish and English history textbooks.

Apart from this research, some other investigations have been carried out to find ways of increasing the history textbook's level of "thoughtfulness" and to stimulate the critical thinking of students. Researchers called this "higher order thinking in teaching social studies" (Newmann, 1990a, 1991) or "metadiscourse of textbooks" (Crismore, 1984) which purpose to offer students non-routine challenges which embrace interpreting and analysing information.
An innovative combination of these attempts was used in recent studies of Britt, Rouet, Georgi and Perfetti (1994) and Perfetti, Britt and Georgi (1995). In these studies, the researchers proposed two different structures for historical reasoning and thinking in discourse and writing that can be used in writing history textbooks. They are: the causal-temporal model and the argument model. These structures should first be briefly summarised.

In most textbooks, typical texts have a narrative form, linking historical events both temporally and causally. The causal-temporal model incorporates the representation of the characters, events and causal relations involved in an historical account. Britt et al. also suggest that causal-temporal structures are generally used in history textbooks to represent "simple, noncontroversial accounts of historical events". They also report that "the noncontroversial narratives in textbooks are simplified and somewhat distorted views of history problems", since they fail to delineate two important features of most history problems: uncertainty and controversy. This kind of text lists the events that make up the story and the causal and temporal relationships between those events (Britt et al., 1994). In other words, text is composed of historical facts, such as names, dates and places, and the comments of authors on the motivations of characters or the causes and results of historical events. In order to construct a representation of the narrative structure of the text, students must memorise detailed information about the events (i.e., dates, names).

The argument model, however, is deemed to represent the claims made, and the evidence used to support them. This means that this model illustrates different interpretations in the available documents and how they relate to each other and to pieces of evidence. However, Britt et al. propose that argument models operate at two levels. "At a local level, each document is represented as a series of arguments supporting a claim. Arguments are connected to pieces of information, such as facts or other documents. At a global level, the model represents relationships between the different documents available in the context of the problem. This level represents information both across and within documents and may also account for a reader's assessment of the relative support for one interpretation of events over another interpretation" (p.72). Due to the existence of many similarities between the categories of the text structures of these studies mentioned above and the features of Turkish and English textbooks, these studies and their implications will be used in comparing the content and organisation of texts in Turkish and English history textbooks.

As far as the content and structure of the text in Turkish history textbooks are concerned, it is apparent that the text is presented according to the causal-temporal model since the text in
Turkish history textbooks is composed of the characters, events and causal relations. As can be seen in Figure 1 and 2, the writer defines and explains the reasons, story and outcomes of the historical event in such a way that there are no uncertainties or disagreements regarding these explanations and interpretations. The questions in the form of an activity placed at the end of each unit merely demand the repetition of the previously acquired knowledge, such as listing information, giving the dates of the historical events, repeating the results of an historical event. Without being required to think, students find the appropriate page and paragraph, and copy it to answer the question. Since they are set out in an incontrovertible and authoritative way, the only possible way to learn history is to memorise it.

The content and organisation of writing historical textbooks seems to combine the ways of conceptualising what the methodology of history is, and how the pedagogy of history is applied to textbooks. In England, the student is looked upon not only as an object of teaching whose job it is to reach the recommended objectives and goals indicated in the National Curriculum, but also as a subject who is able to take responsibilities for his/her own learning process. Consistently, the cardinal aim is to enable pupils to use their own values and opinions in evaluating historical issues (DES, 1985; Haydn, Arthur and Hunt, 1997; Husbands, 1996; Nichol and Dean, 1997). To do so, textbook writers widely relinquish their control of decision-making in the explanation and interpretation of past events. The main function of a textbook is to foster the critical and creative thinking abilities of students' in the shaping and evaluating of knowledge. This is successful if textbooks achieve a balance between learning facts and learning how to use them in the light of historical methodology.

Taking account of the fact that the content and organisation of the text:

a.) presents a variety of sources and resources that student may learn from, such as written sources (government statements, newspapers, private records etc.), pictorial sources (pictures, caricatures, maps diagrams etc.);

b.) engages students in experiences that challenge their critical thinking and creativity;

c.) allows students to become involved in the interpretation of the sources, reasons and results of the historical events by offering different activities;

d.) encourages the idea of questioning by giving multiple perspectives and contradictory examples, asking controversial questions;

e.) uses historical terminology such as ‘fact’, ‘bias’, ‘accurate source’, ‘ambiguity’ in the source, the texts in English textbooks seem to be written according to the argument model. The learning outcome that the textbook writer wants students to attain, determines whether the activity will be
at "local argument level" or "global argument level". For example, if the purpose is to find the main idea in the sources, then, activity involves a local level argument, but if the aim is to work on the disagreements of historians about an historical issue, then, the activity involves a series of historical sources which cover divergent ideas and interpretations, and the activity follows the global argument model. Another factor which affects how often which level of argument model is used is the academic and intellectual maturity of students.

In brief, these structural differences in writing history textbooks in Turkey and England create different types of history textbooks which aim to create different learning and classroom atmospheres, different aims and skills for students.

**Value Judgements and Presentation of Controversial Issues in Turkish and English History Textbooks**

As we approach the end of the 20th century, knowledge is not only a necessity, but also a form of social power which can be used to maintain the status quo or direct particular social changes according to the interests of certain ideologies, governments or pressure groups in the name of stabilisation or the reconstruction of society. The history curriculum and textbooks are potentially powerful tools which can be used to impose approved values, ideas and ideologies on a society. In this sense, the nature, purpose and content of history curriculum and textbooks are of central importance from the point of view of ideological battles, indoctrination and politicisation.

History has its own aims, and these aims are directed by a distinctive historical methodology which is the collection of evidence, and the formation of judgements based on the evidence available, free as much as possible from bias and irrational prejudice. The nature of history also reminds us that the same evidence may produce different interpretations for different historians and/or individuals. Lee (1991) also suggests that "there is no best account to be given to children by history teachers, because there is never just one question and the objectivity of history is relative to the questions asked". Moreover truism in history is confused, misleading and ultimately dangerous (Mays, 1974). It is a basic requirement of historical methodology that limited or incomplete historical interpretations of past events should never be used as an absolute truth to pupils so as to promote citizenship, or reinforce patriotism at the expense of educational purposes and the historical nature of school history.

In this section, some examples taken from Turkish and English history textbooks will be shown to compare Turkish and English points of view and to represent how controversial issues and value judgements are dealt with in these divergent educational cultures.
Value Judgements and Presentation of Controversial Issues in the Turkish History Textbooks

The presentation of value judgements and controversial issues are crucially important in Turkey (see Appendix 3 for some specific information about politics in Turkey) where history textbooks are very frequently the only book that students use. In addition, for many Turkish students, history textbooks are generally their first, and sometimes only, experience of the past and what history is about.

The history curriculum in Turkey strongly emphasises the notion that “Each lesson must be considered as a means of implementing the national goals”, and in this framework “The successes of the Turkish nation must be taken into consideration” (Milli Egitim Bakanligi, 1995). Such being the case, historical events and figures may be used to confirm and strengthen the national goals. Accordingly, the examination of history textbooks reveals that Turkish ones tend not to offer both sides of a question, but remain silent about some of the facts of historical events. Moreover, according to these textbooks, everything associated with Turkish history was perfect. On the other hand, the successes of Turkey’s rivals are written in such a way that they have very little impact on the flow of history. These concepts of history which embellish national achievements cannot be created without exaggerating and distorting the causes and effects of the historical events.

Textbook writers have been severely criticised regarding the shortcomings of the history textbooks, including the presentation of value judgements and controversial issues. Historians and educators (Ozbaran, 1992, 1997; Kabapinar, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c), the Union of Teachers (Aydin, 1997), columnists in the newspapers (Cetin Altan, Sabah, 11 June 1998; Dogan Hizlan, Hurriyet, 26 January 1998; Hasan Cemal, Sabah, 27 July 1997) have criticised history textbooks on the points mentioned above. Furthermore, even some Ministers of National Education (Yeni Yuzyil, 17 May 1998; Turk Edebiyati, 1985) have complained about textbooks, and especially those about history.

What about the other side of the coin?

In Turkish history textbooks, some details of historical events are omitted from textbooks by ignoring or neglecting their existence. That is, some of the less acceptable aspects of the historical events in the textbooks pass without being brought to the notice of the students. As Professor Selim Deringil emphasised in an newspaper interview, “History teaching at school level
is built on half truths, and the other half of the truth is intentionally disregarded” (Yeni Yüzyıl, 8 July 1998).

For example, in a history textbook, the writer briefly mentions why the Ottoman sultans killed their brothers and sisters, and says “the Sultan who achieved the position of governor decided to kill his brothers whom might try to oust him and take his place, immediately after his investiture to the emperorship, to avoid temporary division. Although it is known that a few brothers were killed, it is indisputable that possible bloody domestic fights and struggles were prevented or avoided” (Turhal, 1993, p.195). However, it is a historical fact that Murat III commanded his 5 brothers to be killed, and his son Mehmet III also ordered his 19 brothers and more than 20 sisters to be killed on the day he inherited the throne (Shaw, 1982). This information does not appear in this textbook, nor in any of the others examined. This historical event could be used to offer pupils an opportunity to show empathy, for instance, “If you were the sultan’s brother or sister, what would you feel?” or “If you were a sultan how might you avoid rivalry with your brothers?”.

A similar approach to historical events can be seen in another example. Textbook writers explain “A meteorological station was built on Murat III instructions in Tophane in order to observe Space. This station was well-equipped with all the necessary tools and apparatus under the direction of the scientist Takiyuddin who was to do research. This station, which is recognised as the first meteorological station in the Ottoman Empire, however, was unable to continue its work because it was decided to have it destroyed for various reasons” (Yildiz, Alptekin, Sahin, Bostan, 1992, p.59). The reason for the destruction, however is the statement that Seyhulislam, the most eminent religious leader, brought about its destruction because it was considered to be extremely sinful to observe or study space (Adivar, 1982).

The reason for writers not mentioning these issues in their textbooks may be either their concern to obtain approval from the Textbook Examination Board or the writers’ own unwillingness to present an unpleasant event in Ottoman history. The examples given show that disagreeable facts or historical events in Turkish history have been whitewashed by textbook writers. This is done by presenting only one side of the historical events, and/or neglecting/omitting some part of it.

Apart from concealing some historical facts, the explanations of the actions of the historical figures seem to be problematic as well. Sultan Abdulhamid, Sultan Vahdettin and Mustafa Kemal Ataturk are some of the controversial characters in Turkish history, and textbook writers’ views about them are open to question. For example, Sultan Abdulhamid is described as
either “Kizil Sultan” or “Ulu Hakan”. The first nickname describes him as a ‘despot’, while the second one means a ‘great sultan’. These two very different nicknames come from the historians’ different interpretations of his actions and policies. In this controversial atmosphere, textbook writers generally support one side in this uncompromising debate, instead of presenting both sides of the argument. Thus, the decisions of the textbook writers are set forth and approved as if this were the only historical viewpoint. As a result, history textbooks in Turkey are defined as “the tools of ideological struggle” (Kabapinar, 1992a) which represent the attitudes of governments and textbook writers. Moreover, it should not be forgotten that this approach to history teaching may create an eternal conflict in Turkey, since there is possibility that alternative viewpoints may gain prominence and be adopted in textbooks if the existing government changes.

Writing history in a particular form that nobody can doubt or disagree with forces one to suppose that history textbook writers either do not have sufficiently clear idea of the nature of history or that as a result of the tacit policies of the government. They seem deliberately to want pupils to think that history is a subject admitting of no dispute, and that there is no room for scepticism or divergent points of view.

History teaching, on the contrary, should not deliberately deny or ignore some aspects of the historical events. Instead, as far as possible every facet of the historical events should be displayed to students so that they have an opportunity to evaluate and judge different viewpoints and ideas. By being able to explore divergent sources and perspectives, students will be able to come to their own conclusions about the validity of the arguments presented, rather than blindly accepting such texts. In this way, students have the chance to develop their own understanding and interpretative and imaginative picture of the historical past. To create such an learning atmosphere, the government and textbook writers need to relinquish their control over decision-making in the explanation and interpretation of past events. The aim should be to enable pupils use their own values and opinions as a framework for evaluating the past.

Assigning overemphasis to ‘us’ and underestimation to ‘others’

Another approach that textbooks writers have adopted is to portray Turkish history as a model and ideal of excellence, because the analysis given about Turkish history is based on a predetermination of the idea of excellence. However the successes of the others (rivals, nations, religions) are underestimated and undervalued in Turkish history textbooks. Turhal’s (1993, p.194) account of the Ottoman government system claims that “The Ottoman government system was absolutely perfect, .....there was no deficiency or excess in the regulations made regarding
government, justice, army etc. ...All Turkish governors, from the lowest ranking to the sultan, considered that their main duty was to please the entire society that they governed. Therefore, oppression and exploitation of society was impossible”. This example reveals that the first priority of the textbook writer is to support the idea of the dignity of the Ottoman Empire and the proposition that it was the greatest organisation on earth. Because severe problems exist in Turkey at the present moment, the intention is to take refuge behind the glorious history of the Ottoman Empire. As a result, history is seen and taught as a celebration of great people and their glorious victories.

While Turkish history textbooks strongly emphasise successful historical events, the reasons for the defeats and failures against ‘others’ have been either ignored or overlooked by offering some simple explanations. For example, Tekin and Turhal (1990) describe the Battle of Prevesa, saying that “Barbaros implemented a wonderful war plan, taking into account the great number of enemies. The crusaders’ ships were destroyed through skilful artillery fire and manoeuvres. All the tactics that Andrea Doria tried to carry out were immediately thwarted. The crusaders had to leave the battlefield (1538). Prevesa is one of the world’s greatest sea battles”. Then the same writers describe the Battle of Lepanto, and state “The naval forces started a battle in front of Lepanto Bay. The Ottoman navy encountered many setbacks as it set out without taking the necessary precautions. Most of the sailors were novices. The recklessness of the commander was the last straw. As a result, most of the Turkish ships sank”. It might be expected that textbook writers would be able to investigate the reasons for the defeat at Lepanto, when just 33 years after the Battle of Prevesa (which has been called by them “one of the world’s greatest sea battles”), this great defeat happened. Why did it happen? Why was the commander so reckless? Why were the sailors novices? The reasons for the success of the rival fleet should have been taken into consideration as well.

In order to dispose of the unfavourable effects of Turkey’s defeat in the First World War, the same textbook writer Sirin (1989, p.109-110) offers excuses by distorting historical facts about it. He says that “When we fought with Germans in the First World War, we were considered losers. However, Turkish armies were not defeated on every battlefield and they even achieved untold glory in the Dardanelles”. It is evident from the examples given earlier that textbook writers seem to feel a sense of honour in writing about the victories that their countries win, and are embarrassed when writing about their countries’ defeats.

Turkish history textbook writers also try to create the impression that Turkey enjoyed a major influence during great historical periods of European history, such as the Reformation and
Renaissance, for example; Tekin and Turhal (1990, p.35) suggest that “The commercial activities that the Anatolian Seljuks carried out had the effect of making the Italian Republics very rich. Thus, the economic conditions which were the most important reason for the advent of the Renaissance in Italy was established. Miroglu and Halacoglu (1992, p.17) also claim that “As a result of the tolerance and respect that Fatih had for free thinking, the Ottoman Palace was opened to some of the European artists and scholars. Close cultural relations were established. Europeans learnt free thinking. This greatly helped to bring about the Reformation and Renaissance”.

Another historical event described in history textbooks is that of the invention and use of the press. Mercil et al. (1996, p.153) write in their textbook that “What Jan Gutenberg did was merely to convert wooden letters into metal ones. The credit for inventing the printing press, therefore, belongs to the Uighurs, and also to the Chinese”. Ugurlu and Balci (1993, p.89) also point out that “In the eighteenth century, the Ottomans accepted that the Europeans were progressing in every way, and they especially felt the need to make reforms in the military domain. Moreover, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Ottomans recognised the importance of the printing press, and they set up a printing house as well”.

It is a historical fact that the Chinese invented the first primitive version of a printing press, and that the Uighurs, a Turkish tribe, also used it for a while. This, however did not have a worldwide impact. Gutenberg invented the printing press which used metal letters in the middle of the fifteenth century, and this machine was first used in the Ottoman Empire in 1492 by ethnic minorities, such as the Armenians, Jews and Greeks. Because of conservative influences, Turks did not use it until 1727. Textbook writers do not investigate why the printing press could not be used until 1727 (though the minority communities in the Ottoman Empire were using it after 1492) and what damage this caused to Turkish cultural life. Instead, they undervalue the significance of Gutenberg’s invention and give most credit to the Chinese, but especially to the Uighurs, a Turkish clan living in the Far East. It is clear from the above examples that exaggerated nationalist feelings lead and distort the historical interpretation in textbooks.

An example taken from Sirin (1989, p. 224) gives an idea of the bias against other nations. He explains that “The Balkan nations admired the virtues of the Turks, which they themselves did not possess or only partly had, such as patriotism, integrity, charity, good manners, cleanliness, loyalty, respect for women, and gratitude”. As in this example, it is extremely difficult to explore or challenge the claims made by the Turkish textbook writer about the past. Where does this information come from? Is it the perception and value judgement of the
textbook writer, or is it a result of a research? What criteria were applied to measure these value-based concepts? What educational importance does this information have for pupils? Examples of this bias based on an exaggerated nationalism against other nations can be increased.

An historical study carried out at an academic level may produce criticism and discussion, if there are ideological effects, biases or deliberate distortions in the historical research. However, it is extremely difficult for students to explore and detect this misuse of the methodology of history since they tend to see textbooks as authoritative, moreover they do not have the information to challenge the assertions. So, the plurality and validity of different points of view as one of the basic requirements of the methodology of history, seems to become historical absolutism in Turkish textbooks.

Value Judgements and Presentation of Controversial Issues in English History Textbooks

Before taking a closer look at English history textbooks, their overall structure can briefly be described. The schemes are all similar in terms of their main components. Many textbooks recently published are source-based, because source-based inquiry is a requirement of the English National Curriculum. Sources, written or visual, are used to illustrate and support the narrative, to make clear that historical statements must be based on evidence, and to support all forms of activities and assessment. The main aim is for pupils to practise the skills of studying pictures and reading written sources as much as possible. Teaching is grounded in the notion of the divergent nature of history, which also helps to strengthen students’ reasoning abilities and skills.

Sources used in English history textbooks, as Nichol (1980) describes, appear in an ‘edited form’ which means that original historical sources have sometimes been changed into an ‘educational resource’. Official documents, newspapers, diaries, photographs, paintings, novels, caricatures etc. are used as the historical evidence to introduce pupils to the nature of historical research and its methodology. History teaching experts and educators believe that working with evidence enables pupils to achieve understanding and relative mastery of the historians’ craft by the end of their education (Husbands, 1996; Britt et.al, 1994, Nichol, 1980).

1 The researcher wishes to make it clear that finding misrepresentations of value judgements and controversial issues in English history textbooks requires a detailed knowledge of English history. Since he has not such detailed information, he asked for help from his supervisors and the textbook writers interviewed.
Feeling and Applying the Methodology of History

Until the late 60's, implicit political effects on English history textbooks could be observed. Marsden (1989) points out that 'imperial spirit and Victorian values' in English history textbooks. As a result, the main concern of the history was “a celebration of the achievements not of ordinary but of great people, mostly men, mostly English and many Victorian (p.521). However, he also emphasises that the School Council Project in the 1960's and 1970's brought England nearer to a "reasonable balance between content, pedagogy and social education components than at any other period in the modern history of education" (p.523). It is a fact that the work of the School Council Project was a turning point in education in England. For example, the foundations of the current rationale of history teaching were laid by this Project. Although the School Council Project was subject to criticism, its influence can also be seen in the 'Key Elements' of the National Curriculum launched in the 1990's, and in the textbooks which supports the requirements of the National Curriculum.

Giving a notion about the methodology of history is an important part of this rationale of history teaching in England. Throughout the pages of the textbooks, it is always possible to experience different methodological approaches. Some of the activities are especially based on checking the reliability of the sources, recognising the lack of sufficient evidence to explain historical events, appreciation of the validity of different viewpoints and so on.

In their textbook, for example, Dawson and Watson (1991) aim to inform pupils about the nature of history, and they say "History cannot be just about facts because there are many things that we are not certain about. This is because the sources -documents or other remains from the past- don't always tell us the whole truth. They may miss events out or disagree about why things happened. Then we have to puzzle over what really happened, which can be fun! On these pages are two examples of puzzles about the events of 1066" and under the title of "Was William the true king of England?" they offer two different stories or accounts of who Edward wanted to be king. The English version and the Norman version of the story, as the other side of coin. They also give a "Chart of Investigation" which shows the steps to be followed in any historical research and investigation. This chart is shown below.
In this example, textbook writers represent history as a puzzle to be enjoyed by pupils. As can be inferred from the question asked, “Explain why it is difficult to be certain who Edward wanted to be king”, writers want pupils to recognise that every question may not be solved in history because of the limited evidence obtained, or because of very divergent viewpoints about the issue considered.

Asking questions about evidence is an inescapable part of the historical understanding. In the textbook written by Shephard, Reid and Shephard (1995, p.194-197) writers pose a hypothesis in the title of the topic “Should Dresden have been bombed?”, and want students to decide if the bombardment of Dresden was necessary or not. It should be pointed out that the Allies (including England) bombed Dresden, but textbook writers did not allow this information to pass without allowing it to be noticed by the students. On the contrary, they want student to consider “After you have considered the evidence which follows, you will be asked whether you think this was a war crime” (p.194). To justify this, students need to evaluate seven illustrative sources, such as German and English war posters and photograph, and ten written sources such as, the interpretation of modern historians, statistics about the tons of bombs dropped on Germany, government documents and eye-witness accounts.

It is worth noting that textbook writers relate a British example to the issue of ‘war crimes’ which many British people think were only perpetrated by ‘others’, such as the Germans and Japanese. Thus, this example helps students to reflect that war crimes were possibly not only committed by the enemy or by opponents. In this example, textbook writers are not decision-
makers on behalf of the students, but the facilitators of student learning and understanding of history from different viewpoints in accordance with the methodology of history.

The only example which may create prejudice and stereotype about ‘others’ is the one related to the Turkish history. In their textbooks Child (1991) and Child, Shuter and Taylor (1991) explained the Ottoman court system, and they also offered students the same picture given below.

Activities...

1 List the jobs which were done in and around the court by the sultan’s slaves.

2 The Ottomans used very harsh punishments. What do you think of each of the following explanations for this?
   a They used harsh punishments because they believed they were fair.
   b They relied on harsh punishments to make people too frightened to break the law.
   c They were cruel and knew no better.


This picture shows two punishment methods used at the Ottoman Courts. However, the pictures and the words used to describe the scene may be susceptible to the creation of prejudice in the minds of pupils. As a researcher, if you decide to search out all of the punishment methods in the Ottoman Courts, you can, by all means, present these examples in your research. But if you introduce the entire history of the Ottoman Empire within a few pages in the textbook, you do not have to illustrate the worst cases with superficial coverage and sweeping generalisations. Child, Shuter and Taylor, for example, allocated only one paragraph to the punishments making extensive generalisations, such as “Even minor crimes had severe penalties, for example cutting off a thief’s hands. The sultan had no police force to keep law and order; he had to rely on fear.
But the Koran also supported severe punishments and suffering was more common then than today anyway, so people generally regarded the punishments as normal” (p.124). The adjectives used in the textbooks may also cause bias, for example; “very harsh”, “They were cruel and knew no better” (Child, 1991).

These few pages make little attempt to present a balanced view of Turkish society possibly due to insufficient knowledge and lack of perspective. The amputation of a hand was not a common punishment after the late 16th century. The statement “The sultan has no police force” is absolutely wrong factual information. All nations may have the similar punishment methods which can be called “cruel” or “harsh”. Such events and examples should be placed in history textbooks in perspective, since the pupils can easily be affected by the negative interpretations as found in these examples. It should be emphasised that these misrepresentations of Turkish history are not a result of intentional value judgements, rather lack of sufficient information on the topic.

English textbook writers present unpleasant facts in their own history without becoming embarrassed. For example, inhuman treatment of others, such as burning people alive (Shephard et al., 1993, p.33), child abuse in the factories (Walsh, 1997, p.88-89), pitiless treatment of slaves (Unwin, 1993, pp. 7-10; Shephard, et al.1995, pp. 70-75), mass killings as a result of religious hatred (Rice, 1995, p. 55; Shephard et al. 1993, pp. 36-39). History is made up of pleasant and unpleasant episodes. It is imperative to understand both sides of the coin, instead of applauding the agreeable incidents and ignoring the disagreeable ones. Facing up to all the realities of the past is within the power and determination of a nation. All nations should weigh up both the good and bad aspects of their history.

Pluralism in English History textbooks

As far as English history textbooks are concerned, textbook writers generally tend to introduce pupils to the plurality of historical interpretation by offering them a variety of viewpoints made by different historians. As an example, Shephard et.al (1995) examine “why did the Industrial Revolution happen where and when it did?”, and then they inform the student that “Historians disagree about the answer to this question. On this page there are many possible reasons suggested by historians, but as you will see not everyone agrees how important each one is. You have already looked at some of these factors in detail. Now you can make up your own mind about them”(p. 46).
Because... Britain's population was growing

For:
- The more people there were, the more goods businesses could sell to them.
- The growing population provided extra labour to work in the new industries.

Against:
- Many people in Britain were too poor to be able to buy the products made by British industry.
- The new industries often started in places where there were not many people to work in them.

Because... Britain had plenty of raw materials

For:
- There was plenty of the raw materials needed to make iron and steel, which were used to make machines and railways.
- There was plenty of coal to drive steam engines to power machinery in the factories.

Against:
- The raw materials were very difficult to extract. They were not always where they were most needed and they were slow and expensive to transport.
- These raw materials had been around for thousands of years, but there had been no Industrial Revolution.

C. Shephard, A. Reid, K. Shephard, *Peace and War*, p.46

As shown in the example, textbook writers successfully present the different viewpoints of historians for educational purposes. They ask pupils to make up their own minds and decide which point of view to accept. While this style strengthens pupils' cognitive development and active participation in the evaluation process, it also minimises the authority of the writer's value judgements in historical interpretations.

The political and social problems in Northern Ireland has been one of the most significant problems that England has faced for many years. As a part of 'Modern World Study', English
students have been given an opportunity to examine and understand the roots of this historical problem. When the textbook “Conflict in Ireland” written by McAleavy (1987) was examined, it was seen that the textbook writer attempted to explain both sides of the question, reducing exaggerated national reactions as much as possible. When “The Battle of the Boyne” and “The Penal Laws” (p.16-17) are introduced in the textbook as important turning points in Irish-English history, the story of Irish people losing their lands, and the difficulties in daily life created by English rulers were straightforwardly explained by the textbook writer without attempting to whitewash these historical facts. The table and diagram used in the textbook in explaining these historical facts can be seen below, as examples of the approach taken by the textbook writer (the Protestant represents the English people in Ireland, and the Catholic represents the Irish).

PROTESTANT SETTLER LANDOWNERS GAINED POWER

THE TWO SIDES OF VICTORY AT THE BOYNE 1690

NATIVE IRISH CATHOLICS LOST POWER

The Penal Laws 1697-1727

Whereas it is known that past rebellions have been contrived by Popish clergy
Be it enacted that

1. No Catholic may bequeath his lands as a whole but must divide it amongst his sons
   But if one of these sons becomes Protestant he will inherit the whole estate
   No Catholic can buy land or lease it for more than 31 years

2. No Catholic shall be allowed to vote or become a member of Parliament or a town councillor
   No Catholic shall join the civil service
   No Catholic may be a solicitor or lawyer

3. No Catholic may join the army or the navy
   No Catholic may possess a horse of greater value than £5. Any Protestant offering that sum may take possession of a horse of his Catholic neighbour
   Catholics keeping guns are liable to a whipping

4. Catholics may not receive higher education or take professional jobs

T. McAleavy, Conflict in Ireland, p. 16-17
This examples show that the historical facts related to 'others' are also presented in this English history textbook so as to evaluate rationally and interpret what happened in Ireland in the seventeenth and eighteenth century.

Another example taken from the same textbook emphasises the dilemma faced in explaining some historical events. Making reference to the concepts ‘terrorist’ and ‘freedom fighter’, textbook writers emphasise that “The word you choose depends to some extent on which side you support” (McAleavy, 1987, p.92). An illustrative explanation of different viewpoints and concepts assigned to explain the activity of an IRA supporter is shown below.

![Illustration of two characters arguing over the word to use: TERRORIST or FREEDOM FIGHTER. One character says: YOU ARE A TERRORIST! NO! I AM A FREEDOM FIGHTER! The other character responds: SO!..... ONE MAN'S TERRORIST IS ANOTHER MAN'S FREEDOM FIGHTER....]

T. McAleavy, Conflict in Ireland, p.92

It is clear from this example that instead of concealing some facts and viewpoints, textbook writers give students an opportunity to understand and appreciate how the ‘others’ think about the same historical event.

To complete the section, it should be emphasised that no one is completely value-free, and it is impossible in history to escape or avoid value judgements altogether. Thus, in English
history textbooks, there can inevitably be found some misrepresentations, bias and deficiencies in explaining and reconstructing the historical events as well.

In a report called "The Impact of the National Curriculum on the Production of History Textbooks and other Resources for Key Stage 2 and 3: A Discussion Paper" (1994), English history textbooks were discussed in order to examine and evaluate how far they met the requirements of the National Curriculum. History textbooks were also reviewed by academic historians in order to assess their historical accuracy. In this report, it was explained that "the general level of accuracy in the materials is satisfactory, although there are a number of simple errors in some publications" (p.4). However, the report recommended that much more emphasis should be made on the histories of Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Some other constructive suggestions about other components of the textbooks were also made so as to improve the quality of the English history textbooks.

The discussion so far leads to the conclusion that the presentation of controversial issues in Turkish history textbooks seems to be affected by the orthodox values and approved interpretations of the state and textbook writers. Although there is no textbook approval system exists in England, English textbook writers, in general, attempt to present controversial issues in their textbooks according to the basic requirements of the discipline of history, rather than individual or institutional values and preferences.
CHAPTER 5
EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE COMPARISON OF USABILITY OF TURKISH AND ENGLISH HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

Background information and samples used in the empirical study

The questionnaire
The interviews
The observation schedule

The major questions investigated

The use of history textbooks and other teaching materials in planning and delivering lessons

Materials used in Year 8 and Year 10 classrooms
The use of different parts of history textbooks
What use do teachers expect their pupils to make of a textbook

The factors that determine whether teachers use textbooks in the classrooms

Teachers' and textbook writers' ideas about the quality of history textbooks
The criteria applied in choosing textbooks
Teachers' ideas about existing Turkish/English history textbooks
The approval systems of history textbooks in Turkey and England

The analysis of the observations conducted in Turkish history classrooms

An example of a Turkish lesson in Year 8
An example of a Turkish lesson in Year 10

The analysis of the observations conducted in Turkish history classrooms

An example of a English lesson in Year 8
An example of a English lesson in Year 10

A comparison of Turkish and English classrooms

The general atmosphere in Turkish and English classrooms
Teacher behaviour in Turkish and English classrooms
Student behaviour in Turkish and English classrooms
CHAPTER FIVE
EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE COMPARISON OF USABILITY OF TURKISH AND ENGLISH HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

This chapter reports on the empirical study which investigates the views of Turkish and English teachers about textbooks and textbook use in history lessons. Three research instruments were used to collect this information (described in detail in Chapter 3), namely a questionnaire, an interview and a classroom observation schedule.

Background information and the samples used in the empirical study

The questionnaire

Table 5.1 gives details of the samples of Turkish and English teachers who responded to the questionnaire.

Table 5.1. The gender distribution of the questionnaire sample of Turkish and English history teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Turkish</th>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 5.1 indicates, rather more Turkish teachers than English teachers completed the questionnaire and the gender composition of the two samples was slightly different. However, it seems unlikely that this would have a significant effect on the outcomes, especially as no analyses of the results were planned to include gender differences. For this to be possible, much larger samples of teachers would have been needed.

Also by way of general background information, teachers were asked to give the names of the textbooks they used most often with Year 8 and Year 10 pupils, the focus age-groups of this study. The results are shown in Tables 5.2 and 5.3 below.

Table 5.2. The first three the most commonly used textbooks in Turkish classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writer’s Name (Year 8)</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Writer’s Name (Year 10)</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kemal Kara</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Kemal Kara</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niyazi Aksit</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Altan Dellorman</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erdogan Mercil</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>T. Erdogan Sahin</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.3. The first three the most commonly used textbooks in English classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writer’s Name (Year 8)</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Writer’s Name (Year 10)</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J. Scott</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Ben Walsh</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Shephard</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>J. Scott</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J.F. Aylett</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>J. Brooman</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The target textbooks used throughout this study are listed in bold in Tables 5.2 and 5.3 and all of them appear in the listing of the three most commonly used texts for each of the two year groups.

**The interviews**

The interviews were intended to act as a follow-up to the questionnaire for a small sub-sample of teachers in order to pursue some of the issues in more depth. Eight teachers were interviewed in Turkey and six in England. Two Turkish and two English textbook writers were also interviewed and these findings are included in the relevant sections of the reporting that follows.

**The observation schedule**

The same observation schedule was used in both countries. In Turkey, 54 lessons were observed during the one month of data collection, 27 in Year 8 classes and 27 in Year 10. These lessons were approximately 40 minutes long. In England, 54 lessons were also observed, 30 in Year 8 and 24 in Year 10. These lessons were either approximately 35 or 70 minutes long, being either single or double periods.

Since many of the views and experiences being investigated were similar in all the research instruments, the findings will be reported under a series of headings, in effect the main themes and research questions. These were:

1. the significance of the history textbook and other teaching materials in the process of planning and delivering the lesson,
2. the factors which determine whether teachers use textbooks or not in the classrooms
3. teachers’ and textbook writers’ ideas about the quality of textbooks,
4. the criteria applied in choosing textbooks,
5. teacher’s ideas about existing Turkish/English history textbooks,
6. the approval systems of history textbooks in Turkey and England.
Some of the findings from the analyses of the classroom observations will be reported separately since they generated further insights into the research questions that do not fit neatly into this first listing of major themes.

The major Questions investigated

1. The significance of history textbooks and other teaching materials in the process of planning and delivering the lesson

In this section of the analysis, the role that textbooks and other teaching materials play in the process of planning and delivering the lesson in Turkey and England will be explored. In order to address the different dimensions involved, the subcategories shown below were used:

- materials that teachers use in Year 8 and Year 10 history classrooms,
- the use of different parts of history textbooks,
- what use do history teachers expect their pupils to make of a textbook.

Materials that teachers use in Year 8 and Year 10 history classrooms

In the questionnaire, one section asked subjects to report their use of teaching materials in Year 8 and 10 classrooms. A five-point scale, ‘Never’, ‘Hardly ever’, ‘Sometimes’, ‘Often’, and ‘Nearly Always’ was used, being scored 1-5. In Tables 5.4 and 5.5, this listing of materials is given with the mean scores for the Turkish and English history teachers. The additional column shows the differences in these mean values between the responses of the Turkish and English teachers for each question, and their level of significance.

### Table 5.4. The frequency of use of materials in the Year 8 classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials that teachers use in Year 8 classrooms</th>
<th>mean (Turkish) n= 35</th>
<th>mean (English) n= 56</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worksheets</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Guide Book Activities</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Books</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>-1.32*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional Historical Evidence</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>-0.75*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Programme</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>-0.92*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>0.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encyclopaedia</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.77*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*) Significant differences (<0.05) indicated by an asterisk
Table 5.5. The frequency of use of materials in the Year 10 classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials that teachers use in Year 10 classrooms</th>
<th>mean (Turkish) n=46</th>
<th>mean (English) n=55</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worksheets</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Guide Book Activities</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Books</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>0.76*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>-1.86*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional Historical Evidence</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>-0.57*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Programme</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>-0.82*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encyclopaedia</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>1.36*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*) Significant differences (<0.05) indicated by an asterisk

These results provided evidence that the Turkish teachers used textbooks, maps, encyclopaedia and academic books more often than other teaching materials in both Year 8 and Year 10 classes. However, textbooks, worksheets, video, additional historical evidence, and maps were widely used in both Year 8 and Year 10 classes by English teachers.

No significant differences were found between Turkish and English teachers in the use of history textbooks in either Year 8 or Year 10. However, the results of an independent sample t-test revealed that Turkish history teachers used maps, encyclopaedia and academic books in both Year 8 and 10 classes significantly more often than English history teachers. English history teachers, on the other hand, used video, computer programmes and additional historical evidence in both Year 8 and 10 classes significantly more often than did Turkish history teachers.

Since English history textbooks introduce different primary and secondary sources to the students as an important constituent, it is likely that the history teachers may not feel that it is necessary to bring other academic books into the class. The Turkish teachers, on the other hand, might be using academic books and encyclopaedia in order to compensate for the lack of historical sources in the history textbooks they use.

Interviews with Turkish history teachers gave further details about the use of textbooks. Four out of the eight Turkish history teachers reported that they did not use history textbooks in planning and delivering the lesson. They explained that apart from examining the headings and subheadings in the textbook as a curriculum guide, they wanted to avoid using them in their teaching. For example, TT3 emphasised that

"I do not trust textbooks in Turkey, I have no faith in them for both ideological and informative reasons. They take sides with particular viewpoints (p.22)".

1 Throughout the report of the interview, the Turkish and English history teachers will be referred to as TT and ET respectively, together with the numbers given in order to avoid using their personal names.
TT5 also emphasised this point by saying that

"I see textbooks only as a source base for my students who have to use them because of a shortage of other supplementary materials.... In other words, I do not see them as an important resource, because the quality of the writing and other features are unsatisfactory to me (p.42)".

It seemed that because of the quality issue and the political influences in the textbooks, some Turkish teachers rejected them in the planning and delivering of their lesson. For this group of people, however, student use of textbooks in the classrooms was inevitable.

The teachers in the second category (4 teachers) seemed to be more dependent on the textbooks. The reasons for using history textbooks appeared to be:
- the strict relation between curriculum and textbook (TT4, p.33), (TT7, p. 65),
- the need to understand the level of information to be given to students in the classroom (TT6, p.56), (TT7, p.65)
- the use of "Question and Answer" teaching method which were based on the questions derived from the textbooks (TT1, p.2), (TT6, p.56).

Although some teachers reported that they did not use history textbooks in planning and giving the lesson, all the teachers interviewed agreed that the textbook was the only source of basic information about history for students. Students were given homework which was often to read some pages from the textbook so that they could have a general framework for the following lesson. History textbooks, therefore, seemed to be inescapable in the Turkish classrooms.

The data obtained through observation in the Turkish classroom also offered some qualitative data concerning the use of teaching materials. In Table 5.6, the materials used in the Turkish Year 8 and Year 10 classrooms during the observations is presented.

Table 5.6. The materials used in Year 8 and 10 Turkish classrooms during observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The materials used</th>
<th>Year 8 classrooms</th>
<th>Y10 classrooms</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Books</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encyclopaedia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6 clearly shows that history textbooks and maps were at the heart of history teaching in the classrooms observed.

The Turkish teachers interviewed also stressed that they used other materials, such as academic books, university lecture notes and the University Examination Preparation Books published by a number of the “Private Courses” in the planning of lessons. It was interesting to
see the extent to which the University Examination Preparation Books were cited and used in this process. Six of the interviewees clearly stated that they used these books in the planning, and partly in delivering the lesson.

Some background information may be helpful here. These “Private Courses” offer special lessons to prepare students for the University Entrance Examinations. They significantly simplify and summarise the content of the history curriculum, and emphasise the most important parts on which questions are usually set in the examinations. Furthermore, the content of history is often reduced to some simple formula by giving a mere summary of certain effects and results of historical events and their importance in Turkish and/or World history. These books reinforce the idea that history and historical interpretation are composed of certain unproblematic, comfortable interpretations with correct answers.

The following interview excerpt illustrates this aspect:

TT1 : “... The pupil’s main concern is to secure a place in the university. Therefore, what do I do with University Preparation Books? For example, last night, I sifted through one of them.
R : What kind of books are they?
TT1 : They are for university entrance. They are produced by the private courses which prepares students for university examinations.
R : Why are you using them?
TT1 : I can find the summary of the information. The existing examination system forces us to do it” (p. 2).

The university examination system seems to force some teachers to use these materials in the classrooms, and there is a sort of tacit understanding between teachers and students. Parents also support this approach, because they want their children to gain a place at university. Moreover, the achievements of the school are measured by the parents according to the number of students who obtain university places.

The interview analysis also revealed that teachers use maps, some academic books, old history textbooks, encyclopaedias, and sometimes videos in the course of delivering the lesson. Three history teachers in this sample read out loud some paragraphs from primary sources and academic books in the classroom so as to make the lesson more colourful. TT5 stressed the intense curriculum pressure faced by history teachers:

“the main problem for me and my colleagues is not having enough time to use the supplementary materials. The reason for this is that we are given a curriculum which is very dense, long and detailed. ... It is impossible to finish this curriculum on time. I have to follow this ambitious curriculum and in order to use the supplementary materials, I need extra-time, but I do not have time. I would like to use them, actually I am using them, but I am able to read only one paragraph as an example” (p. 42).

He also referred to the expectations of pupils and parents that teachers should use history textbooks
"If I use the supplementary materials extensively in the classroom, then, pupils will say that my teacher does not use the textbook. He did not explain this part or that part. Pupils are right, because they are going to take examinations, and in those examinations, they will be asked details of what has been written in the textbooks. Besides, the parents expect the same thing, the use of the textbook. It is a big dilemma for us" (p.43).

As far as video use is concerned, all the schools in this research had video facilities, but video use was very limited, because of a shortage of appropriate educational materials produced for school use. Schools often have a few video cassettes, and these are not necessarily produced for school use, but rather are television series recorded by the teachers. TT6 dwelt on this issue and explained that:

"Although we have television and video, it is not a solution, because we do not have the programmes and video cassettes for the subjects in the textbook. They are not prepared, and there is no substructure for this (p.57)".

In brief, while the textbooks are at the core of history teaching in Turkey, history teachers are not able to organise their teaching by using a variety of teaching materials. In other words, teachers depend upon history textbooks, and they do not have many opportunities to present students with supplementary materials.

Interviews carried out with English teachers confirmed the questionnaire findings that the textbook was one of the crucially important teaching materials used in history classrooms. In the following transcript, ET1 stressed that:

"They are actually quite essential, since much of the work we do in a particular lesson is based on the use of a chapter in a textbook" (p.1).

The use of textbooks was also determined by the age group, the ability of the class and whether the textbook content fitted into what the teacher wanted to accomplish in the lesson. ET2 said that:

"Depending on the year group and the amount of textbooks available they would make me dictate the content of the lesson, how I would want to teach a particular subject. For example, if there is not very much about it, then, I would have to look elsewhere for resources" (p.7).

ET5 also clarified the issue further by saying:

"This depends on the class, on what other resources are available and depends on the suitability of the textbook for the class" (p.23).

However, textbook content did not seem to determine the entire lesson. In other words, English teachers are not only reliant on textbooks. The following quotation from an interview illustrates the significance and function of a textbook for ET6:

"I don't set a lesson on the textbook ... the textbook is a teaching aid for me, it is not my lesson. I don't base my lesson on the textbook, but the textbook supports my lesson" (p.27).
As far as the frequency of using the textbook is concerned, the answers were: "all the time" (ET4, p. 18), "a lot" (ET5, p.22), "probably every lesson" (ET2, p.7), "in most lessons" (ET3, p.14). In addition, some teachers interviewed cited certain quotas, "out of 30 odd lessons I would have said 20-25" (ET1, p.1), or "2 out of those 3 lessons in a week" (ET6, p.26).

The quantitative data obtained through observation in the English classrooms is also consistent with the results of the questionnaire and interview. Observations suggested that textbooks, worksheets and videos were the most widely used teaching materials both in the Year 8 and Year 10 classrooms. The results are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7. The materials used in the English classrooms during observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The materials used</th>
<th>Year 8 classrooms (Number: 30)</th>
<th>Y10 classrooms (Number: 24)</th>
<th>Total (Number: 54)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worksheet</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.7 shows that textbooks were very significant teaching resource in the classrooms visited. The results also imply that there is very little difference between the use of textbooks in the Year 8 and Year 10 classrooms.

In addition, however, all the English teachers interviewed pointed out that worksheets are one of the most widely used materials in history teaching in England, either as an alternative to the textbook or together with textbook. In the following note from an interview, ET2 gave a few clues as to why worksheets were used, saying that:

"Probably they are a stop-gap where the books don't have the topic or the books don't do it in a way that I'd like it done or I'd use worksheets so the questions are specifically for, designed for our pupils because some of the textbooks are quite difficult for the pupils to understand, so it's often one of my lessons where I say right here's the worksheet" (p.7).

It seems that worksheets are used as an alternative to the textbook in the English classrooms when teachers think that the textbook content is not sufficiently focused on what they want to teach. In addition, worksheets are also used to differentiate between tasks and to provide work for certain ability groups that are unable to access and cope with information or an activity given in the textbook.

Video also has a crucial role in teaching in England, since a large amount of video material is available on a variety of historical periods and topics. ET1 explained what video means to him,

"We use video a great deal ... a video if it explains something more effectively than you telling it or in the book. They are also useful in a sense that they break up a lesson, you can vary your delivery" (p.1).
The English teachers also made use of posters and model-making, role-playing, examining old newspapers, pictures and artefacts in their teaching. ETI clearly stated the reasons for using these kind of materials:

"The functions, as I've just said, they fall into several categories. For a start different sorts of materials, written and visual, are essential for differentiation. They are also very useful in delivering the areas where the textbooks are terribly lightweight, areas where there are core elements which are important and useful and the class has gone down in that particular area. They are also useful in assessment work" (p.1).

After examining the analysis of the questionnaire, interview and observation data together, it can be concluded that history textbooks are of paramount importance in history teaching in this Turkish sample, though some of the Turkish teachers do not trust history textbooks, and some reject their use in the planning and delivery of the lessons. However certain factors make the use of the textbook for other teachers indispensable in planning and delivering the lesson. In addition, all the Turkish teachers agreed that textbooks have to be used by the students in lessons, since there are no other supplementary materials available for them to acquire historical information.

On the other hand, in England, although textbooks are regarded as an important teaching tool used in history lessons, teachers have other resources to rely on. Moreover, in lesson time, history teachers may have an opportunity to use a variety of teaching materials to accomplish their teaching aims.

The use of different parts of history textbooks

In this part of the questionnaire, “The use of history textbooks during the lesson” was investigated. The aim was to learn if there were any differences in the use of the different components of history textbooks. Here again, the five-point scale, ‘Never’, ‘Hardly ever’, ‘Sometimes’, ‘Often’, and ‘Nearly Always’ was also introduced to elicit the appropriate data the respondents. They were ranked 1 to 5. The results are shown in Table 5.8 below.

Table 5.8. The use of history textbooks during lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The use of history textbooks during the lesson</th>
<th>mean Turkish n = 74</th>
<th>mean English n = 61</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of explanations</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of written sources</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of illustrations</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of pictorial sources</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of controversial issues</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of activities</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicated in Table 5.8 show that the illustrations and textual explanations of a textbook seem to be the most widely used section of Turkish history textbooks, since students
appear to obtain the general information about the subject from the textbook, and the maps in textbooks are widely used in the Turkish classrooms. However, written sources, illustrations and pictorial sources were the main constituents of English history textbooks used widely in the classrooms. 'Activities' seem to be rarely used in either country.

The results of the independent sample t-test also showed that Turkish and English history teachers do not significantly differ from each other regarding the frequency of use of the various parts of the history textbooks during lessons. In other words, explanations, illustrations, controversial issues and activities, as the different components of history textbook, are used a similar amount by both Turkish and English teachers. Nevertheless, the results related to the frequency of use of the different portions of a textbook, of course, does not imply anything about the effective use of these divisions of history textbooks in either country.

As previously mentioned in Chapter 3, some space was provided in the questionnaire so that respondents could freely make some comment on the history textbooks. The comments of English history teachers to the open-ended part of the questionnaire seemed to focus on inadequacies in the activities in the English history textbooks. Six English teachers appeared to deplore the ineffectiveness of the activities in their history textbooks. They define the activities as "unrealistic in their expectations", "simplistic and unimaginative" and "confusing and inappropriate". Consequently, they usually set their own activities in conjunction with the history textbooks that they have. One of the teachers clearly stated that "my worksheets are often based around textbooks but with activities I have devised to fit my pupils". In short, English history teachers, in their written comments, show their dissatisfaction with the activities found in history textbooks. It may be for these reasons that the least frequently used part of the English history textbooks was reported as "The use of activities".

The results of the interviews with the English history teachers appeared to confirm the results of the questionnaire. For example, three English history teachers interviewed pointed out that they used pictorial sources and written sources most from the textbooks, while they criticised activities in the textbooks. ET2, for example, stated that

"The activities do not concern me, because I very very rarely set them. ... Some of them are appalling actually, some of them are fine if the pupil can access them, but the majority of our pupils cannot. They either are too easy, and they could get through them very quickly or they don't have the right structure to them, or they're simply too hard, they use vocabulary that is difficult for pupils to understand. The skills require too much understanding, too much reading and so on, so really they need bite-size chunks and that's why the sources of evidence are quite good (p. 8).

This teacher also pointed out that setting activities for the students was 'differentiation', and this was one of the main challenges for the teacher.
While he was explaining the reasons for using worksheets instead of textbooks, TT1 also pointed out that "Most textbooks have, frankly, poor assessment questions" (p.1). He added that he used

"On occasion the actual questions in the textbook, if the textbook has questions, seem appropriate and challenging. On other occasions, as the means of delving into historical knowledge by setting your own questions based on the text so that you set the questions, the pupils then have to read through the text, analyse the text to find answers. Source materials are useful, many of the books have lots of sources in and you can then set questions and tasks to differentiate sources, compare and contrast sources, say how useful, how reliable they are etc." (p.2).

ET3 also highlighted the same issues:

"Very often I would use the textbooks for individual sources, such as pictures, possibly written sources, because I teach quite low ability pupils so we’ll often concentrate on pictorial sources. ... I very very rarely use the questions in the textbooks, because I don’t like them, I find them a bit too rigid and they’re not very geared towards our pupils." (p.14).

Both questionnaire results and the comments in the interviews revealed that the English teachers tended to use the visual and historical sources in their textbooks most. On the contrary, they disliked using the activities set in the textbooks, preferring to prepare their own activities in conjunction with the information and historical sources in the textbooks.

What use do history teachers expect their pupils to make of a textbook?

This part of the questionnaire was designed to explore how Turkish and English Teachers expect their pupils to use a textbook. Some suggestions of ways pupils might use textbooks appropriately in developing their knowledge and understanding of history were offered to the respondents. Teachers were asked to answer by ticking as many of the possible factors listed that they found appropriate. The results are shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9. The results of the teachers expectations of their pupils making use of a textbook

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What use do you expect your pupils to make of a textbook?</th>
<th>Turkey (n = 74)</th>
<th>England (n = 61)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Response %</td>
<td>Response %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To read the text in detail</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To extract the necessary information from textbook</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>60.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To interpret pictorial sources</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To understand change and continuity</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To memorise the information presented</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To see relationships between historical events</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>95.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To appreciate different viewpoints</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To draw conclusions from viewpoints presented</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To gain insight into controversial issues</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of Table 5.9 confirmed that both Turkish and English history teachers tend to give priority to skills related to the cognitive development of pupils and to historical methodology. For example, “To draw conclusions from viewpoints presented” (Turkish 97.3%, English 86.7%) and “To appreciate different viewpoints” (Turkish 89%, English 85%). However, such skills as “To memorise the information presented” in the textbook (Turkish 0%, English 8.3%), and “To read the text in detail” (Turkish 28.8%, English 48.3%) were placed at the bottom of the list. It is especially worth noting that “To memorise the information presented” was not chosen by any Turkish respondents. This could be a reaction against the existence of the large amount of memorising required in the Turkish history teaching system.

Two of the written comments in this part of the questionnaire appeared to indicate that the Turkish teachers might have had in mind the ‘ideal’ textbook instead of the actual textbooks when they completed this part of the questionnaire. One of the teachers said “These are the uses that we expect pupils to make of the textbooks, but the existing history textbooks in Turkey do not provide such opportunities for pupils”. Another respondent also stated “A history textbook which incorporates the features listed above should be prepared so that I can say “yes” to the statements given”. In the view of these comments, it should be pointed out that the Turkish history teachers might have been thinking about their ‘ideal’ textbooks while they were responding to this part of the questionnaire.

2. The factors that determine whether teachers use textbooks or not in the classrooms

In this part of the analysis, the factors that determine whether teachers use textbooks in the Turkish and English classrooms will be investigated by analysing data obtained from questionnaires and interviews with teachers. In the questionnaire, a number of factors were offered to the teachers. They were then asked to tick as many of the possible factors listed as they found appropriate. The results can be seen in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10. The factors that affect textbook use in history classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The factors that affect textbook use</th>
<th>Turkey n = 74</th>
<th>England n = 61</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The fact that:</td>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks closely relate to the curriculum.</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>91.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The textbooks are of good quality.</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>93.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents expect me to use textbooks.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school approves of the textbook.</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is normal practice to use textbooks in lessons.</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The textbooks are well-suited to the age of the pupils.</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>90.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pupils can read the textbook easily.</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t have experience to produce other materials.</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It necessitates extra time to produce other materials.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are not better teaching materials for pupil level.</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 5.10 shows, the highest rated factors affecting textbook use in Turkey seem to be “Textbooks closely relate to the curriculum” (86.5%), “It is normal practice to use textbooks in lessons” (67.6%), “The pupils can read the textbook easily” (55.4%), “The textbooks are well-suited to the age of the pupils” (45.9%).

The English teachers, on the other hand, saw the most important factors as “The textbooks are of good quality” (93.4%), “Textbook closely relate to the curriculum” (91.8%), “The textbooks are well-suited to the age of the pupils” (90.2%) and “The pupils can read the textbook easily” (82%).

However, Table 5 also shows that there were some similarities between the highly-rated factors that both Turkish and English history teachers chose, though there are big differences in the percentages in choosing them. These are: “Textbook closely relate to the curriculum” (Turkish 86.5%, English, 91.8%), “The textbooks are well-suited to the age of the pupils” (Turkish 45.9%, English, 90.2%), “The pupils can read the textbook easily” (Turkish: 55.4%, English 82%). The only factor where the two groups do not agree relates to the statements “It is normal practice to use textbooks in lessons (Turkish: 67.6%) and “The textbooks are of good quality” (English: 93.4%). So, while English respondents focused mainly on four factors with a higher than 80% acceptance, Turkish respondents seems to have divergent views as to what factors affect textbook use in the classrooms.

These results suggest that the close relation between the history curriculum and textbooks makes the use of textbooks compulsory for Turkish history teachers since the curriculum must be followed without any omissions or additions. This factor seems to be the result of official regulations. Besides, the use of textbooks, not only in history lessons but also in all other lessons, is generally accepted as normal practice by all teachers, because they present a summary of what is to be taught, and also because there are few materials which cover the topics. The other factors are dependent on the main audience for school history, namely pupils. Since they are especially written for students, they are relatively well-suited to the age of the pupils, and they can be read more easily by the students. On the other hand, the response given to the proposition “the textbooks are of good quality” was a mere 10.8% and this would indicate that although teachers do not tend to agree on the quality of the textbooks, they are obliged to use them, because of regulations, tradition and the academic level of the pupils.

Unlike the Turkish teachers, the statement that “the textbooks are of good quality” was the most highly-rated item among the English teachers, with a percentage of 93.4. The results also indicated that the relationship between textbook and curriculum seemed to be a crucial
factor with the English teachers as well. Another similar result with Turkish data related to the academic level of the pupils, because 90.2% of the English respondents also tended to think that the textbooks were well-suited to the age of the pupils, and 82% of the sample were also inclined to think that the pupils could read the textbook easily. Thus, as a result, the only difference between the Turkish and English teachers was the part concerning the quality of the history textbooks. The Turkish history teachers seemed to think that the history textbooks they use were not of good quality, but it was normal practice to use them in the classrooms.

The factors that determine whether teachers use textbooks in the classrooms were also raised in the interview so that more detailed information could be elicited. The analysis of the interview data revealed that five different determinants were generally mentioned by the Turkish in this respect. The six Turkish teachers interviewed pointed out that the Ministry of Education approves the use of history textbooks in the classrooms. TT2 supported his view saying that:

"It is because of the fact that it is mandatory to use the textbooks approved by The Ministry of Education in agreement with the aims of National Education, we have to use the history textbooks sanctioned by them" (p.14).

Again, all the Turkish teachers seemed to agree that the use of history textbooks was essential for the students, since there was no other way of obtaining the basic historical information. TT4 made clear:

"I wish that pupils would willingly use and read different supplementary materials at home, and ask me questions, but this depends on the cultural level of families, and we have not reached that level. So, I think the textbook is a must" (p.34).

The third factor stemmed from the close relationship between the curriculum and the textbooks. As pointed out by TT7,

The textbook is based on the existing curriculum, and in order to successfully meet the requirements of the curriculum, teachers should follow the content of the textbook in their long-term planning and day-to-day use (p.66).

The fourth item mentioned by two history teachers was not anticipated. Some teachers appeared to think that some of their colleagues did not spend enough time and effort to find and use other supplementary materials. For example, TT8 blames some teachers by saying that

"It is because of lack of effort. I see the problem in this way. Teachers have an illness that I call 'textbook-dependency illness'. They limit themselves to the textbook" (p.75).

TT2 also claimed that

"I know that many teachers just read the textbook and go to the classroom; there is nothing else, but the textbook" (p.18).
Another point relates to parents' expectations, and TT6 enlarged upon this:

"It has been forbidden to ask questions based on other materials in the written examinations. It means that we have to ask questions from the content of the textbooks. In my previous school, the parents reacted against the use of other materials. I explained the subject to the pupils, they took notes, and I said that I was going to ask this in the examinations. Nevertheless, the parents reacted against me, and they asked "how could you ask questions in the examination about the subjects not in the textbook" (p.58).

The results of the analysis indicated that the majority of the responses of the Turkish teachers' in the questionnaire and interview overlapped with each other, except the one which indicated some teachers' textbook dependency and lack of effort in their teaching. Besides, the analysis also showed that when they were asked the question "what determines whether you use textbooks or not in the classroom", the Turkish teachers focused on 'external' factors which make textbook use almost compulsory for them. However, the English teachers interviewed laid more emphasise on 'internal' factors, such as the adequacy and quality of the components of the textbooks, and the relation between the level of the textbook and the intellectual ability of the pupils that they taught. ET1, for example, responded to the question by saying that

"I suppose, is there a textbook that has something in it that you think is of use in a particular lesson or class. If, when you look through textbooks, you don't find what they say or the way in which they say it isn't helpful, then you wouldn't use it, and you might use some other sources" (p. 2).

ET3 also commented on:

"the standard of the textbook, the materials, pictures, whether they suit what I want to teach in relation to the curriculum" (p.15).

In the following passage from interview, the teacher’s responses were probed in order to check the effects of these 'external' factors.

R: What determines whether you use textbooks or not in the classroom?
ET2: Their readability, accessibility. Whether or not they cover a topic in the ways I like. Yes, because sometimes I’ll start with a textbook and think, well this is rubbish I can tell them this in two minutes and then we can move on to the important part.
R: Is it compulsory for you to use a textbook, as far as the head of department’s or parents’ expectations are concerned?
ET2: No. I’m not expected to, I think it’s understood in our school that the pupils need a variety of different learning styles, because in that way everybody has a chance to access the lesson at some time within a month. ... There is no pressure on us to use textbooks at all actually, the head of department really gives us a free hand and he’s very happy for us to do whatever we want" (p.9).

In summary, there appears to be a difference in the impressions of the Turkish and English history teachers about the factors that affect their use of history textbooks in the classrooms.
3. Teachers' and textbook writers' ideas about the quality of textbooks

In the questionnaire, teachers' ideas on "The Quality of the Textbooks that They Use" were explored by offering them a number of stimulus statements. These statements presented some simple views about the qualities of certain aspects of history textbooks in Turkey and England, and the history teachers were asked to respond by ticking one box on a five-point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. However, in order to minimise confusion in entering data into the computer and make analysis easier as far as possible, each value on the five-point scale was arranged from a negative to a positive statement, which is from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' respectively. Thus, 'strongly disagree' scored 1, while 'strongly agree' scored 5. The results are given in Table 5.11 with the mean values and differences.

Table 5.11. The results of the investigation of the qualities of certain aspects of the Turkish and English history textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Quality of Turkish and English History Textbooks</th>
<th>Mean Turkish</th>
<th>Mean English</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The difficulty level of the explanations in the textbooks are suitable for student levels.</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>-1.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The print and general layout of textbooks are attractive.</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-1.94*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks contain numerous visual aids.</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>-2.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The written sources are satisfactory in the textbooks.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pictorial sources are satisfactory in the textbooks.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The content of the textbooks is up-to-date.</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>-1.92*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks offer different kinds of teaching activities for teachers.</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>-1.76*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks give pupils opportunities to develop creativity.</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>-1.34*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks give pupils opportunities to develop critical thinking.</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>-2.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History textbooks can be adopted to students of different ability.</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>-1.46*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The major historical concepts are well-emphasised in history textbooks</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>-1.45*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The controversial issues are well-presented in the textbooks.</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>-1.69*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The value judgements are presented without leading pupils.</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>-1.46*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different point of views are clearly presented in the history textbooks.</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>-2.09*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*) Significant differences (< 0.05) indicated by an asterisk
The results showed that "the difficulty level of the explanations" (mean 2.28), "the emphasise on the major historical concepts" (mean 2.15), "the attractiveness of print and layout" (2.04) and "the number of visual aids" (mean 1.98) were judged by the Turkish history teachers to be relatively more satisfactory than the other statements. However, the analysis showed that Turkish teachers regarded Turkish textbooks as unsatisfactory in "offering different kinds of teaching activities" (mean 1.63), "the presentation of controversial issues" (mean 1.68), "the presentation of different points of view" (mean 1.69) and "developing critical thinking" (mean 1.71).

The English history teachers also pointed out that "the number of visual aids" (mean 4.12), "satisfaction about pictorial sources" (mean 4.05), "attractiveness of print and layout" (mean 3.98), "up to date content of textbook" (mean 3.83) were the elements in English history textbooks that satisfied them. However, "developing creativity" (mean 3.07), "adaptation for different ability students" (mean 3.35), "the presentation of controversial issues" (mean 3.37) and "the presentation of different points of views" (mean 3.37) were the points on which English history teachers seemed to be less satisfied with.

In general, matters related to the appearance of the textbook, such as print and layout, and visual aids were rated as the high-quality components of Turkish and English history textbooks. However, the cognitive and methodological issues such as the critical thinking and presentation of controversial issues were seen to be relatively unsatisfactory parts of the Turkish and English history textbooks in comparison with the rest of the items presented in the questionnaire.

On the other hand, in general, the results indicated significantly higher level of disagreement among Turkish teachers as regards the statements related to the quality of history textbooks in the questionnaire. It is interesting to note that every statement produced a very high level of mean difference between the responses of Turkish and English teachers. Closer inspection of the responses of the English teachers, however, revealed that they generally tended to approve the quality of most the features of the English history textbooks.

In addition to the questionnaire, the issues related to the quality of textbooks were also raised in the interviews. Although many important aspects of the textbooks were included in the interview, due to time limitations, only a small number of questions could be asked. The components and functions asked in both teachers and textbook writers interview were:

- print and general layout of textbooks
- explanations in textbooks
- written sources in textbooks
- controversial issues treated in textbooks
- value judgements in textbooks
- different point of views presented in textbooks
• illustrative sources in textbooks
• suitability for critical thinking
• visual aids in textbooks

The results from the interview transcripts of Turkish teachers indicated that the ideas of Turkish teachers varied. Five Turkish history teachers, for example, stated that there had been some innovations in the print and layout of the textbooks, so the present ones were better than previous ones. However, three Turkish history teachers referred to the level of detail in the Turkish history textbooks, and characterised this as the main difficulty for students in understanding the text.

Another issue was the use of illustrations in the textbooks. Six Turkish teachers thought that they were not displayed very well. They complained about the lack of variety in the illustrations which were mainly portraits of Sultans. They also criticised the number and quality of the maps in the textbooks. It was also underlined that the textbooks, especially in Year 8, should have much more colourful and attractive illustrations.

The major dissatisfaction of the Turkish teachers, however, was related to the cognitive and methodological issues in the Turkish history textbooks, such as controversial issues (see Appendix 4 for the comments of the Turkish teachers on the way controversial issues are introduced) and critical thinking. All the Turkish history teachers stated that Turkish textbooks were deficient in presenting controversial issues or different points of view and opportunities for pupils' critical thinking. In addition, these teachers also intimated that the textbook writers took sides in their attitudes towards historical figures and interpretations of events. The teachers stressed that the viewpoints in the history textbooks are usually those of the state. For example TT2 (p.17) and TT6 (p.62) referred to the relationship between the state and the textbook writer, and insinuated that most textbook writers were in agreement with the national official policies imposed by the state. Moreover, TT5 alluded to the existence of sacred historical myths and taboos in the history textbooks and the difficult position of writers in obtaining approval for their textbook. TT5 also commented that:

"In Turkey, the state has a viewpoint about historical events. If the textbook writers interpret them in that way, they obtain approval. ..... I strongly believe that the books written by the writers who have opposite views cannot obtain approval from Talim ve Terbiye, the Textbook Examination Board. This is the problem in Turkey" (p.50).

Both Turkish and English textbook writers were also asked about the quality of the history textbooks that they wrote. The Turkish textbook writers thought that there had been an improvement in the print and page layout of the textbooks in recent years. However, while TTW1 thought that there was no difficulty in understanding the explanations in the textbooks (p.4), TTW2 also supported the view that the details in the Turkish history textbooks make them difficult for students to understand (p.23).
There was agreement between both Turkish history textbook writers about the lack of pictures in Turkish history textbooks. Both textbook writers explained that they wrote the text, but it was the publishers who allocated pictures from their collection. This also implied that illustrations were regarded as mere embellishments to break up the text. TTW2 pointed out that there were very few relevant illustrations for some periods of Turkish history, e.g. Turkish history before the Islamic period and the foundation period of the Ottoman Empire (p. 25).

As far as cognitive and methodological issues in the Turkish textbooks were concerned, both textbook writers stated that they did not think that Turkish history textbooks were satisfactory in the way they dealt with controversial issues, different points of view and critical thinking. Again both writers referred to the Textbook Examination Board, and the constraints imposed by the regulations. TTW1 referred to the fact that although Sultan Vahdettin was a controversial figure, he could not mention this in his textbook, since he knew that this topic would not be approved by the Textbook Examination Board. In the following interview extract he explained why the Textbook Examination Board would disapprove of the textbook:

“They would not approve it, because they are civil servants, and they don’t want to change the status quo. They think, at the moment, ideology A is in power, but what will happen if ideology B takes over power. What will happen to my job. As a result, they reject textbooks, and we have not enough freedom to discuss such issues” (p. 7).

TTW2 also specified that it was impossible to make unorthodox comments about historical events, if he tried this, he knew he would not receive approval for his textbook (p.26). These remarks made clear that historians who wanted to write a textbook accepted the implicit and explicit constraints and regulations of the Textbook Examination Board, and followed its requirements.

Turning now to the analysis of the ideas of the English teachers and textbook writers on the quality of the textbooks that they use, all the English teachers agreed with the high quality of printing of English history textbooks. For example, ET6 said:

“There’s a massive contrast between books which are now being printed, compared to books we used in the 70’s and 80’s” (p. 27).

However, two English teachers thought that the layout of some textbooks was too dense for the students to cope with. ET2 stated that:

“I teach quite low ability pupils and there’s often far too much text in the book, you need more pictures” (p. 9).

Three English teachers stressed that the explanations were not always suited to pupils’ understanding. ET1 stated that:

“This is one of the biggest problems. Too many of the textbooks do not hit the right level for many pupils. The explanations fall into two categories. Some of them tend to be so complicated that they
lose the pupils. Others, what they tend to do is to break history down into too many snippets of work with no link, no cohesion between them" (p.3).

Difficulties are also created by the written sources used in the English history textbooks. Although the teachers generally agreed that the written sources were usually good and often germane to the subject, students sometimes had difficulties in understanding “a different type of English” (ET4, p.18) or “old fashioned language” (ET2, p.10).

However, the majority of the English teachers were satisfied with the quality of the illustrative sources and visual aids used in the textbooks. The only concern was to have much more colourful illustrations and visual aids.

In relation to cognitive and methodological issues, controversial issues were generally seen to be handled in a satisfactory manner. For example, ET1 said:

“Books nowadays are generally good at that sort of thing. They are far more open and far less judgmental about them (p.3).”

However, ET6 also reported that pupils did not often understand the controversies around the issue, especially in Year 8 textbooks, and therefore, some of the impact was lost on them (p.30). ET2 also criticised the controversial issues presented in the textbooks, expecting to find much more original material dealing with them. She said:

“It’s not enough, I don’t think that there are enough. I think they tend to be on the things that historians find controversial, the classic things they find controversial” (p.12).

The most of the English history teachers in a general way agreed with the appropriateness of the values presented in the textbooks (see Appendix 5 for the comments of the English teachers on this topic). They proposed that more emphasis should be made on women in history, multi-cultural history, the Jews in medieval Britain and the different religious sects such as the Methodists and Baptists. In addition, some teachers also posited that it was impossible to be value-free, they thought that present day textbooks now included fewer value judgements. ET1 exemplifies this:

“... 20 or so years ago, textbooks were basically one value judgement after another. Books are much more open-ended now. The questions are open-ended, the information is more open-ended. The use of sources usually of a varied kind which contradicts and contrasts as an element of that” (p.4).

In addition, five English teachers maintained that the presentation of different points of view was quite satisfactory. For example, ET3 stated that “I think that’s generally covered” (p.16). ET4 also agreed:

“Yes, I think they try even for the groups who have more trouble in learning and understanding. There’s certainly more than one point of view” (p.19).
ET6 revealed the existence of various nations' points of view in the English history textbooks as well:

"Sometimes at GCSE you get different points of view. Key one is in national relations, from 1980 through to the present looking at the German, French, Russian points of view and that comes over quite well in textbooks" (p.30).

The English history teachers also appeared to be satisfied with the amount of critical thinking required of pupils, saying "they are moving towards trying to encourage thinking" (ET3, p.16), and "they don't stop critical thinking, [instead] they could be encouraging" (ET4, p.19). However, ET1 (p.4) and ET4 (p.19) also mentioned that, especially in Year 8 history classes, pupils had some difficulties with critical thinking, because of their maturity level. ET2 (p.11) and ET6 (p.30) also declared that the teacher was responsible for creating a critical thinking atmosphere rather than the textbooks.

As far as the English history textbook writers were concerned, they also seemed to agree that English history textbooks were generally satisfactory as regards print, layout, explanations and written and illustrative sources. However, they raised the question that the numerical charts and graphs can create some problems in the classrooms, due to the limited numeracy of the students (ETW2, p.19). In addition, ETW1 also complained that the length of the written sources should not always be about four lines, since students sometimes need up to 10 lines of written sources to grasp the main points in the sources. He also explained that sometimes the pictures should be bigger so that the students could grasp the details more easily from them (p.9).

Interestingly, the English history textbook writers emphasised the cognitive and methodological issues in English history textbooks which they thought were not satisfactory enough. For example, ETW2 suggested that:

"many textbooks do not give sufficient coverage of controversial issues. ... we are less successful on up to date controversial issues" (p.19).

ETW1 also pointed out that

"this is something to deal with more now, thanks to the National Curriculum. I think it is one of those areas that we're still struggling with a little bit. Certainly lower down secondary school the idea that you've got historians with different interpretations of events is really quite a complex issue for pupils to take on board" (p.9).

ETW1 also explained that

"... different points of view are relatively well done at A level, it's done a little bit at GCSE, because it's starting to become relevant to the exam, and it is now more done at Key Stage 3 than it was. Certainly from the point of view of different interpretations from the past" (p.10).
ETW2 also brought to notice the existence of a number of different viewpoints in the explanation of historical events and the limitations in the way they are presented in history textbooks.

"... there are as many points of view as there are individuals, but we can't get them all in, so you try and present those which would raise an interesting situation .... there are often limitations of space for the textbook writer, and that I think is unfortunate, but you can understand why a publisher will say you have only 96 pages to write the textbook and you would like 250 pages, but you haven't got it" (p.20).

As a result of this kind of technical limitation in writing the textbooks, ETW2 also indicated that

"I don't think the textbook can do everything and I think for looking at some controversial issues and critical thinking that is exactly where other media, other sources also need to be used as well".

ETW2 commented that history textbook writers tended to make value judgements by using colourful words, if they weren't careful. He clarified his policy of avoiding value judgements by saying that

"I'm looking to balance the evidence and at the end of the day coming to some kind of balanced judgements, rather than simply a value judgement" (p.20).

ETW1 gave an example stating:

"I think it may be quite difficult to see them. The obvious examples are so obvious such as when you're dealing with Nazi Germany or the Holocaust that the values would be liberal and you're trying to ensure that the pupils are horrified by what they are studying" (p.10).

He also indicated value judgements sometimes intervene because of the lack of knowledge in the area they were writing about (p.10).

In a word, both the Turkish teachers and textbook writers pointed out that the main problems regarding the cognitive and methodological points in the Turkish history textbooks came from the political influences on history textbooks and the explicit and implicit restraints imposed on history textbook writing. However, it seemed that many issues on the quality of the different components of history textbooks have been resolved in England in comparison with Turkish textbooks. Since there is not and will not be any ideal textbook, attempting to create better history textbooks will be an endless quest for history textbook writers.

4. The criteria applied in choosing textbook

Turkish and English history teachers were asked in interviews for their criteria in choosing textbooks. At the beginning of the term, in Turkey, all history teachers are required to meet and decide which history textbook will be recommended to students to buy. Considering
the analysis of the interview transcripts, the criteria that the Turkish teachers use in choosing history textbooks can be categorised as follows:

- appropriate presentation of the information;
- the author's value judgements;
- the parent's economic situation.

The Turkish history teachers mentioned that the **appropriate presentation of the information** was one of the most important criteria in selecting textbooks. They were especially concerned with the following aspects of the presentation of information:

- the avoidance of unnecessarily detailed information (7 Turkish teachers)
- the avoidance of factual errors (4 Turkish teachers)
- the number and print quality of the maps and pictures (3 Turkish teachers)
- the use of everyday language (3 Turkish teachers)
- the inclusion of test questions (2 Turkish teacher)
- item by item presentation of the effects and results of historical events (2 Turkish teacher).

Four Turkish history teachers also remarked that they tried to find a textbook which included the fewest expressions of **bias and value judgements**. In other word, these teachers had attempted to find the most suitable textbook in line with their values and viewpoints.

The **parents' economic situation** was also mentioned by three Turkish history teachers as a criterion in picking textbooks. In Turkey, parents have to buy all textbooks themselves, so selecting the same textbook year after year allows pupils to pass their books on to their brothers/sisters or relatives/friends. This was especially important if the school was situated in an economically poor area.

An analysis of the English interviews also revealed that the appropriateness of the presentation of information, the cost of the textbooks and a consideration of the needs of different ability groups were important criteria in choosing textbooks.

All the English teachers identified different issues related to the delivery of information in textbooks. These are listed below, together with the number of teachers who accentuated that point:

- the layout and design of the information presented (4 English teachers);
- the ease of reading the text (3 English teachers);
- the balance in the presentation of text, sources and activities (3 English teachers);
- the suitability of information to the course requirements (2 English teachers);
- the appropriateness of the illustrations (2 English teachers);
- the accurate information (1 English teacher).
The needs of the different ability groups in the school were also regarded by 2 English teachers as an important criteria. They intimated that they had to take into account whether a textbook could be used by several ability groups.

Two English history teachers explained that cost was one of the most important factors in choosing and buying history textbooks for their departments. They stressed that they had a limited budget and wished to buy a variety of history textbooks. However, 2 history teachers expressed the contrary view that the cost of the textbooks is not significant in choosing textbooks, because they had enough money to buy a variety of textbooks. Thus, the budget of the schools determines how far the cost of the textbook is a criterion in choosing textbooks.

A comparison of the criteria applied in selecting textbooks in both countries revealed that there are some similar and some contrasting viewpoints. For example, the avoidance of unnecessarily detailed information, the existence of test questions, item by item presentation of the effects and results of historical events were emphasised by Turkish teachers and seemed to link closely to the Turkish history teaching rationale. Layout and design of the information presented, balance in the presentation of text, variety and quality of sources and activities were addressed by English teachers as the key criteria. Issues related to readability, illustrations, the absence of factual errors seemed to be similar concerns for both Turkish and English teachers.

Although, the cost of the textbooks seems to be a criterion for some of the teachers in both countries, this was for different reasons. The Turkish teachers considered the parents' economic situation, but English teachers had to think about the money allocated for buying textbooks in school.

The basic differences in the criteria for choosing textbooks seemed to be the consideration of the writers' value judgements for Turkish teachers, and the needs of the different ability groups in schools for English teachers.

5. Teacher's ideas about existing Turkish/English history textbooks

In this part of the interview Turkish teachers were shown some English history textbooks, with a short summary of the rationale of using written and illustrative sources associated with the activities. The same procedure were repeated with the English history teachers with some explanation of the content of the Turkish textbook. Each group of teachers was asked for their ideas and impressions of the textbooks.

It should be noted that all the Turkish teachers interviewed found the English textbooks and the rationale of history teaching presented in them to be very interesting. Some of the Turkish teachers realised that the English textbooks would be compatible with their concept of an 'ideal textbook'. For example, TT3 described that
“they seem to be ideal history textbooks since they present a variety of viewpoints in them” (p.31).

TT8 also added:

“After seeing the components of the English history textbooks and the rationale behind them, I feel that I can criticise Turkish history textbooks better” (p. 80).

In the following interview extract, TT7 spelt out her ideas about English textbooks, stipulating some specific problems in Turkey;

“I should say that I like the English history textbooks that you have shown to me, it seems that they fit the textbook concept that I always think about. Illustrations, activities, the involvement of pupils and creativity, these are the things that I would like to see. Textbooks help students to think about historical events, but to what extent could they be used in Turkey, because we are afraid of thinking and talking about some events in public. Unfortunately, there is a relationship between politics and history. In order not to commit any offence, I don’t become involved in many discussions with my students. Why don’t I discuss issues with them? They might specify the names of politicians. Because of this, I have to tell them to refer to the politicians as ‘person A’ or ‘person B’ in order not to put forward any propaganda in the classroom. It means that we can’t explicitly state what we want to say” (p.70).

The majority of the Turkish history teachers also mentioned that these kinds of textbooks would help students to think and comment about historical events, instead of memorising them. TT2 stated that:

“This kind of history textbook would provide opportunities for students to become involved in the process of interpreting historical events, evaluating the different viewpoints, developing their creativity by using primary sources, secondary sources, illustrative sources. Pupils would learn the meaning of free thinking, the existence of different viewpoints, and they would also recognise in the high school that they can produce new ideas and comment on historical events” (p.21).

They frequently mentioned the illustrations in the English textbooks. Both TT6 (p.64) and TT4 (p.54) said that although they did not understand English, they could explain the subject to their students by using the illustrations, since the pictures, cartoons and poster were directly related to the subject and showed many things about the historical events.

Although the Turkish teachers agreed that the English textbooks were very different from the Turkish ones, some of them were pessimistic about whether the Turkish teachers would ever have such textbooks. TT4 remarked:

“Turkish textbook writers should borrow the rationale from the English textbooks as an example of how to produce such history textbooks, and again I hope that introducing such textbooks will not take 30-40 years, because of the bureaucracy” (p.41).

However, TT2 was more pessimistic than TT4. Referring to the general level of democracy in Turkey, he stressed that:

“Since Turkey has not completed its Reformation, Renaissance and Enlightenment period, producing such textbooks by using a similar rationale as that in the English history textbooks would take a century” (p.21).

1 History teachers are strictly reminded by the headteacher not to discuss politics and the other issues related to politics in their lessons.
He also explained that:

"Producing new textbooks and curricula depends on the eradication of ideological interference with history education, and constructing in it a suitable methodology of the subject" (p.21).

At the end of the interview, the Turkish textbook writers were also shown the English history textbooks with a brief explanation of the rationale behind them. The use of written and illustrative sources to involve students in the evaluation and interpretation processes of history were regarded by the Turkish textbook writers as very interesting. TTW2 clearly hinted that

"we identify historical figures as either heroes or traitors in a sentence, and we don’t give students opportunities to think about it. ... Making students active is one of the theoretical aims of history teaching in Turkey, but what students do is to repeat the information in the textbook" (p. 34).

TTW1 also pointed out that

"Critical thinking and self-confidence would be developed in the students if we wrote textbooks in the same way. Even a cartoon explains a lot about historical periods and events. In addition, reformist and innovative people are necessary to approve this kind of textbooks and this would necessitate very radical changes in the existing Turkish history curriculum" (p.17).

TTW2 also accentuated the fact that the University Examination system also controlled and directed the writing, teaching and learning of history at school level. Since students wanted to obtain a place at a University, and the questions in the examinations were derived from details of textbook knowledge, students might not take into account different points of view, controversial issues or critical thinking. These might be assumed by students as a "luxury", as far as the requirements of the university entrance examinations were concerned. Thus, he concluded that unless the university entrance examinations were reorganised, it was difficult to avoid the present characteristics of history textbooks and to implement the enquiry-based approach in the Turkish history textbooks (p.34).

As far as the ideas of the English history teachers on Turkish textbooks were concerned, four English history teachers out of six pointed out the similarities between the existing Turkish history textbooks on the one hand, and the English history textbooks published in the 1960’s. It should be noted that ET1 and ET6 made more detailed comments on textbooks, since they had first-hand experience of history textbooks in the 1960’s and early 1970’s either as teachers or students. The following quotation represented one of them. ET1 observed that:

"My first impression is, when I look at this, it looks like a 1960’s English history textbook. In fact anything from the 50’s, 40’s, 30’s backwards. I was in school in the 50’s and 60’s and these are the sorts of books that we used. My first impression of course is it’s enormously text-driven. The bulk of it is text. The educational establishment in Britain now would probably regard books like this as far as too wordy which may say something about reading standards or the desire of English pupils to read nowadays perhaps compared to their Turkish counterparts" (p. 5-6).
As an experienced teacher who knew the general framework of teaching in England in the 1960's, ET6 also pointed out that

"Again, with not understanding the words, it seems to me to just tell stories, this is what happened. ... You've got to have this idea of national biases. I think you've got to have a climate of openness to develop a more objective book (p.32)".

The radical answers to the question "How would you use Turkish history textbooks in your teaching?" came from relatively less-experienced teachers. The following described the response of ET3 to this question:

"The honest answer is I wouldn't use them. My first impressions are that they're pretty appalling, they are not at all geared to low ability pupils" (p.16-17).

In the subsequent excerpt, ET2 referred to the possible function of Turkish history textbooks, saying that

"It would appear to me that it's basically about comprehension of the text (p. 13)".

ET6 also noted the same issue:

"pupils' understanding and knowledge is not just to do with what they can recall. ... I think it's an important skill to be able to recall, but it's not the only thing" (p.21).

English history textbook writers also examined some Turkish history textbooks. ETW2 stated that

"... a first impression would be that they would tend to be very content-oriented. They are giving the content, rather than the skills, I can not see the skills coming through. ... It is very apparent that pictures are decorative only because here you have a picture of Peter the Great and it's not really telling me anything about him" (p.20).

However, ETW2 found "very useful" to have a bibliography at the end of the textbooks, like in the Turkish textbooks, though the majority of books used in writing the textbook consist of the books written in the 1940's and 1950's (p. 21). ETW1 also indicated that

"the first impression is that they don't look very exciting. ... I've probably got textbooks on the shelf there that look quite similar to this from 20-30 years ago" (p.11)

An analysis of the interviews of both teachers and textbook writers reveals that Turkey and England had very different democratic, cultural, social and economic experiences and traditions. As a result of these differences, there were limitations in Turkey in expressing certain points of view both in textbooks and classrooms. It seemed that ideological influences, taboos, and approved orthodox explanations of historical events restricted the content and presentation of history and history teaching in Turkey. However, in England, it seems that some agreement has been reached about the aims, rationale and content of history teaching, as a result of the structural transformation made between the 1960's and 1990's. In general, all the
teachers and textbook writers interviewed believed that skills as well as information should provide the basis for history teaching.

6. The approval systems of history textbooks in Turkey and England

In Turkey, textbook writers have to follow the very detailed official guidelines for textbook production, and then receive the authorisation of the Ministry of National Education. So, the Turkish textbook writers were asked questions about this relationship with the Textbook Examination Board.

It was interesting to note that both the Turkish history textbook writers agreed that they could not express their ideas freely in their textbooks. Both specified that the present regulations limited their decision-making and creativity. In the ensuing interview extract TTWI stated that

“In the textbooks that I have written, I have to take the orders of the Ministry of Education into account. I could not reflect my own analyses of research, including background information and views on history textbooks. In a sense, I am not free enough, since the Ministry has organised how many pages will be written and how the historical events will be explained. In other words, I cannot exercise the necessary flexibility in preparing a textbook. For example, there are some historical events that need to be written in three pages, but the Ministry allocates just half a page in its regulations and you have to obey. Again, if you evaluate and interpret something differently, your textbook is likely to be rejected. You cannot disobey what the Ministry of Education says, and what they want to be included in history textbooks. Thus, we are writing textbooks in order to put our names on the cover” (p.2).

TTW2 also argued that the Textbook Examination Board regulates every detail. As a result of this intervention, all history textbooks look similar. He also stressed that the flexibility in presenting different viewpoints and evaluation of historical events and figures would help textbook writers to produce better textbooks. However, there was an orthodox model for explaining history, so it was impossible to make an additional or contrary comment (p.19).

The interview with the English history textbook writers revealed that there were no official guidelines regulating textbook writing, and no official body from which to seek approval for the acceptance of textbooks. This means that England implements a very liberal policy with regard to this matter, and everything works in terms of free-market rules. In the following extract ETW1 stated that:

“You need, for a textbook to sell, you’ve got to be able to show the teacher that the book meets the requirements of the National Curriculum or of an examination syllabus. Other than that, that’s really the responsibility of the author and the publisher, you don’t have to show it to anybody to get approval” (p.2).

ETW2 also underlined the needs of the market, saying:

“I think that increasingly the publisher is very familiar with the demands of the course. They know what is going to be asked of the pupil, what is going to be required by the National
Curriculum, and they will expect increasingly their writers to produce for that particular market” (p.14).

In sum, Turkish textbook writers indicated that they had to consider standard historical explanations in order to get approval. They also emphasised that they were not free to write about controversial issues. However, there is no approval mechanism in England, apart from teacher and school judgements.

The Analysis of the Observation carried out in Turkish History Classrooms

Observation helped to elicit data on the use of textbooks in Turkish history classrooms. In addition, data was obtained on the role of the textbooks in effecting the main characteristics of the teaching methods. In order to analyse these aspects, the observation schedules were carefully examined. The key activities and turning points in the course of the lesson and their durations were noted, categorised and times calculated. The major components of the lessons in the Turkish classrooms given by teachers are shown in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12. The frequency, time-range and average time allocated to the major components of history lessons in the Turkish classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The structure of the lessons in the Turkish classrooms</th>
<th>Number of cases</th>
<th>Time range (minutes)</th>
<th>Average (minutes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General organisation</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recapping the previous lesson</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2-11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Question and Answer' strategy</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16-36</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher exposition</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23-32</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student oral summary of the topic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3-9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student reading the textbook</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictating notes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition of the information by asking questions</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving homework to students</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 5.12, a typical lesson began with administration, the registration of students, or disclosing the results of written examinations, taking an average of four minutes. Then, in some cases, the teacher asked questions to remind the students of the previous lesson, and made connections with the subject under consideration. After this, the teacher either asked the students a great number of questions or gave long expositions to clarify the historical events being studied.

An analysis of the schedules showed that teachers in Turkey largely preferred the method called as 'Question and Answer'. The “Question-Answer Method” would seem to be the most popular and respectable way of teaching history in Turkey. The most important feature of this method was that the teacher followed the order of the paragraphs written in the textbook. Changing paragraphs into question forms, the teacher asked questions. The students then
answered the questions. During the process of answering the questions, students looked frequently at the textbook in front of them. Later, the teacher gave extra information by adding some more details from his/her knowledge of the subject matter. At the end of the explanation, the teacher asked for the students further questions. The lesson continued in this way. An illustrative summary is given below in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1. An illustrative summary of the “Question-Answer method”

General organisation and recording

Recalling the previous lesson

4. Teacher asks another question

1. Teacher asks a question

3. Teacher gives extra information

2. Students answer the question

Either dictating notes or asking students to summarise the lesson verbally

Giving homework and finishing

Textbook dependence and student repetition of the information written in the textbook were the general features of this teaching method. It was commonly acknowledged by the teachers that this was the most active method, and helped the students to take part in the lesson. In the last decade, the ‘Question and Answer method’ has been consciously used by teachers to avoid long explanations and lectures.

It was observed that students were relatively active and willing to answer the questions. However, it would appear that there was no opportunity to ask for student-initiated questions, independent thought or analysis, questioning or commenting on the information in the textbook. It seemed that the main goal of the instruction was to regurgitate what was written in the textbook.

Another commonly used teaching method was the lesson based on the teacher lecture and exposition. In this method, although the teachers asked some questions about the subject under consideration, a considerable amount of time, however, was devoted by them to explaining and giving information about the theme of the lesson. Teachers assumed the responsibility for the flow of the lesson, explaining the results and outcomes of the historical
events. At the end of the lesson, the teachers required the students either to summarise what they had talked about or took some notes dictated by him/her. During both 'the question and answer' and lecture sessions, the teacher sometimes stressed historical concepts, for instance, asking the students what was meant by 'mandate', 'colonisation', 'reformation' and so on. After receiving the responses, the teacher either explained the concepts or dictated a definition of them.

Outside the main structure of teaching history in the Turkish classroom, some differences in teaching was also observed. Another fairly frequent activity was the student explanation of the topic which was observed six times in the Turkish classrooms. The teacher would ask students about the work they had done for the homework. Some of the students would explain it to the rest of the class. While they explained the topic, they tended to look at the textbook several times in order to remember the flow of historical events. In the case of absence of a volunteer student to explain the topic verbally, the teacher asked one of the students to read the topic in the textbook to the class.

Towards the end of the lesson two options appeared. Some Turkish teachers dictated notes to the students. Usually the students were required to note the reasons and effects of some historical event, the definition of some concept or possible questions which might occur in the written examination that students were going to take one or two weeks later. Others asked students to repeat verbally what they had learnt. When this option was chosen, students targeted by teacher to summarise the lesson were generally the ones who had not been involved in answering questions earlier. In the example lessons presented below, a variation on the use of these teaching and learning activities can be seen.

An example of a Turkish Lesson in Year 8

The teacher began the lesson by organising the classroom and calling the register. Then, she focused on the previous lesson, which related to the Amasya Negotiations, asking some questions about the importance of these negotiations. The students replied to the questions, and the teacher added more information to what the students had said.

After a two minute explanation of the new topic 'the National Pact of 1920' (an important historical event in the process of Turkish Independence), the teacher asked a number of questions about the new topic. It was observed that the students tended to look at the textbook now and again to answer these questions. After giving extra information, the teacher wrote the dates of the meeting of the National Assembly and the Declaration of the National Pact.
In the eighteenth minutes of the lesson, she asked students to relate the Articles of the Declaration and each student explained an article. Subsequently, the teacher asked a student to recite all the Articles of the Declaration. Glancing at the textbook three or four times, the student repeated the articles of the Declaration. The teacher, then, gave a detailed explanation, and asked “What was the reaction of the Allies (in the First World War) to the Declaration. Such questions were answered using the information from the textbook. After thirty minutes, the topic was completed.

The teacher then asked the pupils to close their history textbooks, and asked the same questions to students who had not taken part in answering the questions during the previous thirty minutes. Two students could not answer. The teacher said that they were dreaming during the lesson and not listening to what was being said. Other students raised their hands and the teacher asked them to explain the whole topic once more. They did so, giving the whole story, with the dates and articles of the Declarations. The teacher then turned to the students who had not been participating and asked them to give an explanation. Again they could not explain the topic. The teacher asked a student to repeat the topic for the last time. This student explained it very well.

The teacher bitterly criticised the students saying “You should not memorise history. You should repeat the topics at home so as not to forget them”. She reminded them of the forthcoming written examination. She gave another topic to be read for homework, and the lesson ended.

**An example of a Turkish Lesson in Year 10**

After spending three minutes in the general organisation of the classroom, the teacher began the lesson by asking what the students knew about the Seljuks. Two or three students answered by giving some general factual information about them. The teacher then explained the role of the Seljuks in Turkish history by way of a fourteen minutes talk. Later, she asked the students the date of the Dandanakan Battle between the Seljuks and Gazneliler (another Turkish state). After receiving a satisfactory answer, she talked about the outcome of the battle of Dandanakan, and the importance of the battle of Pasinler in Turkish history for another ten minutes. Then, she asked the students a question about the Abbasid-Seljuks, and imparting some extra information for seven minutes. The lesson then ended.

An analysis of the observation schedule showed the apportioning of time during the lesson:

- three minutes for classroom organisation;
- thirty one minutes for the teacher’s lecture;
• six minutes for student participation in answering the questions asked by the teacher.

It is evident from this sample lesson, in the Turkish classrooms, the main focus of the teaching and learning is not to question historical knowledge, but to simply learn and repeat the information. Since grades play a dominant role in the Turkish education system, the main task of the student is to learn the knowledge presented both in the textbook and classroom.

In the classrooms observed in Turkey, the history teachers relied heavily on the content of the textbook in their teaching. Not surprisingly, their planning of the lesson relied largely on the content of the textbook. Some of the teachers, especially in Year 8 classes assumed that the textbook offered all the necessary materials and that their role consisted of sticking to the textbook content.

In the Turkish classes observed, the dominant culture was that children are not challenged to develop their own understanding, instead, they reiterate what is written in the textbook. Since the learning environment is not conducive to a purposeful and enjoyable learning experience for the pupils, classrooms seem to be sometimes seen as dull places.

However it is worth reporting that during the observation, two of the history teachers made use of empathy activity in the classrooms. They reported that they had learnt the use of empathy in history teaching at a conference in which they took part as observers. This may be seen as an indication of their readiness and openness to learn new teaching methods and to use them in their teaching. It is expected that when research into history teaching is broadened in Turkey, and new methods and approaches are offered to teachers, they will readily take the opportunity to make their lessons more interesting and lively.

The Analysis of the Observation conducted in English History Classrooms

The same procedure was also adopted in analysing the structure of the English history lessons. The components of the lesson and main teaching activities used in the English classrooms by the teachers are shown in Table 5.13.
Table 5.13. The main teaching activities used in English classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The activities in the English history classrooms</th>
<th>The number of cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Organisation</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher exposition + Question and Answer</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note Taking</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Playing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing historical figures</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video watching</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Textbook-based activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading textbook to get information</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source examination</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding the reasons for historical events</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding similarities and differences</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The evaluation of different viewpoints</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting the illustrations</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporting historical events</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Searching change and continuity</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working on timeline</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy study</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Interpretation of Graphs and Tables</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicates that a variety of teaching and learning approaches were used in the English classrooms. The 'General Organisation' of the class refers to matters such as the registration of students, maintaining discipline before beginning the lesson, checking homework given in the previous lesson, introducing the topic, and distributing textbooks, worksheets and so on.

In many cases, the teacher began by introducing the general framework of the lesson and connecting it to the previous lesson to highlight the continuity between lessons. Some students were asked questions and given explanations by the teacher as part of this process. The teacher, then, began by giving important background information to the pupils to set the scene for the events to be studied.

Apart from offering explanations, the most important feature of this part of the lesson was that the teachers tried to involve the students by asking questions related to the topic or concept introduced. In other words, this process was not entirely teacher-centered, but also activated students' participation in the construction of background information. It is worth noting that when teachers developed background understanding of the historical events, they generally tried to make connections between the past and present. For example, one teacher asked if there is freedom of speech in England when discussing "censorship in Nazi Germany". It was clearly important to the teacher to relate the students' experience to the topic about to be studied, and this helped the students answer questions and understand the issue.
In all the lessons observed in the English history classes, a considerable portion of the time was allocated to the activities which allowed pupils to take part in the evaluation and interpretation of historical events and sources. Such activities related to the learning outcomes and the skills required by the National Curriculum.

It should be emphasised that while the students were dealing with the activity, the teachers always walked around the classroom to help them, answering questions and attending to difficulties, giving information, clues and suggestions. In the final minutes of the lesson, the teacher generally gave a short summary of the lesson, and it is at this point that homework was set.

A closer examination of the observation schedules revealed a teaching pattern showing a general structure of the English history lessons. In most cases, the average lesson was structured as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Organisation</th>
<th>Background Information</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Finishing and Homework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In order to work out the time allocated to each of these, the observation schedules were carefully examined, and the turning points in the lesson flow were calculated. The results are indicated in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14. Time duration of each stage of a lesson in the English classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The stages of a lesson</th>
<th>Time range (minutes)</th>
<th>Average (minutes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Organisation</td>
<td>3-8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background Information</td>
<td>3-34</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>6-57</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finishing and Homework</td>
<td>2-8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that background information and classroom activities took up the greater part of the classroom time. The average time for completing these stages of teaching and learning was 16 and 30 minutes respectively.

**An example of an English Lesson in Year 8**

In a lesson in Year 8, the topic was "Was Cromwell a Dictator?". The teacher began the lesson by writing the names of Saddam Hussain, Adolf Hitler, Joseph Stalin and Fidel Castro on the blackboard in order to discover the general profile of a 'dictator'. After a discussion involving the students led by the teacher, it was decided that the general features of a dictator were:
After this, the teacher asked the students to identify differences between the countries ruled by a dictator and those with democratically elected governments. The teacher then asked the pupils to copy out the general characteristics of a dictator into their notebooks.

Before proceeding to a new activity, the teacher also asked the pupils to draw a vertical line on a page of their notebooks, and to write the heading “Cromwell: Dictator” and “Cromwell: Not Dictator”. The teacher, then, gave instructions about the activity to be completed. The class watched a video and, using the evidence presented in video and the nature of a dictator discussed at the beginning of the lesson, they decided whether Cromwell was a Dictator or not. It should be noted that during the playing of the video, the teacher stopped it many times, and discussed the relevant themes. Some of the evidence was controversial and the commentator said that “it is difficult to find out the reality in the light of the evidence available”. The teacher underlined this idea, giving some extra explanation about the importance of available evidence.

An example of an English Lesson in Year 10

In a lesson in Year 10, the subject was “Was Nazi Germany a Totalitarian State?”. After the general organisation of the class which took five minutes, the teacher began to explain the background information by writing the title on the blackboard, and added that in order to clarify this ‘Key Question”. The following issues would be examined.

- Political Life
- Media
- Education
- Workers’ Rights
- Leisure

The focus of the lesson observed was ‘Political Life’ and ‘Media’. Later, the teacher gave some background information about “How did the Nazis maintain CONTROL of the state?”, “How did the Nazis succeed in spreading their ideas”. To develop these questions further, the teacher talked about “Censorship” by asking the students questions, “Is there freedom of speech in England?”, and “Do you think that the Nazis let the people know about concentration camps?”. The introduction to the topic lasted seventeen minutes. The background
knowledge was based on the teacher's talk and the discussion of issues raised by the teacher. Pupils were involved in the topic.

Then, a worksheet entitled "Propaganda and Censorship in Nazi Germany (1933-1939)" was distributed to pupils. The worksheet was directly related to the textbook, and pupils were to read the background information and examine and evaluate the sources in the textbook. The students were given instructions and began to work on the worksheet and history textbooks. The worksheet questions required a careful examination and evaluation of the background information and sources in the textbook. The tasks were related to concept formation. The pupils were asked to extract relevant information from the text, to evaluate illustrative sources, to offer reasons for the events and to express their own ideas about them.

During the completion of the tasks, the teacher highlighted some other details relating to the events, and gave extra help to those students who had difficulties with the assignment. The pupils worked for about around 30 minutes on them. In the last part of the lesson, the teacher summarised some of the issues raised by the questions, then the lesson finished.

Consistent with the general approach of history teaching in England, the classrooms observed generally provided an environment geared towards inquiry. The teachers often used open-ended questioning techniques that require the students to reflect and evaluate the background information and sources presented. The classroom activities challenged the student to analyze, evaluate and interpret information provided by the teacher, teaching materials, textbook, worksheet, or video. The teachers also justified and showed alternative ways of thinking about or supporting their assertions. Thus, as far as the lessons observed are concerned, it seems that the history teacher in England has a responsibility to create a learning environment, and to plan and supervise the student experiences based on the methodology of the discipline. Through careful supervision and constructive feedback, the students are likely to come to understand and gain insight into the nature of judging and weighing up an historical issue in line with the requirements of the subject. This means that teachers must have an understanding of how students develop and learn history, and how the teaching of history at school level is practiced in the classroom.

A Comparison of the Turkish and English History Classrooms

In the light of the analysis of the observation data, a comparison will be carried out in order to identify the similarities and differences in Turkish and English educational settings. The research carried out by Newman (Newmann, 1990a, 1990b) about the efficiency of history and social studies classrooms offers a number of criteria. He suggests "Higher order thinking" and "classroom thoughtfulness" to define the effectiveness of history classrooms, bearing in
mind the function and nature of the methodology of history. Newmann points out that challenging students' thinking is at the heart of the classroom thoughtfulness, because "lower order thinking demands only routine, mechanistic application of previously acquired knowledge". An example of this is repetitive exercises such as listing information previously memorised. However, "higher order thinking challenges the student to interpret, analyse, or manipulate information, because a question to be answered or a problem to be solved can not be resolved through the routine application of previously learned knowledge" (Newman, 1990a). He also proposed indicators to judge if a lesson includes higher order thinking or classroom thoughtfulness.

Below, a short comparison will be made about the general features of the Turkish and English history classrooms. This will be carried out on the basis of the criteria suggested and used by Newman in his research (Newman, 1990a, 1990b, 1991). Newman's criteria are composed of the general atmosphere in classroom, teacher behaviour and student behaviour.

General atmosphere of Turkish and English history classrooms

1. There should be sustained examination of a few topics rather than superficial examination of many: Successful teaching includes informing students about the subject and giving them opportunities to develop their skills in line with the methodology of the discipline. In order to fulfil the requirements of promoting students' skills related to the topic, some higher order challenges should be offered which require in-depth study and careful examination and implementation of the nature of discipline over a limited number of topics and questions. However, since the Turkish curriculum is the accumulation of information on mainly Turkish history and teachers are expected to cover a particular part of the curriculum during the term, teachers have to organise their teaching sequence in a way that two, sometimes three or more topics (especially towards the end of educational term) need to be taught within the space of two lessons (80 minutes). This atmosphere reduces the possibility of creating challenging activities and investigations.

In English classrooms, however, a limited number of topics or inquiries were dealt with, allowing pupils to address different viewpoints, inconsistencies, bias and to understand the importance of historical evidence. In other words, fewer topics seem to give more opportunity to work in depth.

2. Student should be given an appropriate time to think, that is, to prepare responses to questions: As emphasised by Newmann (1990a), thinking takes time. However in Turkish classrooms, children did not have time to think. The questions asked were mainly the textbook information turned into a question, and as soon as student found and read the related paragraph
from textbook, they raised their hands and answer the questions. Thus the time was needed only to find and read the related part of the text, not to think.

As discussed earlier, English teachers allocated 30 minutes average time for the activities in each lesson in order to give students the opportunities to promote their skills and understanding in the field of history. This means that almost half of the time of the lesson is allocated for student study and thought.

Teacher behaviour in Turkish and English classrooms

1. The teacher asks challenging questions and/or structures challenging tasks: In the Turkish classrooms observed, students were rarely faced with questions or tasks that demanded analysis, interpretation and evaluation of information. Textbooks also did not help the teacher to provide students with an active involvement in the learning processes. In England, however, teachers appeared to set a variety of challenging tasks and questions in order to involve students in the evaluation process of historical events and sources.

2. The teacher carefully considers explanations and reasons for conclusions: In Turkish classrooms teachers sought the correct answer. Thus, the teacher is an authoritative figure who states what is right or wrong. In English history classrooms, the teacher is in charge of organising and coordinating the teaching sequences, working together with the students supporting them in their thinking.

3. The teacher wants students to justify their assertions with the evidence: There is no use of historical evidence in Turkish history classrooms. The textbook's explanation of history is uncontested. If the different viewpoints of historians and controversial issues in history are avoided, it is likely that the prevailing activity in the history classrooms will be the regurgitation of historical facts and retelling the story of events by the students. It is apparent that to repeat knowledge presented in textbooks does not require students to back up their assertions with evidence.

   In England, the use and evaluation of historical evidence is at the centre of teaching in history. The use of historical sources in classrooms help students to ask questions and make evaluations. They consider the validity of evidence available and back up their assertions by using relevant evidence. To put it in other way, the use of historical evidence in history classrooms creates more opportunities for student participation.

4. The teacher encourages students to generate original and unconventional ideas, explanations, or solutions to problems: As described earlier, except in a few cases, student repetition of the information in the textbook satisfied most teachers in the Turkish classrooms observed. However, the structured activities in English classrooms demanded the generation of
original ideas, explanations or solutions. Moreover, teachers often required students to go beyond the text and the sources presented in textbook or worksheet.

5. The teacher shows an awareness that not all assertions emanating from authoritative sources are absolute or certain: Both history teachers and history textbooks used in Turkish classrooms strengthen the idea that the historical information is absolute. The historical knowledge presented can not be doubted or questioned. Thus, the teacher and textbook are the authoritative figures that relate history. Where some responsibility for learning is shared, the main duty of students is to receive and repeat the information in the textbook with the confirmation of teacher. This kind of learning atmosphere teaches pupils not to question but to obey the authoritative figures.

On the contrary, in England, one of the focus points of the activities was to discuss two different historians’ ideas, and decide which one’s account is most acceptable. This kind of activity is likely to produce the notion that everything can be questioned in history. In this learning atmosphere, history aims to assist students to formulate their own values and ideas.

6. The teacher is a model of thoughtfulness: The analysis so far indicates that history teachers in Turkey tend to give much attention to conveying knowledge of their subject rather than thoughtfulness. In many English classrooms, it was observed that English teachers provide a model to assist students to analyse, interpret historical issues by using sources available, considering their reliability. Thus, the teacher seems to orchestrate and coordinate students learning and investigation by providing an example in constructing and examining historical knowledge.

Students behaviour in Turkish and English classrooms

1. Students offer explanations and reasons for their conclusions: In Turkish classrooms, students are usually required to repeat the information in the textbook. Neither textbook nor teacher presented opportunities for pupils to take part in the evaluation of historical issues. However, the activities in most of the English classrooms requires student involvement in the evaluation process as they must give reasons for their conclusions derived from interpretation of the sources.

2. Students generate original and unconventional ideas, explanations, hypothesis or solutions to problems: In many cases in Turkey, it was observed that students did not have any opportunity to express original and unconventional ideas or explanations, since they were not offered any such activity to stimulate their thoughtfulness. Students, then, generally had to learn and repeat the orthodox and expected interpretation of history approved by government and offered by the textbook writer and history teacher. In England, in line with the demands of the enquiry based
history teaching method, most of the activities necessitate going beyond what is written in the textbook and sources, requiring students to express their own ideas, perceptions and interpretations about the historical issue under consideration.

3. **Students assume the role of questioner and critic**: The classroom atmosphere defined so far indicates that students do not assume the role of questioner or critic in Turkey. They are the passive receivers of authority-approved information. However, as emphasised before, enquiry is at the heart of the history teaching in England. This can only be fulfilled in an atmosphere in which students assume the roles of questioner and critic.

4. **What proportion of students participated verbally in the lesson?**: In Turkish classrooms, a great number of the students participated verbally in the lesson, especially during 'Question and Answer' Method. However, since most of the questions were knowledge and repetition-based, it is difficult to consider it as 'thoughtful' student involvement.

In most English classrooms, students were verbally involved in the lesson, especially, in the process of getting background information and partly in the activities period. However, it should be stressed that most of the activities observed in English history classrooms involved writing. Students mainly reported their analysis and interpretations of the historical issues in their notebooks.

5. **What proportion of time do students spend engaged in thoughtful discourse with one another?**: In Turkish classrooms, time was generally not allocated for students to engage in thoughtful discourse with one another. As indicated previously, students were not given any opportunity to express their ideas, and discuss them with their classmates in general or as pairs as in English classrooms. It may be that, it would be useful for students to talk with one another to test and refine their ideas.

A summary of the comparison of the observation of Turkish and English classrooms is presented in the Table 5.15.
Table 5.15. A Concise Comparison of Turkish and English History Classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turkish Classrooms</th>
<th>English Classrooms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Curriculum obliges teacher cover many topics during the lesson</td>
<td>• A few topics are studied in depth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teaching process depends heavily on the written content of textbooks</td>
<td>• Teaching process depends on primary sources derived from a number of different materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher generally behaves in a didactic manner, conveying information to students</td>
<td>• Teacher generally behaves as an facilitator of student involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Authoritative learning environment</td>
<td>• Participative learning environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher’s action corroborates the idea that historical information should be received</td>
<td>• Teacher encourages questioning of historical information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students are the passive receivers and learners of textbook information</td>
<td>• Students are accepted as questioner, critic and creators of historical information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher seeks the correct answer written in textbook</td>
<td>• Teacher emphasises the existence and validity of different viewpoints in history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher rarely refers to the methodology of history during teaching</td>
<td>• The methodology of history is foundation for teaching and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Time not available for student evaluation of historical issues</td>
<td>• Time is available for student evaluation of historical issues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the differences in history teaching between Turkish and English history classrooms would seem to stem from philosophical differences about how to teach history. These different approaches to history teaching show themselves in the curriculum aims and textbooks.
CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Summary of findings regarding bureaucratic and approval of a textbook in Turkey and England

Summary of findings of the different constituents of the Turkish and English history textbooks

Summary of the findings of the empirical study on the usability of the Turkish and English history textbooks in the classrooms

Limitations of the study

Suggestions for further research
CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this chapter is to summarise the main findings that derive from both the textbook examination and the empirical study, to report the limitations of the study and make suggestions for possible further studies. The results of the findings will be presented in three parts that address the issues of design, construction and usability of history textbooks in Turkey and England. In the first part, there will be a summary of the findings relating to the bureaucratic process relevant to the writing and approval of history textbooks in both countries. The second part of the chapter includes the general findings related to the construction of history textbooks. This incorporates the results of the qualitative and quantitative comparisons made on the legibility and page layout, illustrations, readability, content and organisation of text, presentation of value judgements and controversial issues in the Turkish and English history textbooks. Finally, the general findings of the empirical study which consists of the questionnaire, interview and observation results are discussed under the title of usability of Turkish and English history textbooks.

In the ensuing parts, the limitations of the study and suggestions for possible further studies will be reported.

6.1. Summary of findings regarding bureaucratic process and approval of a textbook in Turkey and England:

An examination of the regulations and the interviews of the Turkish history textbook writers revealed that every detail regarding textbook writing is strictly controlled by the Ministry of Education of Turkey. So as to obtain approval for their textbooks, writers must follow the instructions which are clearly specified and include even the physical appearance of the textbook.

The interview data also revealed that there were some explicit and implicit pressures on textbook writers. The approval system in Turkey functions in such a way that the Textbook Examination Board seems to act as a censorship committee which decides what interpretation of historical events are appropriate to be studied. Only one historical explanation of events is possible and alternative viewpoints, which may be perfectly valid, are not represented in history textbooks. Although some of the Unions of Teachers have remonstrated with the effects of government politics on history textbooks, it has been so far difficult for them to alter the traditional viewpoints and established interpretations in the textbooks, or replace them with a more pluralistic interpretation of historical events.
However, in England, the existence of common ground for the rationale of history teaching among most educators is reflected in history textbooks by the way in which historical knowledge is presented. It is mainly because of this common ground that there are no detailed regulations relating to the writing process of history textbooks in England. The interviews of English textbook writers also confirmed that there was no official body to approve history textbooks, but rather publishers and textbook writers appreciated the significance of satisfying market requirements. Thus, history textbooks, in some respects, seek approval from history teachers. So the awareness and judgements of the teachers acts as an approval mechanism for textbooks. In sum, two different political, social and cultural experiences create two radically different practices with history textbooks in the way they are written and obtain approval.

6.2. Summary of Findings of the Different Constituents of the Turkish and English history textbooks

The analysis of legibility and page layout of the Turkish and English history textbooks revealed that although there were similarities in the type sizes, type faces and print variations, English textbooks seems to be better in paper quality, design aspects, print quality and binding as compared to Turkish textbooks. It seems that the wealth level of the Turkish and English societies directly affects the quality of the textbooks produced by publishers. In other words, market requirements determine the quality of the publishing in these countries.

The print quality of Turkish history textbooks might also be related to the concern to reduce the price of the history textbooks as parents in Turkey have to buy history textbooks for their children. In England, however, the publishers might be anxious to print good quality textbooks since they are provided by the schools.

The function of the illustrations in Turkish and English history textbooks was also completely different one from the other. The interview conducted with Turkish textbook writers revealed that they wrote the textual part of the textbook, and then sent it to publisher. The publisher then decided from his/her collection which illustrations would be used and where they would be placed. In Turkish history textbooks, it might be concluded that illustrations seemed to have no other function but that of decorative tools which break up the text. This particular feature of Turkish textbooks was also confirmed by the quantitative analyses as the amount of space allocated to illustrations is very small as compared to that in English textbooks. The variety of the illustrations is also very limited and consists mainly of rulers' portraits and war scenes.

The illustrations in English history textbooks, however, seem to have a very different function. They are usually historical sources therefore, are as functional and effective as written
historical sources. Illustrations operate as a teaching tool as the teacher can use them to help students make sense of the historical events through, for example, drawing their attention to the details of the illustrations, or initiating discussions by asking questions about their content. English history textbooks also present a wider variety of different illustrations, such as caricatures, posters, historical documents and engravings.

Unlike Turkey, quantitative analysis revealed that English history textbook writers seem to be actively involved in creating illustrations, such as diagrams, graphs, tables and maps, and this kind of illustration constitutes 30% of the total. English textbook writers seem to be willing to use diagrammatic illustrations to help students to comprehend historical information easily. The results of the qualitative analysis of the English history textbooks also indicated that the amount of space allocated for illustrative information is almost equal to that given to the textual information.

Turkish and English history textbooks were also examined in terms of their readability levels. To do this, the most appropriate readability formula for Year 8 and Year 10 textbooks was chosen. The results of analyses revealed that the target English history textbooks chosen were suitable for the level of Year 8 and Year 10 students.

In the analysis of the Turkish history textbooks, the same formula used for English history textbooks was modified by taking Turkish grammar into account. Theoretically, it was thought that this modification would help to measure the readability level of the Turkish history textbooks, in practice, this modification did not produce reliable results. Thus, it was not possible to identify the readability of the Turkish history textbooks, and make comparisons between Turkish and English textbooks. However, the researcher has gained important insights into the structure of the Turkish and English languages and how to conduct research on readability as a result of the research undertaken.

The target Turkish and English history textbooks were very different in terms of the content and organisation of the presentation of the historical information. Turkish textbook writers provided the historical knowledge, interpreted historical events, and assigned importance to some historical events and figures as an expert and authority in the field. As a result of this didactic way of conveying knowledge, 'the causal-temporal model' of cognitive psychologists, history textbooks functioned as encyclopaedic texts and were composed of a great number of lists of facts and accepted results of historical events. Unless, teachers gave special attention to the lesson, comprehension and repetition of the textual information becomes the main classroom activity, since the information was written in a way that would not allow controversy and debate.
In English history textbooks, however, textbook writers seem to play the role of guide and facilitator who introduces the divergent nature of history by posing questions, providing historical sources and offering activities for student investigation and the development of historical knowledge. Consistent with this responsibility, they hesitate to be the final decision-makers in interpreting historical events, but rather the main aim is student involvement in the process of evaluation of historical sources and in arriving at some conclusions for themselves. Thus, **background information, a variety of historical sources and activities** is the main constituent of historical investigation for students. This content and organisation of the text is 'the argument model' of the cognitive psychologists.

Taking these features of the Turkish and English history textbooks into account, it is possible to conclude that Turkish history textbooks seem to be used by pupils for the acquisition of basic facts and ideas, and they do not include written and pictorial sources which might encourage inquiry. In short, English students seem to have more opportunities in developing their own understanding, interpretation and imaginative pictures of the historical past in comparison with their Turkish counterparts.

The qualitative analysis of the presentation of controversial issues and value judgements revealed that the textbook writers in Turkey and England adopted very different educational approaches towards these issues. This difference arose from both the level of democracy that Turkey and England have experienced and the educational policies of governments towards the teaching of history. In Turkey, for example, many attempts were made by the governments between the 1930's and the 1990's to affect the content and interpretation of historical events, creating their approved versions of historical explanations and applying them to the textbooks through explicit or implicit pressures on textbook writers. This was also confirmed by the interviews of the Turkish textbook writers in that they also confirmed the existence of hidden agendas for writing history textbooks which they had to follow in order to obtain approval for their textbooks.

In England, it is accepted that history textbooks reflect pluralist ideas and the outcomes of the pupil's knowledge and understanding of history should reflect the methodology of history. As facilitator of student learning, textbook writers seem to relinquish making certain decisions and value judgements about historical events. On the contrary, they assumed to have a responsibility to accommodate the essential components of the enquiry-based approach: background information, historical sources and activities.

Bearing in mind the differences in the many features and components of the Turkish and English history textbooks mentioned above, the concepts "authority-based traditional
textbooks” and “enquiry-based participative textbooks” could be used for the Turkish and English history textbooks respectively.

6.3. Summary of Findings of the Empirical study on the Usability of the Turkish and English history textbooks in the Classrooms

Analysis of the data obtained through questionnaire, interview and observation helped to clarify the usability of the textbooks in both countries. The results of the analysis of the data confirmed the primary and vital importance of history textbooks in Turkey. Although some supplementary materials were used in the classrooms, such as maps and video, these were not alternatives to textbooks. The regulations issued by the Ministry of Education, the direct relation between textbook content and curriculum and cultural readiness to use history textbooks appeared to be the factors which determined textbook use in history classrooms in Turkey.

As far as the quality of history textbooks is concerned, the criticism of Turkish teachers and textbook writers focused mainly on the lack of different viewpoints and critical thinking. They also referred to the state policies, hidden agendas and censorship function of the Textbook Examination Board. Many of them also expressed their concern that Turkish history textbooks should include a variety of different ideas and controversial issues so that the student would be engaged in the evaluation and interpretation process. It seems that Turkish teachers and textbook writers appreciated the rationale of history teaching in English history textbooks. They also emphasised that these kind of textbooks would help their pupils to take part in the evaluation and interpretation of history.

In England, however, although textbooks were regarded as very crucial tools in teaching and learning, worksheets and video were used as alternatives. These teaching materials helped teachers not only to present a variety of activities, but also to differentiate their students’ needs and skills. According to the empirical study, the main factors in deciding the use of textbooks in the English classrooms were the appropriateness of the textbook in meeting the needs and ability levels of the students being taught. Many English teachers stated that they preferred to set their own activities because the reading levels of the text and activities in textbooks were generally not appropriate for the ability of the students. When Turkish history textbooks were introduced to the English teachers, they saw them as text-based with not enough illustrations and historical sources for use in their teaching. Many teachers also pointed out that Turkish textbooks have characteristics similar to those published and used in the 1960’s in England, and the research of Lister (1969, as cited by Toebes, 1987) suggests that they have a great deal in common with the Turkish history textbooks. In the light of the textbook examination and empirical study conducted, it can be concluded that the enquiry-based history
teaching method represents an innovative attempt to replace the traditional history textbooks in England. The use of different written and illustrative historical sources, making reference to the methodology of history, the existence of different viewpoints, and particularly the rationale of student involvement in evaluating and interpreting historical events and sources are distinctive and exceptional features of the English history textbooks. Thus, the rationale behind writing textbooks in England may help Turkish educationalists, historians, textbook writers and teachers to reconsider the aims, meaning, and content of history teaching. In order to do this, instead of copying the English system as a whole, a Turkish interpretation of the rationale to meet the needs and cultural context of Turkey is required. It would be naive of the researcher to state that an alteration of the traditional viewpoints and perceptions held in the Turkish education and bureaucratic system is an easy matter, but the existence of an alternative viewpoint would help to raise issues and make people aware that there are other possibilities for history teaching and writing history textbooks.

Limitations of the study

There were some difficulties in obtaining data samples. Data had to be collected in a relatively short time in Turkey due to the regulations imposed by the researcher’s sponsoring. It was also difficult to obtain a sufficient number of questionnaires and to conduct the proposed number of interviews in England, because of problems related to the English teachers’ workload. Thus, one limitation of the study is that the results from the questionnaire and interview was not based on a larger scale sample.

The lack of a Turkish readability formula, as highlighted earlier, was another limitation of the research. As a result, it was not possible to produce appropriate comparison of the readability level of Turkish and English textbooks, an area that clearly requires much more research.

Suggestions for further research

There are a number of issues arising from this study that may be considered worth further investigation. One issue that emerged was the need to create a readability formula by linguists and educators for the Turkish language. This would help to investigate the readability level of the Turkish history textbooks.

It is also suggested that an empirical study using a wider sample should be undertaken in order to understand the reactions of the Turkish history teachers to the rationale of history teaching used in English history textbooks.

It may be important to explore further the appropriateness and relevance of some of the ‘activities’ in English history textbooks, since comments have been made that their content and skill requirements do not always match well the capabilities of the pupils. Again, some
empirical research is needed to understand students' reading difficulties with English history textbooks. Although the results of the readability level of the target English history textbooks used in this research seemed to be appropriate for the student level, the issues as to the difficulty of text in English history textbooks seemed to be an important problem which needs to be addressed.
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The research tools used in the empirical study
   1a: Questionnaire
   1b: Interview Schedule
   1c: Observation Schedule

Appendix 2: The ratios of English words/Turkish words and English syllables/Turkish syllables in the books chosen

Appendix 3: Turkey and her place in the context of the Eastern and Western Civilisations

Appendix 4: A Review of the Ideas of the Turkish History Teachers on the Presentation of Controversial Issues in Turkish History Textbooks

Appendix 5: A Review of the Ideas of the English History Teachers on the Presentation of Value Judgements
Appendix 1a

THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE HISTORY TEACHERS' PERCEPTION AND USE OF HISTORY TEXTBOOKS IN ENGLAND AND TURKEY

The information obtained through this questionnaire will be used for statistical purposes only and will be kept in strict confidence.

There is no need to put your name or any identifying information on this sheet but it would be helpful for sampling purposes if you could answer the following questions.

Please complete the following information:

Male ☐  Female ☐

How long have you been teaching? ☐ years

How long have you been teaching in this school? ☐ years

Which age groups do you teach? Year 8 ☐ Year 10 ☐

How many hours do you teach these groups in a week? Year 8 ☐ Year 10 ☐

What is your position in the school? (e.g. Head of Department, Head of year)

Please write down history textbooks that you use most often for Year 8 classes

Please write down history textbooks that you use most often for Year 10 classes
### Materials that you use in teaching history to Year 8 students

<table>
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<td>I use illustrations in the textbooks</td>
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<td>I use activities in the textbooks</td>
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<td>I use controversial issues in the textbooks</td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

**Comment**

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**What determines whether you use textbooks or not in the classroom?**

Please tick as many of the followings as are appropriate

- The fact that textbooks relate closely to the curriculum
- The fact that the textbooks are of a good quality
- The fact that parent expect me to use textbooks
- The fact that the school approves of the textbook
- The fact that it is normal practice to use textbooks in lessons
- The fact that the textbooks are well-suited to the age of the pupils
- The fact that the pupils can read the textbooks easily.
- The fact that I do not have enough experience to produce other materials
- The fact that it necessitates extra time to produce other materials
- The fact that there are not better teaching materials for pupil level

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<td>Textbooks give pupils opportunities to develop creativity.</td>
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<td>☐️</td>
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<td>Textbooks provide an outline to cover all topics</td>
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<td>Textbooks help me to produce worksheets</td>
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<tr>
<td>Textbooks give explicit information for pupils</td>
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<td>Textbooks provide a common body of knowledge for pupils</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comment**

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**What use do you expect your pupils to make of a textbook?**

Please tick as many of the following as are appropriate

- To read the text in detail
- To understand change and continuity
- To extract the necessary information from textbooks
- To draw conclusions from viewpoints presented
- To interpret pictorials sources
- To appreciate different viewpoints
- To gain insight into controversial issues
- To see relationships between historical events

**Comment**

---

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Yucel Kabapinar, School of Education, University of Leeds, LS2 9JT
Appendix 1b

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON THE HISTORY TEACHERS’ PERCEPTION AND USE OF HISTORY TEXTBOOKS IN ENGLAND AND TURKEY

School Name : Date:

Interview Name:

Textbook Use in The Process of Planning and Delivering The Lesson:
Are the textbooks an essential part of your teaching in the processes of planning and delivering the lesson and How? □

How are textbooks used by you in these processes? □

How often do you use history textbooks in planning and delivering the lesson? □

Are there any other written and/or visual materials used in planning and delivering the lessons and what are their functions? □

Are there any differences in your use of textbooks when you are planning and delivering a Year 8 and Year 10 lesson? Do you use them in different ways in these classes? □

What tasks would you set for your pupils from a textbook? □

What use do you expect your pupils to make of a textbook? □

What determines whether you use textbooks or not in the classroom? □

Teachers’ Ideas about History Textbooks

How many history textbooks do you have for these age groups? □

As far as English history textbooks are concerned, what do you think about:
Print and general layout of textbooks □
Explanations in textbooks (appropriateness to pupils understanding) □
Written sources presented in the textbooks □
Pictorial sources presented in the textbooks □
Visual aids in textbooks □
Controversial issues presented in textbooks □
Value judgements given in textbooks □
Different Points of view presented in textbooks □
Suitability for critical thinking of pupils □
History Teachers' Perceptions of Textbook

What criteria do you use in order to choose the textbooks?

What would you consider to be essential features of a textbook for Year 8 and Year 10 classes?

How would you use Turkish history textbooks in your teaching? What is your first impressions about them?

What would be your idea of an ideal history textbook?

Are textbooks less important to teachers and pupils than they were some years ago? Is their importance decreasing?
Appendix 1c

THE OBSERVATION SCHEDULE ON THE USE OF HISTORY TEXTBOOKS IN CLASSROOMS

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Appendix 2: The ratios of English words/Turkish words and English syllables/Turkish syllables in the books chosen

Edward Hallet Carr, *What is History?*

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R.G. Collingwood, *An Autobiography*

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R.G. Collingwood, *The Idea of History*

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J. Tosh, *The Pursuit of History*

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Appendix 3: Turkey and her place in the context of the Eastern and Western Civilisations

Turkey has not only been a geographical bridge between Asia and Europe, but also a socio-cultural and political bridge between Eastern and Western civilisations. A number of structural revolutions in the ruling system and social life were made in the 1920’s and 1930’s so as to become a part of Western civilisation. As a result of these radical changes, Turkey has been regarded as the first example of a secular and “the most democratic country in the Islamic world” (Time, 1998). However, due to the cultural conflicts and struggles within the society, Islamic fundamentalism has always been an important determinant in the social and cultural life, and a political rival and alternative to the existing system as well.

Since all the political parties and organisations are not reconciled to democracy as a political system in the country, education has also been seen as an arena where ideological armies clash in order to lead and direct the new generations. The structure of the values and the choice of knowledge are selected according to the ideology of the government or of the party in power. Thus, political influence and struggle over history textbooks has been quite extensive. There have been three main periods for politicisation of history textbooks. These are:

1. Turkish Revolutionary Period (in 1930’s),
3. Military Intervention Period (in 1980’s)

In the first period, history textbooks were used to support the ends of the New Regime. In order to create a nation-state, an imaginary/romanticised historical project called the “Turkish History Thesis” was created. According to this account, Turks were the creators of all the civilisations of the world, including Mesopotamia, China, Anatolia, Rome, Greece and so on. The identity of Turkishness rather than Ottoman and Muslim identity was very new for the society. The revolution was trying to shape a model of the new citizen in accordance with the New Regime’s principles. To do this, history textbooks were devised to realise the New State’s political purposes through the Turkish History Thesis (Ahmad, 1996).

During the period of the Nationalist Front governments which was composed of centre right, fundamentalist right and extreme nationalist parties (Ahmad, 1996), the most extensive and systematic indoctrination and politicisation period of history textbooks took place (Kreiser, 1987). An ideologic movement known as the ‘Turkish-Islamic Synthesis’ was launched in order to shape society according to the principles and values of the prevailing ideology. Zurcher (1998) explains
the general characteristics of this ideological movement, saying that “Its basic tenet was that Islam held a special attraction for the Turks because of a number of (supposedly) striking similarities between their pre-Islamic culture and Islamic civilisation. They shared a deep sense of justice, monotheism and a belief in an immortal soul, and a strong emphasis on family life and morality” (p.303).

In this period, well-known ideologically acceptable historians were appointed to write the history textbooks according to the prevailing ideology (Kabapinar, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c; Kreiser, 1987). These historians interpreted history as an efficient and effective way of achieving certain political aims. The intention was to inculcate an aggressive notion of Turkish identity and create obedient citizens through the use of the Islamic religion. In the third period, in the 1980’s, the generals in the Military Period thought that terrorism and harmful ideas such as communism could be prevented by using the identity of Islam and Turkishness. Zurcher (1998) pointed out that “The army had been conditioned to see socialism and communism as Turkey’s most deadly foes and it saw indoctrination with a mixture of fierce nationalism and a version of Islam friendly to the state as an effective antidote. It is no coincidence that it was under the military government after 1980 that ‘religious and ethics’ became part of the basic curriculum of all schools “ (p.303).

History textbooks have also been used to inculcate the basic principles of this viewpoint. The accepted explanation of historical events was based on religion and the superiority of Turkish history. The aim of history teaching in this period was to promote patriotism and religious ideas without any criticism.
Appendix 4: A Review of the Ideas of the Turkish History Teachers on the Presentation of Controversial Issues in Turkish History Textbooks

TT1: The presentation of controversial issues is not satisfactory. For example, the interpretations on Abdulhamid the second. Some of them hate him, and others exaggerate what he did. It means that only one-sided views are presented in the textbooks (p.9).

TT2: You can find indications of nationalistic interpretations. Turks and their actions are praised. We are trying to find nationalistic and religious reasons behind the historical events. While the main reasons for the battles in the past were economic, we are trying to find some nationalistic influences over them (p.17).

TT3: No, no. You can't find such issues in textbooks. Nobody investigates what Abdulhamid or Mustafa Kemal did. You can't find such statements in history textbooks. Textbook writers are not impartial on such issues. Abdulhamid was a magnificent sultan, Vahdettin was a traitor and so on (p. 28).

TT4: For example, Vahdettin is presented as a traitor. I have to emphasise that students should not be misled by such one-sided explanations. Both sides of the coin should be represented. You can introduce different viewpoints to the students. By doing so, students are helped to find their own way of thinking (p.35).

TT5: This is the biggest problem in our history textbooks. The Turkish State has conventionally accepted viewpoints about historical events. I think when textbook writers write their textbooks according to the states's viewpoint, they could get approval. It is interesting that history textbooks do not mention the Battle of Kutahya-Eskisehir as part of the Independence War, because we were defeated. You can find accounts about the battles in which we defeat the enemy. It is the viewpoint regarding the victories that they accept rather than the defeats. To me, this is wrong. Textbook writers write their ideas if they are willing to conform with the state's viewpoints, otherwise they are not supposed to mention the opposite viewpoints. I think that they have to represent the other side of the coin. If they write, students will find an opportunity to make comparisons. You can not find comparisons of historical events in textbooks at all. (p.49).

TT6: You cannot find controversial issues in the textbooks at all. The Ministry of Education has a policy, and they approve the textbooks if they're in agreement with their ideas. There is no objective way of presenting historical events. For example, Sultan Vahdeddin is known as a traitor. If a teacher does not give extra explanations about him, students know him as a traitor (p.61).
TT7: I think textbook writers do not discuss such issues comfortably. I think they are reluctant to discuss such issues. Some of them try to write about them implicitly. In fact, I don't agree with the idea of disparaging of historical figures. The explanations made about them should neither be unduly full of praise nor harsh criticism (p.68).

TT8: I wish we could have controversial issues in the textbooks. Neither Circassian Ethem who is known as a traitor, nor the historical problems between Alaouite and Sunnite religious sects are discussed in history textbooks. There are 20 million Alaouites in Turkey, but we harshly criticise them in history textbooks. Circassian Ethem is a traitor, Inonu is a traitor. Mustafa Kemal or Vahdettin are sometimes regarded as traitors and at other times as heroes [in our history] (p.76-77).
Appendix 5: A Review of the Ideas of the English History Teachers on the Presentation of Value Judgements

ET1: Again, this is less so than it used to be. 20 or so years ago books were basically one value judgement after another. Books are much more open-ended now. The questions are open-ended the information is more open ended. The use of sources usually of a varied kind which contradicts and contrasts has an element of that. The only thing is there are some textbooks, in my view, which have gone too far and reached the point now where they don't present clear information and statements to pupils at all and some of the moderate to less able pupils can this almost impossible to work with.

ET2: No, but classically yes on women, women's history, even in the best ones, women, they have their own little chapter which always makes me laugh. I've actually tested a few books for gender bias and there are differences and there are some that really stand out as quite good but there are basic assumptions made. To be honest with you, lower down the school, I don't think that, I don't think you could get anywhere if you spent all the time, to a certain extent we do have to say this is what happened, you know Hitler was a bad guy, type thing, because the arguments would be too sophisticated for the pupils to understand so I guess we are arguing about shades of grey rather than black and white which is the point that you made earlier.

ET3: I don't think there are too many of them. I think in English textbooks they tend to avoid value judgements. If I saw value judgement it would annoy me and I wouldn't use it as an expose in fact I wouldn't buy it. There isn't enough on woman in history. There probably isn't enough on multi-cultural history in Britain. The issue of the Jews in medieval Britain is glossed over, it's not really discussed and the different forms of religion like Methodism and Baptists aren't fully discussed in 19th century Britain” (p. 16).

ET4: I think every book has a value judgement. For me it's become slightly right wing but that's personal so I think I just accept that a textbook, any book, will have value judgements.

Researcher: Is it leading the pupils?
Teacher: I don't think so, it's not like a nationalistic, you know one point of view and we take this point of view, it's not as strong as that. There's maybe just a slight leaning.

ET5: This is something one has to be very careful about. That's always going to be present, it's the job of the history teacher to try and balance that up if necessary.

ET6: Not so much now as they used to. It tends to be, the value judgement is always going to come in the evidence which the author selects to prove a point. The author has got an educational aimed to fulfil. He might want the child to understand that peasant life was very difficult
compared to today so he will go for evidence based on archaeological finds on say health, the bones, the food, the quality of housing. So the evidence is backing up a particular educational investigation. You can’t put everything into that but to me when I read a text now with a view to buying it, that’s not one of my criteria for looking. I’m more interested in layout, the themes of what they’re doing. Again as I said it’s the teacher who is the main education factor here and if something has a value judgement then it’s up to the teacher to put the other side of the argument even if they might not agree with the other side of the argument I feel it is important to do that.