

**CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION PEDAGOGY:
TEACHERS' CHARACTERISATIONS
(What teachers say and what teachers do)**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores specialist secondary school teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in Canada and England. Aspects of pedagogical practice (e.g. ways teachers shape the classroom learning environment, teaching practices, assessment applications) communicated and exhibited by teachers and overlapping factors (e.g. teachers' understandings of citizenship, views of learning, contextual pressures) that appear to relate to these practices are investigated and analysed.

This study aims to enhance original research in three main ways: one, to contribute to an initial body of empirical evidence about teachers' goals and practices of citizenship education pedagogy; two, to deepen academic understanding of pedagogical practice in the field of citizenship education in particular, and curriculum orientations in general; and three, to add to current theorising about those factors that appear to relate to teachers' citizenship education pedagogical practices. It is intended that this study will be of value to teachers, teacher educators, educational policy-makers, and researchers in Canada, England, and elsewhere who are considering the opportunities and challenges associated with this relatively uncharted area of study.

The study begins with a critical analysis of the literature of citizenship education and of pedagogy followed by a discussion of the research methodology and the analysis of the research data. A qualitative orientation, with comparative overtones, underpins the study. Empirical data were collected through a variety of research methods and sources. Postal self-completion questionnaires were distributed to a

sample of specialist teachers in Canada and England; interviews and classroom observations with a select group of these teachers within the sample were carried out; and an analysis of pertinent curriculum documents (e.g. school-based curricula, Department for Education Skills (England), and Ministry of Education (Ontario) documents) was undertaken. Data that were gathered focused on citizenship education pedagogy and interconnected factors related to teachers' pedagogical practices. Data were examined and analysed in light of the appropriate literatures.

This study neither examines all aspects of pedagogy in relation to citizenship education nor does it examine characterisations of pedagogical practice by a broad range of teacher practitioners. Rather, it focuses on key directions in pedagogical understanding that appear to closely intersect with contemporary notions of citizenship education and it examines a sample of specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy, selected for their perceived ability to provide the most valuable data given the specific purposes of the study.

This dissertation argues that teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in a variety of ways, reflective, in very general terms, of liberal/civic republican tendencies represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education. Evidence of this variety is illuminated through the ways in which teachers communicate and/or exhibit their learning goals, aspects of their classroom learning environment, teaching methods, and assessment practices. Further, it is argued that teachers' characterisations tend to reveal both eclectic and distinctive tendencies that cut across various curriculum perspectives (e.g. transmission, transactional, and/or transformational). It is contended that two distinctive, and overlapping, orientations

tend to be apparent, albeit with some disjunctions from the dominant tendency: one, a dominant and blended transmission/transactional orientation; and two, and to a much lesser extent, a blended transactional/transformational orientation. A case is made that these particular orientations suggest strong support for certain curricular goals and policy contexts, but that this support tends to diminish as goals are translated into practice, reducing the odds that certain fundamental goals (e.g. participation) associated with citizenship education will be appropriately addressed. Lastly, it is argued that a variety of factors relate to teachers' stated goals and practices, signalling the need for a more complex and integrated conceptualisation of citizenship education pedagogy, one which details relations among its elements (e.g. learner characteristics, views of teaching and learning, contextual forces) and adds yet another layer of complexity to uncovering what these teachers believe has meaning through what they say and what they do.

This thesis is organised in a way that allows these arguments to be made clearly in relation to the data. Findings are discussed and analysed in Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7 (learning goals, classroom learning environment, teaching practices, and assessment practices respectively). Each chapter considers three dimensions: characterisations of practice across the sample and between national groupings (horizontal analysis); personal orientations in relation to curriculum perspectives (vertical analysis); and factors that appear to relate to teachers' pedagogical goals and practices. In each of these chapters, data are presented from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. Data are presented in an integrated manner around key themes and issues. In most cases, general findings begin with a consideration of what respondents say in the questionnaires. These findings are subsequently considered

within the context of what respondents say in interviews and do in their classrooms.

Chapter 8: 'Summary, discussion, and further analysis' pulls together these three dimensions in a coherent way based on findings illuminated in the preceding four chapters. Lastly, 'Main findings, concluding reflections, and recommendations for future research' are discussed in Chapter 9.

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ACRONYMS

ACT - Association for Citizenship Teaching (England)

AERA - American Education Research Association

AST - Advanced Skills Teacher (England)

BERA - British Education and Research Association

BIDS - British Information and Data Services

CEEC - Committee for Effective Canadian Citizenship

CERN - Citizenship Education Research Network (Canada)

CIDA - Canadian International Development Agency

CRBF - Charles R. Bronfman Foundation (Canada)

CSV - Community Service Volunteers (England)

DfEE - Department for Education and Employment (England)

DfES - Department for Education and Skills (England)

E/B/S - Examine Both Sides of an Argument

EQAO - Education Quality and Accountability Office (Ontario)

ERA - Education Reform Act (England)

MOE - Ministry of Education (Ontario)

NFER - National Foundation for Educational Research (England)

ICT - Information and Communication Technology

IACSEE - International Association for Citizenship, Social and Economic Education

IEA - International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement

INSET - Inservice Education for Teachers (England)

IRCAF - International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks

IT - Information Technology

ITT - Initial Teacher Training (England)

LEA - Local Education Authority (England)

NC - National Curriculum (England)

NCC - National Curriculum Council (England)

NSW - New South Wales

OFSTED - The Office for Standards in Education (England)

OME - Ontario Ministry of Education

OMET - Ontario Ministry of Education and Training

OSS - Ontario Secondary School Curriculum

PGCE - Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (England)

PSHE - Personal, Social, and Health Education (England)

P/M/I - Plus, Minus, Interesting

PSHE - Personal, Social and Health Education (England)

QCA - Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (England)

RE - Religious Education (England)

SRLS - School Reform Longitudinal Study (Queensland)

TTA - Teacher Training Agency (England)

UNICEF - United Nations Children's Emergency Fund

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Interest in citizenship education has escalated worldwide in recent years. This dimension of education has been viewed by some as an opportunity to begin preparing young people for their understanding of, and involvement in, the civic life of their community(ies), from the local to the global. For others, it has been viewed as a way of responding to a range of existing social concerns including: a lack of civic literacy among youth; an increasing democratic deficit; racism and cultural conflict; and low levels of participation in both elections and in civil society organisations among youth. Whatever the reason(s), there has been a proliferation of research studies, formal discussions, and curriculum initiatives throughout the world, as teachers, policy-makers, and researchers attempt to understand and assess the complex processes by which young people learn about democratic citizenship (Crick, 2000; Davies, 2000, 2001; Hahn, 1998; Hahn and Torney-Purta, 1999; Heater, 2000; Ichilov, 1998; Kerr, 2000; Osborne, 2001; Osler and Starkey, 2000; Ross, 2001; Sears, 1999).

This proliferation of attention has unleashed considerable discussion about citizenship education's location and representation in school curricula and has revealed critical issues related to what it means to educate for citizenship. Central to this discussion have been concerns raised by researchers about a general lack of empirical research on citizenship education pedagogy and the need for more in-depth studies in this area (Fogelman and Edwards, 2000; Hébert and Sears, 2001; Hughes and Sears, 1996; Davies, 2000, 2003; Kerr, 2000, 2003; Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, and Blenkinsop, 2003; Sears, Clark, and Hughes, 1999). These concerns have been further reinforced by a growing recognition among education researchers more

broadly, that “what teachers know and do is one of the most important influences on what students learn” (Darling-Hammond 1998: 6). Comparativists (Alexander, 1999; Crossley, 2002) have voiced similar concerns about the general lack of empirical research on pedagogy and have identified pedagogy as an important and substantive research direction for the future.

1.1) Statement of purpose

This thesis explores a sample of specialist secondary school teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in Canada and England. Aspects of pedagogical practice communicated and exhibited by teachers and overlapping factors that appeared to relate to these practices are investigated and analysed.

Broadly stated, the study aimed to:

- illuminate ways in which a sample of specialist secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in formal secondary school curriculum courses/ programmes in Canada and England.

More specifically, it aimed to:

- identify and explain the contrasting range of preferred pedagogical goals and practices communicated and exhibited by specialist teachers in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes when educating for citizenship;
- appraise the potential implications of these specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in relation to the kinds of learning experiences forefronted, the respective policy contexts, and theoretical curriculum perspectives;
- and
- reveal and analyse factors that appeared to relate to specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy.

The study aimed to enhance original research in three main ways: one, to contribute to an initial body of empirical evidence about teachers' goals and practices of citizenship education pedagogy; two, to deepen academic understanding of pedagogical practice in the field of citizenship education in particular, and curriculum in general; and three, to add to current theorising about those factors that appear to relate to teachers' pedagogical practice, in particular, practice pertaining to citizenship education pedagogy. It was intended that this study would be of value to teachers, teacher educators, and educational policy-makers and researchers in Canada, England, and elsewhere who are considering the opportunities, challenges, and complications associated with this relatively uncharted area of study.

1.2) Research questions

The central question that framed the main research study was:

1. In what ways do specialist secondary school teachers characterise 'educating for citizenship' in Canada and England and why?

Subsidiary questions included:

2. What learning goals do specialist secondary school teachers prefer to nurture in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes when educating for citizenship?;

3. What pedagogical practices (with special attention to classroom climate, teaching practices, and assessment) do these teachers communicate and/or exhibit preferring to use in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes to achieve these goals?;

4. Why do these teachers advocate these learning goals and pedagogical practices when educating for citizenship (with attention to such factors as: teachers' understandings of citizenship, views of teaching and learning, and contextual forces)?; and

5. What are the potential implications of these characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in relation to the kinds of learning experiences foregrounded, the respective policy contexts, and theoretical curriculum perspectives?

1.3) A review of pertinent literature

The study begins with a review of pertinent literature that puts the study into context.

Chapter 2 'Educating for citizenship: Shifting purposes and practices' provides a brief historical snapshot of shifting characterisations of what it has meant to educate for citizenship within the school curriculum in Canada and England throughout the twentieth century. It is contended that educating for citizenship has tended to move through three general phases: characterisations in the early 20th century which foregrounded social and political initiation; characterisations in the post world war II era which witnessed expanding boundaries in terms of conception and practice; and in recent years, characterisations that underscore an emergent, multi-layered, transformative vision. Contemporary characterisations are explored in more detail, with particular attention to critical themes and issues revealed through theoretical perspectives, curriculum policy directions and perspectives, and emergent pedagogical practices. Current conceptions of pedagogy are examined subsequently to highlight a number of issues and to further inform later discussion and analysis of the findings. Lastly, concluding comments are offered that summarise both general

trends and persisting issues in terms of educating for citizenship in Canada and England.

1.4) The research study

The main research study began in spring 2001 and was completed in spring 2004. A qualitative orientation, with a comparative dimension, guided the study's design and implementation, with the view of gathering in-depth, holistic, and grounded accounts of how a select group of secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in Canada and England and why. This is not to suggest that some quantitative data were not collected, but rather to indicate my general preference for a more qualitative orientation. Ethical considerations and issues of reliability and validity were given careful consideration throughout the enquiry process.

A qualitative research orientation was preferred because it would tender thick and rich descriptions of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy. Secondly, it would offer an approach that was grounded and in which meaning was derived from the real world of lived experience, rather than from contrived or experimental contexts. Thirdly, it would allow the data to be collected - and meaning to be constructed - over time rather than testing some preconceived hypothetical notions. And fourthly, this orientation would help me better understand the variety of overlapping factors (e.g. details of context, views of the learner) that appear to relate to specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy.

A comparative dimension was infused to bring into focus teachers' contrasting practices and broader international discussions and debates about citizenship

education. Canada and England were viewed as rich research contexts to inform and contribute to both the theoretical and practical aspects of citizenship education pedagogy given recent curriculum reform initiatives in this curricular area in both countries. In Ontario, in particular, a new compulsory *Civics* course (OME The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10, Canadian and World Studies, 1999) for all grade 10 students had been introduced, and broader reform initiatives had made the goal of responsible citizenship more explicit throughout the curriculum (OME Ontario Secondary Schools Grades 9 to 12 Program and Diploma Requirements, 1999). Citizenship education in England was undergoing what appeared to be a more significant shift. The Citizenship Order (DfEE/QCA, 1999) created a new foundation subject *Citizenship*, for pupils 11 to 16, as a new statutory component of the National Curriculum (September 2002) and part of a non-statutory framework alongside Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) for pupils 5 to 11 (Kerr, 2000: 73). In both contexts, understandings of citizenship education pedagogy were neither clear nor well developed.

1.5) Sampling

In this study, non-probability, purposive sampling was used. Specialist teachers were handpicked purposely on the basis of their perceived ability to provide the most valuable data, given the specific purposes of the study. There was no pretense to “represent the wider population” nor was the intent “to generalise the findings beyond the sample in question” (Cohen et al., 2000: 102, 103). Twenty-two specialist secondary school teachers from across England and twenty-two specialist secondary school teachers from Ontario, Canada were identified and invited to complete a postal self-completion questionnaire, based on specified criteria. Sixteen teachers

from England and seventeen teachers from Ontario agreed to become involved in the study. From this larger sample group, six teachers were selected for further enquiry, three from schools in Canada (Ontario) and three from schools in England (Yorkshire). Engaging this small group of selected teachers offered me the opportunity to analyse, through interviews and classroom observations, teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in more depth, and in doing so, maximising contrasts and illuminating more fully, the focus of the research questions. Relevant contextual information, in which the research was conducted, is also provided.

1.6) Data collection

Empirical data were collected through a variety of research methods and sources. Initially, an invitation to participate in the study was mailed out to the forty-four identified specialist secondary teachers, twenty-two in Canada (Ontario) and to twenty-two in England, outlining the purposes of the study and inviting them to participate in the questionnaire component. One month later, a formal letter of invitation and a postal self-completion questionnaire was sent out to each of the teachers. Thirty-three were returned, seventeen from the Canadian teachers and sixteen from the English teachers. Six teachers were then selected from this broader sample for further investigation based on additional criteria. Three were selected from schools in Canada (Ontario), and three from schools in England (Yorkshire). A minimum of five interviews and four classroom observations was undertaken with each of these selected teachers. Interviews were taped and transcribed. Observation notes were recorded. During visits to the schools, pertinent curriculum documents

(e.g. teacher's planning binders, school-based curriculum documents) were reviewed and notes were taken.

1.7) Analysis

Analysis of data focused primarily on the central question of the study, in what ways do specialist secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes in Ontario, Canada and in England? Particular attention was given to characterisations of pedagogical practice (e.g. learning goals, classroom learning environment, teaching and learning practices, and assessment approaches) and factors that appeared to inform specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy (e.g. understandings of citizenship education, views of the learner, and contextual forces). Lastly, these characterisations were analysed in terms of the learning experiences provided, the respective policy contexts, and broader theoretical curriculum perspectives.

The process of analysis was done simultaneously throughout the data collection process and tended to follow three overlapping and concurrent forms of activity adapted from Miles and Huberman's Data Analysis Flow Model (1994: 11,12). One form of activity involved the process of data reduction, the ongoing process during data collection of teasing out themes and categories and sharpening the focus of the data guided by the central research questions. Analysis of the data followed an inductive process, similar to that suggested by Glaser and Strauss's *The Discovery of Grounded Theory* (1967). Analysis concerned itself primarily with the identification of "patterns and processes, commonalities and differences" (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 9) in terms of the ways in which these teachers appeared to understand what it

means to educate for citizenship. Attention was also given to a horizontal (across respondents' responses) and vertical (within an individual respondent's responses) analysis of the data. The second form of activity involved displaying key information assembled from the data in an organised and extended text format. This afforded a sense of the big picture as it unfolded and provided a base for drawing some early and partial conclusions. A third form of activity involved ongoing attempts to sort out key themes, pattern regularities, and issues as data deepened and verification became more - or less - evident. I found myself constantly checking back in my notes for substantiation or contradictions and often reviewing my thoughts with interviewees.

1.8) Findings and discussion

Chapters 4 to 7 address different areas of teachers' characterisations of pedagogical practice: Chapter 4 considers learning goals; Chapter 5, the classroom learning environment; Chapter 6, teaching methods; and Chapter 7, approaches to assessment.

Each chapter considers three dimensions:

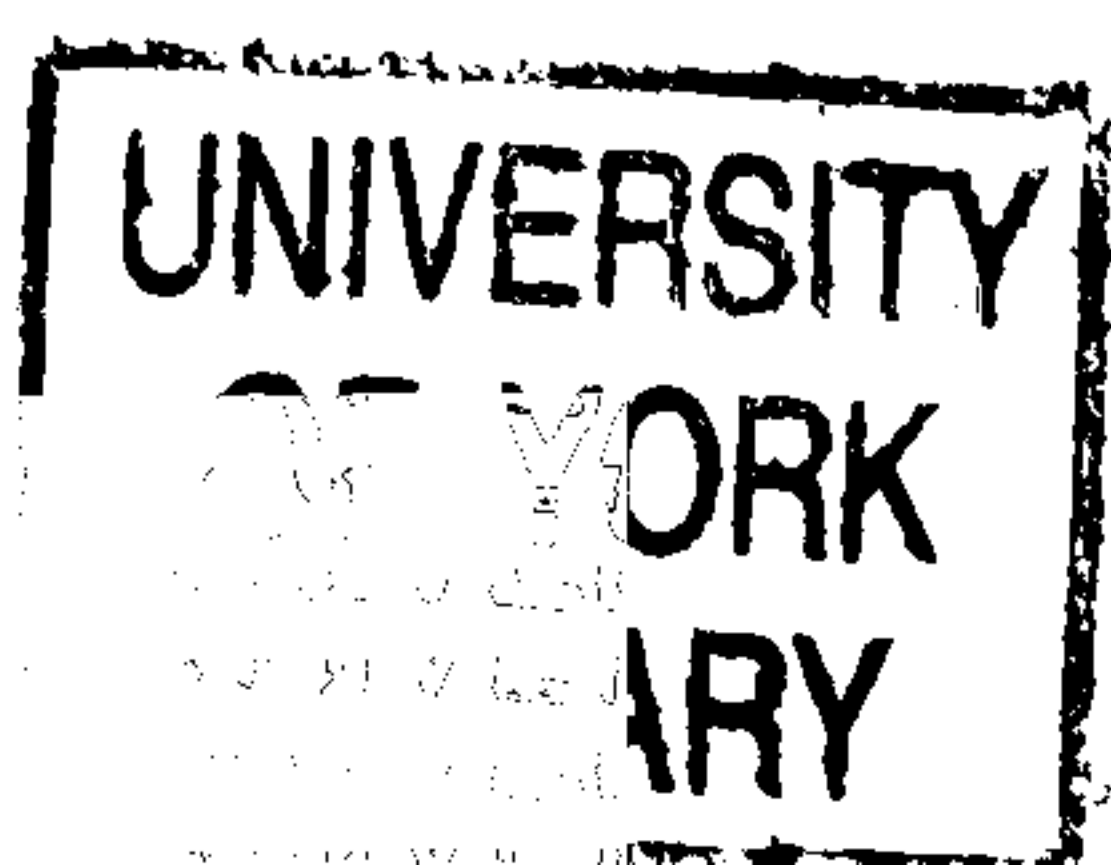
- specific practices (horizontal analysis)
- personal orientations in relation to curriculum perspectives (vertical analysis); and
- factors relating to teachers' preferred pedagogical practices.

In each of these chapters, data are presented from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. Data are presented in an integrated manner around key themes and issues. Particular attention is given to the congruities - and incongruities - found in the data. In most cases, general findings begin with a consideration of what respondents say in the questionnaires. These findings are subsequently considered

within the context of what respondents say in interviews and do in their classrooms. In most cases, specific references are made to the source of the data.

Chapter 4 explores teachers' preferred learning goals when educating their students for citizenship. This chapter contends that teachers articulate a variety of personally preferred learning goals when educating their students for citizenship reflective, in very general terms, of liberal/civic republican tendencies represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education. Teachers' preferred learning goals are considered in four general areas: one, knowledge; two, skills; three, exploring diverse beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and four, participation in civic life. Teachers' personal goal sets, considered holistically, are briefly sketched out, revealing eclectic and distinctive orientations which appear to blend and, in some cases, forefront transmission, transactional, and/or transformational curricular perspectives. Lastly, factors that appeared to relate to their preference for particular learning goals are discussed and analysed.

Chapter 5 focuses on ways in which these teachers prefer to shape the classroom learning environment when educating their students for citizenship to facilitate learning, and to a lesser extent, nurture certain democratic principles. Four forms of practice (i.e. nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom, using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship learning, resource support and availability, and teacher modelling), used in variant ways by teachers to nurture certain democratic principles, are explored. Personal orientations are then considered within the context of broader curriculum perspectives. It is argued that personal practices in this area appear to be rather modest and



underdeveloped and that any discernable patterns are rather unclear in comparison to other pedagogical areas (e.g. goals, teaching methods, approaches to assessment) explored in this study. Lastly, those factors that appear to be most directly related to teachers' preferred practices for nurturing an effective classroom environment are discussed.

Chapter 6, building on the two preceding chapters, focuses on teaching methods. An array of activities and strategies are identified within two broad categories: one, discrete and distinctive activities/tactics (e.g. a questioning sequence, think/pair/share, mini-lecture); and two, reasonably complex interactive and performance-based strategies (e.g. direct instruction, concept attainment, group investigation). These methods are considered within the context of the four distinctive goal strands introduced in Chapter 4. Variations across the sample and between national groups are considered. Teachers' personal teaching methods are then explored. Teachers' personal methods reveal distinctive and eclectic orientations that, like their goal sets, appear to blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curricular perspectives. Unlike teachers' 'goal sets', which tend to cover a broad spectrum, a case is made that teachers' teaching methods tend to forefront a blend of transmission and transactional tendencies, suggesting a certain level of incongruity with stated learning goals. Lastly, those factors appearing to relate to teachers' preferences for certain teaching methods are considered.

Chapter 7 moves beyond teaching methods, discussed in the previous chapter, to focus on teachers' characterisations of assessment approaches. Specific assessment approaches are explored initially, with attention to teachers' preference for paper-

and-pencil short answer (e.g. multiple choice tests, fill-in-the-blank tests, true-false tests), and essay answer (e.g. analytical paragraphs, short essays) types of assessment, and to a lesser extent, complex performance-based types of assessment (e.g. anecdotal, checklists, rating scales, assessment rubrics). It is argued that while preference for more performance-based types of assessment signals attention to the broader learning goals associated with citizenship education, paper-and-pencil short answer/essay answer types of assessment, aimed at assessing knowledge acquisition and basic skills learning goals, appear to be pervasive across the sample. Teachers' personal orientations to assessment are then considered. Strong tendencies, towards a further deepening of transmission and transactional curricular perspectives, are illuminated raising issues about what kinds of learning will be experienced. Lastly, factors that appeared to relate to teachers' preferred assessment approaches are taken into account. Particular attention is given to learner characteristics, views of learning, and contextual factors.

1.9) Further analysis and concluding reflections

Further analysis is provided in Chapter 8 which aims to see, as Miles and Huberman (1994: 307) suggest, the “qualitative analysis whole”. A summary and discussion of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy are provided, integrating data discussed in the preceding four chapters, under the following three theme headings:

- learning goals and pedagogical practices;
- learning goals, pedagogical practices, and curriculum perspectives; and
- factors relating to teachers' preferred goals and pedagogical practices.

Three main organising frameworks are used in order to present the arguments. First,

arguments are presented based on a horizontal analysis. Secondly, arguments are provided based on a vertical analysis in which I present interpretations that emerge from the specific orientations exhibited by individuals. Thirdly, arguments arising from a consideration of the factors relating to teachers' preferred learning goals and pedagogical practices are addressed. Chapter 9, the concluding chapter, reviews the main findings, provides concluding reflections, and briefly discusses recommendations and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: EDUCATING FOR CITIZENSHIP: SHIFTING PURPOSES AND PRACTICES

The intent of this chapter is to provide a general sense of what it means and what it has meant to educate for citizenship in Canada and England, as a basis for informing later explanation, analysis, and discussion of the findings of this study. The chapter begins with a brief historical snapshot of shifting characterisations of what it has meant to educate for citizenship within the school curriculum in Canada and England throughout the twentieth century. It is contended that educating for citizenship has tended to move through three general phases: characterisations in the early 20th century which forefronted social and political initiation; characterisations in the post world war II era which witnessed expanding boundaries in terms of conception and practice; and in recent years, characterisations that underscore an emergent, multi-layered, transformative vision. Contemporary characterisations are explored in more detail, with particular attention to critical themes and issues revealed through theoretical perspectives, curriculum policy directions and perspectives, and emergent pedagogical practices. Current conceptions of pedagogy are examined subsequently to inform later discussion and analysis of the findings. Lastly, concluding comments are offered that summarise both general trends and persisting issues related to educating for citizenship in Canada and England.

This chapter is organised into five sections:

2.1) Social and political initiation: Characterisations in the early 20th century

2.2) Expanding boundaries: Characterisations in the post World War II era

2.3) A multi-layered, transformative vision: Contemporary characterisations

2.3.1) Theoretical conceptions

2.3.2) Curriculum policy contexts and perspectives

2.3.2.1) Curricular perspectives

2.3.3) Pedagogical practices for citizenship education

2.4) Towards a suitably sophisticated pedagogy for citizenship education

2.4.1) Pedagogy and its importance in student learning

2.4.2) Definitions of pedagogy

2.4.3) Research on pedagogy

2.4.4) Teachers' characterisations of pedagogy

2.4.5) Toward improved pedagogical practice

2.4.6) A language of pedagogy

2.5) Pedagogy and citizenship education

It should also be noted at the outset that a complete understanding of what it means and what it has meant to educate for citizenship has been complicated by what some (McCleod, 1989; Sears, 1996) have referred to as a patchiness of data on this subject.

In Canada, Osborne (1996: 31) has alluded to this issue,

For some periods and places we have a wealth of information, for others very little. Since there is no national education policy, any account must cope with provincial and territorial differences. Moreover, there is often a considerable gap between what a department of education mandates and what actually gets done in the classrooms, so that to describe citizenship education policy, is not necessarily to describe citizenship education reality.

In England, early findings of the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (2003: 4) reported on the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) website (www.nfer.ac.uk/research/citlong.asp) raised similar concerns. The report highlights:

the considerable gap which exists between the policy aims for citizenship and the actual practice in schools and highlight some of the challenges which face those charged with implementing citizenship education, both at the policy and school/college level.

2.1) Social and political initiation: Characterisations in the early 20th century

In Canada, “the idea of educating people for their political as well as social roles has been embedded in education in Canada even before Confederation” (McLeod, 1989: 11) as a requisite to social and civil well-being. Not surprisingly, this idea has revealed itself in varying patterns and practices since that time, influenced by the historical forces and contextual factors that have shaped Canada’s development. In England, until recently, educating for citizenship has received little official consideration (Kerr, 2003) and its evolving character appeared to be, according to Davies (2003: 50) one of neglect, “throughout the 20th century (with perhaps exceptions at isolated points of crisis) the official position has been one of neglect or opposition”.

In the early decades of the twentieth century, public education in Canada was increasingly viewed as a logical location to initiate young people for their citizenship role as members of a newly emerging society. Two central purposes dominated: one, to nurture the personal characteristics of a ‘good’ citizen; and two, to nurture a sense of ‘being Canadian’. ‘Being Canadian’ was usually aligned with a sense of nationalism, albeit with a “pro-British assimilationist bent” (Clark and Case, 1997: 20). Osborne (1996: 36) describes this period in the development and implementation of citizenship education in Canadian schools as the “Canadianization of children as a vehicle of assimilationist nation-building”. Schools were expected to pass on understandings youth would need to fit into and become productive members of the newly emerging Canadian society. Knowledge of parliamentary structures and

procedures, duties and responsibilities of 'good' citizenship, values of loyalty and obedience, and national identity and national pride were some of the themes of learning that were integrated into the curriculum in hopes of adequately preparing youth for their citizenship roles.

School curriculum reflected these emphases in differing ways. Subject content, the observation of school holidays (e.g. Empire Day), and school wide initiatives continuously reminded students that they belonged to, and should identify with their country. Canadian history, for example, largely emphasised,

the building of the federation...History texts made it clear that nations were the work of exceptional individuals...Canadian students learned that Confederation was the work of a handful of 'fathers'...Women rarely appeared in the pages of these texts and when they did, it was usually doing what was regarded as women's work, such as teaching or nursing. Working people were similarly ignored. Native people were equally invisible.
(Osborne, 1997: 21)

A cursory reading of social studies curriculum documents and texts in Ontario used during this time reveals these emphases. The *Civics* program in Ontario, for example, had three central aims,

1. To instruct in the mechanism of government. (Descriptive)
 2. To instruct in the history of national institutions, so as to show the line of development, and also to impress the fact that existing institutions are capable of development, are not fixed. (Historical)
 3. To show the cost of each institution in the efforts and sacrifices of past generations and to quicken and make permanent the children's interest in public life and their sense of responsibility to their fellow citizens. (Patriotic and Ethical)
- (Ontario Teachers' Manual, 1915: 52)

Further lessons encouraged to be taught under the guise of Civics included,

1. Respect for the rights of others. Pupils may be brought to see that misconduct on their part affects others, not themselves only.

2. Respect for the property of others. This may be secured best by teaching them to take good care of their own property first, for unless a child cares rightly for his own, he is not likely to take much thought for the things of others.

3. Respect for public property. This is something that needs attention badly. It is a very common thing to find people destroying trees, flowers, etc. In public places, throwing refuse on the street, and otherwise disfiguring their surroundings. A beginning to better habits may be made by getting pupils to aid in beautifying and decorating the school building.

(Ontario Teachers' Manual, 1915: 52)

Predictably, pedagogical practices focused on knowing about the mechanisms of government and one's responsibilities to others and to Canada. Teachers were expected to transmit certain content and students were expected to receive it.

Educating for citizenship was often characterised as “dull” and “rigidly pedantic”, “didactic thought, recitation, memorisation, and largely passive learning remained the rule and by overwhelming agreement, the norm” (McCleod, 1989: 11). It should be noted, however, that there were examples of interesting and innovative teaching practices,

teachers like Agnes McPhail who in Grey county, Ontario, in the early 1900s detested the school systems emphasis on exam preparation. She got the board to subscribe to a magazine and daily newspaper for her classes to study. Each day they focused on some element of the news...she also bought books of Grey County Nellie McClung into the classroom so that older children could share her reformist and feminist ideas.

(Osborne, 1996: 38)

Educating for citizenship was addressed largely through Social Studies and History curricula and explicit attention to its application across the curriculum appeared to be overshadowed by other more important educational priorities of the time.

Attention to citizenship education in the school curriculum in England appeared to have been rather sporadic, prompted by the interests of individuals and groups,

contextual factors, and crises. The extension of the franchise in 1867, for example, raised questions about the extent to which schools should be responsible for the preparation of youth for their civic role. The work of individuals and groups during this time prompted further attention to its value, both for pupils and society more generally. The publication of texts like *The British constitution and government* (Wicks, 1871), the *Citizen Reader* (Foster, 1885), and *Political Education at a Public School* (Gollancz, 1914) are often provided as evidence of signs of this sporadic attention. Any signs of educating for citizenship in publicly funded schools, at the beginning of the twentieth century, tended to appear through the History curriculum (Heater, 2001: 111) and, as in other parts of the world, tended to emphasise nationalist intentions and the transmission of knowledge about the structures and mechanics of central and local governments. Educating for citizenship, according to Heater (2001) emphasised “British national identity” and “exuded an aura of imperialism”. It “was about wars and military and naval heroes” and cultivating the qualities of a ‘good’ citizen, “an aptitude for work”, “loyalty to institutions”, “fair play”, and “patriotic loyalty to the state”.

While the first and second World Wars stimulated attention to notions of world affairs generally (e.g. witnessed the emergence of the term ‘world citizenship’), lessons in Civics continued to reinforce the development of,

obedient and passive subjects, not active democratic citizens. There was mentality formation in imperial ideals, with the wall map of the British Empire and annual celebration of Empire Day. The church schools offered moral education through Christianity...the elite schools produced leaders for the government, the army and the navy, and the law. There was political education through the hidden curriculum of roles and rituals. There was little explicit teaching about politics or

for citizenship... citizenship education was acceptable as long as ‘the good citizen’ was well behaved, law abiding, and conforming. For a minority of students, teaching *about* politics was offered in the form of ‘British constitution’. It had a twin foci of Whitehall (central government) and Town Hall (local government). Its perspectives were institutional, constitutional and legal.

(Lister, 1998: 256-257)

Characterisations of what it meant to educate for citizenship continued to evolve in Canada from the 1920s to the 1950s. The aftermath of the First World War, a sense of growing national autonomy and patriotism, difficult labour conditions, the Second World War, ideas of American progressive education at the time (e.g. Dewey), and other factors, led to an increased emphasis on personal responsibilities associated with democratic citizenship. Schools, to a certain extent, were touched by these shifts. One example was the introduction, albeit in a limited way, of student councils. Another was the expansion of boy scouts, girl guides and other “character building” organisations outside of formal schooling. This shift in emphasis, according to Osborne (1996: 43), served to de-politicise citizenship education, by limiting attention to certain core concepts such as conflict and power and political participation,

One could serve through volunteer work, through charity, through church membership, and other forms of non-political activity. In this view, a ‘good person’, defined as someone who was kind, neighbourly law-abiding, and so on, was by definition a ‘good citizen’, thus ignoring the long philosophical tradition that holds that good citizenship demands more than this.

Educating for citizenship remained largely located in Social Studies and History curricula and received limited attention on provincial educational agendas, despite the passing of the Canadian Citizenship Act in 1947. Nationalist intentions and knowledge about government institutions continued to be emphasised, with little attention to classroom practices that encouraged critical

thought, collaboration, discussion of controversial issues, or active participation. It should be noted, however, that not everyone accepted the citizenship message of the schools during this time, and various groups (e.g. Quebecers, trade unions, First Nations peoples) voiced their concerns.

In England, the “worrying totalitarian threat” and “the shock of Nazi accession to power” during the 1930s and 1940s aroused attention to citizenship education (Lister, 1998: 257). The founding of professional groups and associations during the 1930s and 1940s such as the Association for Education in Citizenship (1934) and Council for Education in World Citizenship (1939) as well as the publication of such texts as *Bias and Education for a Democracy* (Stewart, 1938) and *Educating for Democracy* (Gaitskell, 1939), signalled varied interest. Important educational reports of the time (e.g. the Spens Report, 1938; the Norwood Report, 1943) gave little official attention to citizenship education (Heater, 2001: 107) during this time period. Concerns that youth were too immature to handle the complexity of the content and a general hesitancy to use publicly-funded education institutions to initiate the young to the principles and practices of democratic citizenship restricted levels of support. This support was further mitigated, according to Heater (2001), by a publicly-funded education curricula that emphasised the 3Rs (reading, writing, and arithmetic) and that limited the amount of time most people spent in schools.

Educating for citizenship in Canada and England during this period reflected certain similarities. Interest in infusing citizenship education into the official curriculum appeared to be rather sporadic and strictly limited in official curriculum contexts in both countries. While schools were viewed as logical

locations to introduce young people to certain social values and types of political knowledge that aligned with national interests, History and Social Studies curricula were often the place where these goals were addressed, either formally or informally. Pedagogical practices during the early decades of the twentieth century appeared to focus on knowing about, for example, the mechanisms of government and/or one's responsibilities to others. Teachers in both contexts, it appears, were expected to transmit certain content and students were expected to receive it. There appeared to be more attention to citizenship education in Canada at the time, and this may be attributable to it being a newly emerging society. In England, on the other hand, there appeared to be very little explicit political education in schools. Heater (1997: 62) suggests a lack of tradition, a general belief that politics is the adult domain, and a fear of indoctrination as possible reasons for this lack of attention.

2.2) Expanding boundaries: Characterisations in the post World War II era

In post-war Canada, issues arising from the Quiet Revolution in Quebec, shifting immigration patterns, First Nations land claims, the increasing American dominance of the Canadian economy, Canada's growing involvement in peacekeeping initiatives worldwide, and the introduction of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, are cited as some of the factors that fostered a renewed interest in citizenship and citizenship education during the second half of the twentieth century. One initiative, A.B Hodgetts' publication *What Culture? What Heritage? A Study of Civic Education in Canada* (1968), sparked special interest and debate in the area of citizenship education. While it painted a rather pessimistic picture of the teaching of Canadian history and citizenship education, it advanced a new vision of citizenship

education that stressed its increasing multidimensionality, its diverse cultural and pluralistic nature, its emerging global orientation, and its conflictual character, reflecting an important transition from earlier characterisations. It also signalled that earlier pedagogical practices used to educate for citizenship that focused primarily on knowing about citizenship were quite simply no longer sufficient.

A new *Canadian Studies* curriculum was developed during this period which laid the groundwork to explore Canada's culturally diverse nature, French/English relations, Canadian/American relations, and Canada's emerging role in the global community, providing a curriculum location in which to consider and investigate these emerging dimensions of citizenship education. It had become widely accepted by the 1980s, according to Osborne (1996), that citizenship education had to be more activist in scope. In addition, demands for higher quality learning, more effective schools, and more equitable educational opportunities, led to an increased attention to pedagogical practices (e.g. enquiry, critical thinking, cooperative learning) that were more congruent with citizenship education's shifting goals, and that focused on 'thinking about' and 'engaging in' citizenship.

During the 1970s and 1980s in Canada, explicit attention to citizenship education in schools varied. In some contexts, characterisations of citizenship education that emphasised its multidimensionality began to appear in a number of new and high quality curricula, which Osborne (1996: 52) suggested constituted "the beginning of a trend" and "certainly formed part of a new conception of citizenship education". Themes such as cultural diversity, rights and responsibilities, global understanding, community service, and active participation were explored and developed in

conjunction with participatory and experiential instructional practices. In most contexts, however, citizenship education remained largely ignored in schools, overshadowed by an increasing emphasis on employability skills and preparing students to be productive workers in an emerging global economy (Osborne, 2000).

The publication, in 1949, of the Ministry of Education pamphlet *Citizens Growing Up* was the first 'official' government document devoted to citizenship education in England. Other quasi-government sponsored publications, related to citizenship education, emerged during the post war period. Of particular interest, according to Heater (2001: 114), was the publication of *Teaching for International Understanding* (Strong, 1952) that encouraged curriculum attention beyond the local and national to the international. Events and outcomes of World War II, England's changing role with its colonial partners, a spirit of reform in education, and other factors prompted an interest in what it meant to educate for world citizenship. Still, however, official attention to this dimension of education was largely silent (*The Crowther Report*, 1959) both in terms of policy and school-based practices during the post war period.

In the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s, England witnessed more discussion and debate about citizenship and citizenship education. Marshall (1949) provided an important theoretical base to think about conceptions of citizenship and how it might be located in school curricula. Marshall's conception of citizenship forefronted three critical dimensions of citizenship that evolved gradually over time in Western democracies: the civil, the political, and the social. The civil dimension, according to Marshall, focused on such things as liberty of the person, freedom of speech, right to own property, and the institutions most directly associated with the rule of law and system

of courts. The political dimension focused on the right of the citizen to participate in the exercise of political power, largely through an elected political authority (e.g. parliamentary institutions). The social dimension focused on the right of citizens to enjoy the prevailing standard of life (e.g. education, health care, security) of the community and the social heritage of society. In return for these rights of citizenship, citizens were expected to fulfill certain obligations, including taxation. The social dimension, which recognised a sense of welfare for all citizens, was relatively new, but for Marshall it was viewed as a cornerstone of democracy.

The raising of the school leaving age, the extension of the franchise 1970 (to 18 years of age), and other policy shifts, again raised questions about the extent to which schools should be responsible for the preparation of youth for their civic role. “Fear of neo-fascist influences among England’s youth” prompted educators to consider what role schools might play in “combating” these influences (Heater, 2001: 109).

The work and commitment of individuals and voluntary and non-governmental organisations and their initiatives, promoted further consideration. The emergence of the Association for Teaching the Social Sciences (1965) and the Politics Association (1969) and such initiatives as the Programme for Political Education (1974-77) initiated by the Hansard’s Society for Parliamentary Government in association with the Politics Association and funded by the Nuffield Foundation, signified a growing interest in promoting political literacy and democratic values within school curricula (Lister, 1998: 258). The Programme for Political Education (1974), for example, emphasised more “democratic”, “literate” and “active” notions of citizenship,

Its image of ‘the citizen’ was of someone with the knowledge, attitudes, and predisposition to be active in the polity - in ‘everyday life’, in the locality and at the national level. Its view of politics was

characterised by the inevitability and centrality of *issues*, to be analysed, discussed and debated and, where appropriate, acted on. It focused on developing 'the politically literate person' - where 'literate' meant 'reading, understanding, *and acting* - rather than on 'the citizen' as such.

(Lister, 1998: 259)

A vanguard of educators in the 1970s and 1980s (e.g. Richardson, 1979, *Learning for change in world society*; Selby and Pike, 1988, *Global teacher, global learner*), interested in promoting global perspectives across the curriculum, and under the guise of 'new educations' (e.g. global education, human rights education, peace education), raised questions about how educating for citizenship ought to be conceptualised and taught. As well, a growing academic interest in political socialisation fostered further debate and discussion at the time. Davies (2003: 50) has argued that three strands of work emerging during this period were important:

1. The efforts of those in the 1970s to promote political literacy led to work that was issue focused. These educators used a broader concept of politics that had been used in British Constitution courses and valued procedural concepts (such as truth, respect for reasoning and respect for argument). They were also concerned with skills as well as knowledge and attitudes so as to develop pupils' potential for action (Crick and Porter, 1978).
2. So-called 'new' educations have played a prominent part in debates about the development of citizenship education. Some, such as Peace Education and World Studies, have existed from the post world war one era (Heater, 1984); others, such as anti-sexist and anti-racist education were more recent. All focus less on traditional academic subjects and more on specific contemporary issues than other approaches to citizenship education.
3. In the late 1980s, the third strand of work in this field emerged and was closely connected with the thinking of T.H. Marshall (1963). Education for Citizenship became one of the (important) five cross curricular themes of the National Curriculum (NCC 1990), the subject of a report by the Commission on Citizenship (1990), and was associated narrowly and negatively with the recommendation for more voluntary action by young people. Eight dimensions of citizenship education were identified as essential by the National Curriculum Council: community; pluralist society; being a citizen;

family; democracy; citizen and law; work, employment, and leisure; and public service (NCC 1990b: 5).

As in Canada, however, educating for citizenship in England remained largely invisible in the enacted curriculum in many government schools. Citizenship education, as Edwards and Fogelman (2000: 93) have reminded us “was scarcely heard in curriculum discussions”. It remained primarily the responsibility of history educators, and, as in other parts of the world, continued to emphasise nationalist intentions and the transmission of knowledge about structural, procedural and the legal aspects of political institutions. New characterisations, however, were emerging. *Encouraging Citizenship*, the report of the Speaker’s Commission on Citizenship (1990), identified requisite knowledge, skills, and values to be encouraged. Explicit in this document was an emphasis on learning democratic behaviours through experiences in the school and the wider community.

These new characterisations, however, did not unfold without scrutiny. Concerns about pupils’ maturity to handle such issues, schools capability to realistically encourage such democratic principles given their own structural and decision-making arrangements, and the extent to which some sense of global citizenship ought to be infused, were raised with varying levels of support and resistance (Lister, 1998: 259). The election of Margaret Thatcher and the Conservative Party in 1979 and the ensuing political context raised further questions about what might be expected in terms of the direction of citizenship education. Nonetheless, there appeared to be growing support and justification for its infusion into the official curriculum.

While it would be inappropriate to suggest that there was common agreement in either nation, certain tendencies were notable. In both contexts, educating for citizenship had taken on new meanings and new practices. Conceptual and pedagogical boundaries were expanding, reflecting more sophisticated understandings and practices. In Canada, purposes that highlighted diversity and inclusion, that endorsed the value of developing democratic participatory skills, and that acknowledged the complexities of a fast-changing and interconnected global community began to emerge. In England, purposes that highlighted political literacy and skill development, that acknowledged the worth of global perspectives and attention to world issues, and that explored voluntary service as an important critical dimension of citizenship education were also unfolding. In both contexts, increased attention to pedagogical practices that were more congruent with the shifting purposes was also evident. It should be noted, however, that the extent to which these shifting meanings and practices received widespread application in the classroom was probably minimal (Davies et al., 1999: 2). While there was growing support and justification for citizenship education, purposes and practices were varied and central guidance was minimal.

2.3) A multi-layered, transformative vision: Contemporary characterisations

A renewed interest in what it means to educate for citizenship has intensified worldwide in recent years. A growing awareness of the interconnectedness of our everyday lives, with others throughout the world, has prompted discussion about the multidimensional nature of rights and responsibilities and the tensions and contradictions that accompany diverse allegiances to one's community, culture, nation, and now, a global context. In Canada and England, issues of diversity

have prompted discussion about inclusive and exclusive aspects of citizenship and the tensions of fostering a sense of citizenship that on the one hand encourages social cohesion and on the other, is respectful of multiple identities and social difference (Bickmore, 1992; Kymlicka, 1995; Osler, 2000; Siexas, 1997). Rapid shifts in, and access to, information technology have prompted discussion about uneven access and the implications for civic participation (Alexander and Pal, 1998). The expansion and deepening of a global economy and the increasing power of multinationals and transnational conglomerates have prompted concerns about the sustainability of democratic citizenship, as it is currently understood (Portelli, 2001). A proliferation of civil society organisations intent on building and sustaining democratic communities, distinct from the operation of formal governmental processes, has prompted discussion about new forms of civic engagement and activism (Van Rooy, 1999). Persisting global and international issues have prompted growing attention to understandings, capacities, and practices of citizenship that will assist us to respond in informed, purposeful, and participatory ways, and that move beyond national boundaries (Osler, 2000; Pike and Selby, 2000). Growing concerns about the general lack of civic literacy, low rates of participation and acts of discrimination and violence among youth, and what some refer to as an emerging 'democratic deficit' have prompted further debate about citizenship education and its location and representation in school curricula (Davies, 1999; Hébert, 2002; Kerr, 2000; Osborne, 2001; Parker, 1996; Sears, 1996, 1999).

Specific contextual forces in both countries prompted further debate about citizenship education and how we think about educating for citizenship. In Canada, a

variety of particular forces, what Sears (1999) refers to as ‘crises’, have been at work. Persisting historical issues related to its constitutional and federalist governance principles and structures, regionalism, French/English relations, Aboriginal self-government, Canadian/American relations, increasing immigration and multiculturalism, the patriation of the Canadian Constitution from Britain and the introduction of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982), Canada’s shifting roles internationally within the Commonwealth, la Francophonie, North America, and worldwide, its preoccupation with national identity, and concerns about a growing ‘democratic deficit’, resulting from crises of ignorance and alienation, have shaped how educating for citizenship is thought about and how it might be addressed in school curricula in Canada (Evans and Lavelle, 1996; Osborne, 2001; Portelli, 2001; Sears, Clarke, and Hughes, 1999; Sears, 2001).

In England, a variety of forces have been at work as well. The historical mixture of monarchy and parliamentary democracy, a deep class structure, ongoing issues of identity (e.g. shared vs. devolution), increasing cultural and multi-faith diversity, the shifting nature of the nation-state and emerging international roles within the Commonwealth and across the European Union, periods of war and peace, the challenges of globalisation, and the 1997 election of the Labour government are some of the forces that have shaped this ‘unfolding’ and have informed discussions about how educating for citizenship might be addressed in school curricula (Batho, 1990; Crick, 2000; Davies, 2000, 2003; Heater, 2001; Kerr, 1999; Lister, 1998).

What follows, is an examination of contemporary characterisations of what it means to educate for citizenship in Canada and England revealed through theoretical perspectives, curriculum policy directions, and emergent pedagogical orientations. Key themes and issues are identified to provide a context for later explanation and analysis of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy.

2.3.1) Theoretical conceptions

Attention to citizenship education in recent years has evoked substantial discussion about its scope and breadth, and has alerted us to a range of critical issues and tensions. Conflicting conceptions of citizenship and citizenship education have led to a certain level of conceptual ambiguity. Dominant views of citizenship - the civic republican (responsibilities-based) and the liberal (rights-based) - offer varied understandings of citizenship education (Heater, 2000) while other perspectives (e.g. communitarian, social democratic, multiculturalist, post-national) further complicate the situation (Davies, 1999; Kerr, 2003; Shafir, 1998). These contrasting conceptions raise questions about which learning goals ought to be nurtured and create a sense of uncertainty among educators attempting to effectively introduce citizenship education into the school curriculum in a meaningful way. McLaughlin (1992), for example, believes that this situation has led to "minimalist" interpretations of citizenship being encouraged. Heater (2000: 175), in contrast, worries that certain perspectives offer little more than the indoctrination of youth to the purposes of the state and that this issue is particularly problematic for teachers who are given

the ultimate responsibility of creating the right moral tone or ethos in the school (the 'hidden curriculum, as it sometimes called) and of teaching appropriate material in their classrooms so that their pupils

emerge as good citizens at the end of the experience...Too little revealed enthusiasm on the part of the teacher and the pupils remain unmoved and unconvinced; too much, and the teacher in a liberal democracy will be charged, not least by the parents, with the professional crime of indoctrination.

In Canada, there has been attention directed towards exploring the 'what' of citizenship education through the development of differing conceptual frameworks that infuse new and expanded understandings of citizenship required for meaningful civic engagement and for dealing with complex public issues of local and global proportions. Sears, Clarke and Hughes (1999: 124), for example, have argued "there has not been a single conception of democratic citizenship that has formed the basis for civic education but rather differing conceptions which exist along a continuum from elitist to activist". Sears' (1996) framework, for example, is constructed on a continuum from "elitist" to "activist". His Conceptions of Citizenship model compares themes of sovereignty, government, and citizen expectations from "elitist" and "activist" perspectives. His Conceptions of Citizenship Education model compares knowledge, values, and skills again from these two perspectives. Central to Sear's organising framework is that citizens are "expected, and enabled, to participate in the affairs of the state," and that the extent of this participation is guided by conceptions of citizenship that range from "elitist" to "active". The good citizen in the "elitist" conception is

knowledgeable about mainstream versions of national history as well as the technical details of how public institutions function...the highest duty of citizenship in this view is to become as informed as possible about public issues and, based on this information, to vote for appropriate representatives at election time.

The “activist” conception assumes significant participation by all citizens. The good citizen in this conception is

active in community or national affairs. They have a deep commitment to democratic values including equal participation of all citizens in discourse where all voices can be heard and power is relatively equally distributed.
(Sears 1996: 7, 8)

Osborne, on the other hand, suggests a slightly different conception. According to Osborne (2001: 42, 43), education for democratic citizenship should meet the following criteria, which he describes as the “twelve C’s”.

Osborne's 12 C's

- The first C is *Canadian* and it proposes that schools should teach students enough about Canada, its history and geography, its institutional structures, its artistic and cultural achievements, its current problems, and so on, to enable them to understand and participate in the continuing debate about what kind of society Canada is and should become.
- The second C is *cosmopolitan*, in the strict sense of the word, and proposes that students also learn enough about the world as a whole, past and present, to see themselves not only as Canadian, but global citizens.
- The third C is *communication* and proposes that students should learn how to communicate effectively through speech, writing, graphics, and all other media.
- The fourth C is *content* and proposes that all students must gain a thorough all-round grounding of general knowledge.
- The fifth C is *curiosity* and proposes that schools must teach students to be intellectually curious, to want to keep on learning.
- The sixth C is *critical*, and proposes that students must learn to think critically, to question the status quo, and to see learning as continual enquiry.
- The seventh C is *creativity* and proposes that schooling develops the creative spirit which is present, but too often stifled, in all human beings.
- The eighth C is *civilisations* (in the plural) and proposes that schooling must give students an adequate knowledge and appreciation of human civilisation (again in the plural) of which we are all both the heirs and the trustees for the future.
- The ninth C is *community* and proposes that students must learn to see themselves as informed and involved members of their communities, locally, nationally, and globally.
- The tenth C is *concern* or *caring* and proposes that education teach t care for other people and for the environment that makes life possible in the first place.
- The eleventh C stands for *character*, the development of which years ago was seen as one of the key purposes of education, standing for the willingness to shoulder responsibilities, to follow one's conscience, and to act morally.
- The twelfth C stands for *competence*, meaning that education must equip students to play their part as competent and effective citizens in the world in which they live.

Strong-Boag's (1996) conception forefronts "pluralist" and "inclusive"

understandings. Strong-Boag, while recognising core elements of citizenship

education found in other conceptions, laments that a variety of groups (e.g. feminists,

First Nations peoples, working-class groups) in Canada have largely been excluded

in conversations about citizenship in education,

In general, citizenship education has done little to acknowledge the reality of misrecognition and alienation, resulting from 'differentiated citizenship.' Too often, it has given relatively few Canadians – notably those who are male, European, in origin, middle class, heterosexual, able-bodied, and so on – reason to feel full members of the nation's state created in 1867. An unacknowledged politics of dominance reflects and contributes to the crisis in national legitimacy that dogs Canada at the end of the 20th century.
(Strong-Boag, 1996)

Understandings of citizenship education, according to Strong-Boag, have been limited in vision and have not dealt with hotly contested issues like assimilation, subjugation, or even the rights of citizenship. In her conception, the inclusion of non-dominant groups is critical if Canada is to move closer to the democratic ideal.

Central to each of these conceptions are three underpinning elements (Osborne, 1997; Hébert and Sears, 2001): one, a sense of identity and membership in some wider community, from local to the global; two, a sense of rights and entitlements in civil, political, socio-economic and cultural domains; and three, a corresponding set of duties or responsibilities. It should be added however, that how these elements have been interpreted are often vague, in continuous evolution, and regularly contested.

In England, varying conceptions of what it means to educate for citizenship have been explored and debated during this period as well. Some have emphasised knowledge about government structures and processes, while others have highlighted good consumerism of government services. Still others, have introduced broader conceptions, which interconnect notions of identity, cultural diversity, values pluralism, political literacy, and internationalism (Lister, 1998; Lynch, 1992; Osler, 1995; Ross, 2001; Rowe, 1997). Ross (2001: 3), for example, has argued educating for a notion of citizenship that moves away from a strict alignment to the nation state

to one that connects with a broader base of understanding and “nested identities”, for example, European citizenship.

Bousted and Davies (1996) have offered four models of political learning:

“citizenship education” focusing on voluntary service in a society where knowledge and obligations are at least as important as rights; “cultural studies” focusing on enabling pupils to develop a critical understanding of the world and the cultural environment in which they live; “global education” being characterised by affective learning and holistic approaches to world issues; and “political literacy” being concerned with skills, issues and action in a broad definition of politics.

Heater (1990) has offered what he refers to as “a globally relevant” framework which encourages consideration of a “universal expression” of the citizenship principle and that respects diverse historical traditions and contexts. Heater’s Cube of Citizenship includes three dimensions: elements, location, and education. The elements dimension focuses on themes of identity, virtue, and the legal, political, and social aspects of the status. The locational dimension considers the range of levels that citizenship gets played out. Civil society organisations, local government and global contexts are considered. The third dimension is education which Heater views “not an optional extra, but an integral part of the concept.” In this dimension, requisite knowledge, attitudes, and skills are acknowledged (Heater, 1990: 319).

McLaughlin (1992) has identified a way of understanding the concept of educating for citizenship that takes into consideration its complex and contested

nature within the context of a diverse pluralistic democratic society. In particular, he (1992: 37) points to the challenge that societies face in seeking to balance “elements of social and cultural diversity with those of cohesion, an aspiration which invokes (among other things) a familiar distinction between ‘public’ and ‘private’ values and domains”. He (1992: 38) suggests that citizenship

can be roughly mapped in terms of minimal and maximal interpretations of the notion locatable on a continuum rather than in terms of discrete conceptions and related to underlying political beliefs and to contrasting interpretations of democracy itself.

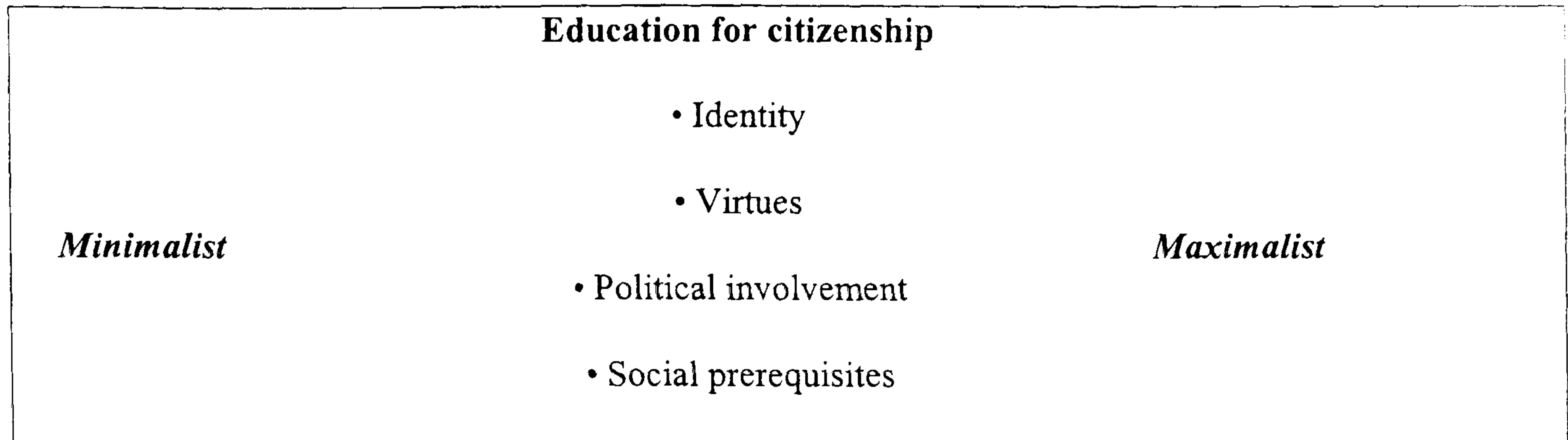
McLaughlin further highlights four features that ought to be given special attention:

- “identity” that it is seen as conferred upon an individual;
- the “virtues” of the citizen that are required;
- the extent of the “political involvement” on the part of the individual that is thought to follow; and
- the “social prerequisites” seen as necessary for effective citizenship.

Minimal interpretations acknowledge limited understandings of citizenship whereas maximal interpretations consider more critically the complexities of citizenship. McLaughlin (1992: 39) suggests, for example, that a minimalist interpretation of political involvement may be viewed with

a degree of suspicion...the citizen is seen as primarily as a private individual with the task of voting wisely for representatives...whereas a maximalist interpretation would favour a more fully participatory approach to democracy.

Mclaughlin's 'Minimalist/maximalist framework' (1992)



This variety of conceptual frameworks gives a sense of how educating for citizenship has been characterised theoretically in Canada and England. Several other theoretical frameworks for citizenship and citizenship education (e.g. Ichilov's 'Multidimensional' Model; Rauner's Post-National Model) add to this conceptual search. On the one hand, they are instructive in providing valuable conceptual understandings to help inform citizenship education curriculum purposes within education. On the other hand, they alert us to the ambiguities and complexities inherent in terms of conceptual understanding (e.g. individualist vs. collectivist, political rights vs. social rights, local vs. global), which in turn, pose significant challenges for educators trying to determine appropriate curricular purposes and pedagogical approaches.

2.3.2) Curriculum policy contexts

Ross (2001: 1) reminds us that,

Curriculum is not a neutral document. Any statement of what is to be learned is permeated with objectives and intentions; outcomes, whether explicit or implicit, necessarily embody values; the way in which the projected consequences of learning are laid out predicates particular teaching styles and methods...and that...clearly defined learning outcomes, might lead to citizenship education which is at

odds with the stated purposes of curriculum makers in this field, in the UK and around the world.

Both Canada and England have developed curriculum documents for citizenship education, in terms of learning goals, teaching methods, and assessment approaches. Although Canada has no National Curriculum, all provinces and territories continue to have some form of citizenship education as part of the core curriculum for elementary and secondary students. A recent study of educational policy across Canada, *Education for Peace, Human Rights, Democracy, International Understanding and Tolerance* (Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, 2001) suggests that traditional conceptions of citizenship education are shifting to goals and practices that forefront its transformative and global character.

A number of curriculum policy initiatives can be traced over the past decade, reflecting this shifting vision for citizenship education. In 1994, the Committee for Effective Canadian Citizenship (a committee of the Canadian Association for the Social Studies, which is now inactive), for example, issued a report entitled *Educating Canada's 21st Century Citizens: Crisis and Challenge*. This report, with contributions from across the country, encouraged pedagogical shifts, “Teaching methods and materials should emphasise the connection between citizenship education and students' personal lives. Students need to be active participants in, or engaged by, learning activities that address authentic issues and empower students as learners and citizens” (CEEC, 1994: 2). In Ontario, of the same year, the release of the report *For The Love Of Learning: Report Of the Royal Commission On Learning*, indicated the importance of building capacity for civic engagement (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1994). *The Common Curriculum*, for

grades 7-10, explicitly stressed the development of participation as a requirement of responsible citizenship (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1995).

Celebration Canada, a national organisation promoting the celebration of Canada and the development of Canadian citizenship education in schools and the community, published *Components of Citizenship Education: Initiating Action* (1998) which identified three key aspects of citizenship education: one, the traditional - knowledge of government institutions and law, and of Canadian history and geography; two, the inclusive - anti-racism and human rights; and three, the multidimensional - understanding the personal and social aspects of citizenship and developing decision-making skills.

More recently, the release of the Ontario Ministry of Education and Training's *Elementary Social Studies, Secondary History and World Studies* curricula, and *Ontario Secondary Schools Grades 9 to 12 Program and Diploma Requirements, 1999* signalled the importance of educating for citizenship across the curriculum. Each document emphasised a multidimensional view of citizenship education (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training 1999), reflecting an important shift in tone and emphasis from earlier policy emphases pertaining to educating for citizenship. In addition, a compulsory grade 10 *Civics* (1999: 46) course was introduced as a requirement for graduation which highlighted “informed, purposeful, and active citizenship”:

Overview

As we move into the twenty-first century, Canada is undergoing significant change. We are struggling with a range of demanding questions, such as these: How do we govern ourselves? As our population becomes more diverse, how do we ensure that all voices

are heard? How do we resolve important societal and community issues in the face of so many diverse and divergent views influenced by differing values? What role will Canada play within an increasingly interconnected global community? Our responses to these questions will affect not only our personal lives but also the future of our communities, our provinces and territories, and our country. In civics, students explore what it means to be a “responsible citizen” in the local, national, and global arenas. They examine the dimensions of democracy, notions of democratic citizenship, and political decision-making processes. They are encouraged to identify and clarify their own beliefs and values, and to develop an appreciation of others’ beliefs and values about questions of civic importance.

Strands

The Civics course is organised into the following three strands.

Informed Citizenship. An understanding of key civics questions, concepts, structures, and processes is fundamental to informed citizenship. In a diverse and rapidly changing society that invites political participation, the informed citizen should be able to demonstrate an understanding of the reasons for and dimensions of democracy. In the Civics course, students will gain an understanding of contrasting views of citizenship within personal, community, national, and global contexts. As well, they will learn the principles and practices of decision-making.

Purposeful Citizenship. It is important that students understand the role of the citizen, and the personal values and perspectives that guide citizen thinking and actions. Students need to reflect upon their personal sense of civic identity, moral purpose, and legal responsibility – and to compare their views with those of others. They should examine important civic questions and consider the challenges of governing communities in which contrasting values, multiple perspectives, and differing purposes coexist.

Active Citizenship. Students need to learn basic civic literacy skills and have opportunities to apply those skills meaningfully by participating actively in the civic affairs of their community. Civic literacy skills include enquiry strategies, critical and creative thinking, decision-making, resolving conflicts, and collaborating. Full participatory citizenship requires an understanding of practices used in civic affairs to influence public decision-making. As well, students will learn about the work and contributions of agencies serving community interests and needs.

More specifically, the *Civics* curriculum (1999: 48-53) for Grade 10, included the following learning goals:

Civics, Grade 10, Open (CHV2O)

This course explores what it means to be an informed, participating citizen in a democratic society. Students will learn about the elements of democracy and the meaning of democratic citizenship in local, national, and global contexts. In addition, students will learn about social change, examine decision-making processes in Canada, explore their own and others' beliefs and perspectives on civics questions, and learn how to think and act critically and creatively about public issues.

Informed Citizenship

Overall Expectations

By the end of the course, students will:

- demonstrate an understanding of the reasons for democratic decision making;
- compare contrasting views of what it means to be a “citizen”;
- describe the main features of local, provincial, and federal governments in Canada and explain how these features work;
- explain the legal rights and responsibilities associated with Canadian citizenship;
- demonstrate an understanding of citizenship within a global context.

Specific Expectations

Democratic Decision Making

Elements of Democratic Citizenship

The Rights and Responsibilities of Canadian Citizenship

Making Decisions, Resolving Conflicts, and Developing Policy in Canada

Citizenship Within the Global Context

Purposeful Citizenship

Overall Expectations

By the end of the course, students will:

- examine beliefs and values underlying democratic citizenship, and explain how these beliefs and values guide citizens' actions;
- articulate clearly their personal sense of civic identity and purpose, and understand the diversity of beliefs and values of other individuals and groups in Canadian society;
- demonstrate an understanding of the challenges of governing communities or societies in which diverse value systems, multiple perspectives, and differing civic purposes coexist.
- demonstrate an understanding of a citizen's role in responding to non-democratic movements (e.g., supremacist and racist organisations, fascism, and communism) through personal and group actions (e.g., actions of the Righteous Among the Nations during the Holocaust, Medgar Evers, Emily Murphy).

Specific Expectations

Democratic Beliefs and Values

Beliefs, Values, and Multiple Perspectives

Civic Purpose, Community, and Personal Responsibilities

Active Citizenship

Overall Expectations

By the end of the course, students will:

- demonstrate an ability to research questions and issues of civic importance, and to think critically and creatively about these issues and questions;
- demonstrate an ability to apply decision-making and conflict-resolution procedures and skills to cases of civic importance;
- demonstrate an ability to collaborate effectively when participating in group enquiries and community activities;

- demonstrate a knowledge of different types of citizenship participation and involvement.

Specific Expectations

Enquiry Skills

Decision Making and Conflict Resolution

Collaboration

Citizenship Participation and Community Involvement

Educating for citizenship, as revealed through official guidelines, appeared to be taking on new goals, with an emphasis on the multidimensional and transformative character of contemporary citizenship. Attention to learning goals such as democratic decision-making, the study of persisting public issues, human rights, political literacy, inclusion, and political participation were apparent, and reflected an important shift in tone and emphasis from earlier policy emphases in citizenship education programs.

On the practical level, there was encouragement to emphasise participatory forms of pedagogy that actively engaged young people in the examination of real public issues and meaningful civic involvement. Official curricula directed teachers to use a variety of active learning strategies to

encourage students to research, think critically, work cooperatively, discuss relevant issues, and make decisions about significant human concerns. When students are engaged in such active learning strategies, they tend to retain knowledge for longer periods and to develop meaningful skills. Active learning strategies also enable students to apply their knowledge and skills to real-life issues and situations.

Some of the teaching and learning strategies identified, included

cooperative small-group learning, role-playing, simulations, brainstorming, mind mapping, creating scenarios for decision making, independent research, personal reflection, seminar presentations, Socratic lessons, and constructive or creative dialogue.

(www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/document/curricul/secondary/canadian/canaful.html)

Additional guidance was provided in the way of assessment achievement charts, recommended cross-curricular themes, exemplars, and sample course profiles.

Interest in educating for citizenship escalated in England during the 1990s as well, and this intent was reflected in a variety of policy directives, studies, and curriculum initiatives. “Citizenship education”, according to Kerr, “has been at the heart of a major debate and policy review concerning its purpose, location, and practice in schools and colleges over the last decade” (Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, and Blenkinsop, 2003: 2). The passing of the Educational Reform Act (ERA) and the establishment of the National Curriculum (1988) reflected the Conservative government’s intention to reform ways in which schools in England were administered and to forefront, and make compulsory, traditional core subjects such as English, Mathematics, and Science, and others, including History and Geography. As mentioned earlier, citizenship education was introduced as a non-statutory cross-curricular theme. Continuing concerns about “disconnection and disengagement”, a growing “democratic deficit”, and the potential decline of “civic cohesion” and “cynicism among young people about public life” augmented, according to the Advisory Group on Citizenship (1998), this attention.

The establishment of the Citizenship Foundation in London (1989); the report *Encouraging citizenship* of the Speaker’s National Commission on Citizenship (1990); a national conference on Citizenship education (1990) with addresses from key politicians and Ministers of Education; the document *Curriculum Guidance Eight: Education for Citizenship* (1990) prepared by the National

Curriculum Council (NCC); the formation of a Centre for Citizenship Studies in Education at the University of Leicester (1991); the establishment of the Institute for Studies in Education (1992); and major studies like the *International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study* (1994, 1999) and the *Citizenship Education Thematic Study* (1999) were illustrative of this escalating attention. The work of the Advisory Group on Citizenship (The Crick Report, Crick 1998a and b), *Education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy in schools*, along with the political leadership of David Blunkett, the Secretary of State for Education and Employment at the time, led to the subsequent announcement by the Department for Education and Employment/Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (DFEE/QCA 1999a and b) that *Citizenship* be a statutory component of the National Curriculum, and signified what Kerr (2000: 73) has referred to as “an historic shift in educational policy in this area” . This shift appeared to reflect a transition from thinking about citizenship education as inspired by crisis factors to one inspired more by the communitarian agenda of the Blair government.

While varying perspectives emerged in earlier reports, these later policy documents, according to Kerr (2003: 6), reflected broader conceptions of citizenship education,

the Group’s final working definition was deliberately founded on the best of past approaches updated to meet the needs of modern democratic society. The definition was centered on ‘civic participation’ and based on the ‘civic republican’ concept of citizenship. It provided a workable ‘third way’ between the competing ‘liberal-individualist’ and ‘communitarian’ concepts of citizenship. It was based on the three elements of citizenship – namely the civil, the political and the social – contained in T.H Marshall’s classic definition. The definition reinstated the second element – the political

– which had been strangely silent in the Conservative government’s ‘active citizenship’ in the early 1990s.

The Advisory Group (1998) attempted to provide a definition that was coherent, respectful of its multidimensional nature, and workable for schools. Everyone did not view its report favourably. Osler (2000, 2003) and others (Gamarnikov and Green, 2000) were critical of its failure to provide a critical view of social capital and insufficient attention to diversity. The Advisory Group’s report (1998: 11-13) recommended three central and interrelated strands:

Social and moral responsibility. Firstly, learning from the very beginning self-confidence and socially and morally responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other;

Community involvement. Secondly, learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community; and

Political literacy. Thirdly, learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills, and values – what can be called ‘political literacy’.

Implied in these three strands was a strong emphasis on active and responsible participation, “what some commentators have called the ‘missing element’ in Marshall’s trilogy” (Kerr, 2003: 7). Methods of delivery were not prescribed and the Citizenship Advisory Group “sought to establish a ‘light touch’ flexible but rigorous framework, which would encourage schools and colleges to develop effective citizenship education in ways that best suited their needs, context and strength” (Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, and Blenkinsop, 2003: 3). Schools were expected to devote roughly five per cent of the teaching time to citizenship.

The Citizenship Order (DfEE/QCA, 1999), which created the new foundation subject for pupils 11 to 16, from September 2002, also became part of a non-statutory framework alongside Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) for pupils 5 to 11 from September 2000 (Kerr, 2000: 73), built on the Advisory Group's recommendations. The stated importance of the new statutory *Citizenship* strand of the National Curriculum was to give pupils the:

knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in society at local, national, and international levels. It helps them become informed, thoughtful and responsible citizens who are aware of their duties and rights. It promotes their spiritual, moral, social and cultural development, making them more self-confident and responsible both in and beyond the classroom. It encourages pupils to play a helpful part in the life of their schools, neighbourhoods, communities and the wider world. It also teaches them about our economy and democratic institutions and values; encourages respect for different national, religious and ethnic identities; and develops pupils ability to reflect on issues and take part in discussions. (Department for Education and Employment and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 1999: 12).

The Order set out the anticipated learning outcomes along three broad dimensions. These included:

- knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens;
- developing skills of enquiry and communication; and
- developing skills of participation and responsible action.

(Citizenship: The National Curriculum for England, Key stages 3-4 1999

and Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4: Initial guidance for schools 2000)

(Department for Education and Employment and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 1999)

More specifically, the Programme of Study: Citizenship (1999: 14) for Key Stage 3 included the following learning goals:

Programme of study: citizenship

Key stage 3

Knowledge, skills and understanding

Teaching should ensure that knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens are acquired and applied when developing skills of enquiry and communication, and participation and responsible action.

Knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens

1) Pupils should be taught about:

- a) the legal and human rights and responsibilities underpinning society, basic aspects of the criminal justice system, and how both relate to young people
- b) the diversity of national, regional, religious and ethnic identities in the United Kingdom and the need for mutual respect and understanding
- c) central and local government, the public services they offer and how they are financed, and the opportunities to contribute
- d) the key characteristics of parliamentary and other forms of government
- e) the electoral system and the importance of voting
- f) the work of community-based, national and international voluntary groups
- g) the importance of resolving conflict fairly
- h) the significance of the media in society
- i) the world as a global community, and the political, economic, environmental and social implications of this, and the role of the European Union, the Commonwealth and the United Nations.

Developing skills of enquiry and communication

2) Pupils should be taught to:

- a) think about topical political, spiritual, moral, social and cultural issues, problems and events by analysing information and its sources, including ICT-based sources
- b) justify orally and in writing a personal opinion about such issues, problems or events
- c) contribute to group and exploratory class discussions, and take part in debates.

Developing skills of participation and responsible action

3) Pupils should be taught to:

- a) use their imagination to consider other people's experiences and be able to think about, express and explain views that are not their own
- b) negotiate, decide and take part responsibly in both school and community-based activities
- c) reflect on the process of participating.

Additional guidance was provided in terms of an assessment attainment target for Key stages 3 and 4, recommended cross-curricular themes, and implementation. The attainment target for citizenship addresses the general intent of the three broad dimensions identified for *Citizenship* in the National Curriculum. The responsibility for implementation and choice of the actual pedagogical practices was largely put

into the hands of the school, in partnership with their communities,

Teaching should ensure that knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens are acquired and applied when developing skills of enquiry and communication, and participation and responsible action.

(Department for Education and Employment and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 1999)

Whole school approaches, the integration of citizenship goals across various subjects (e.g. History, Religious Education), and the teaching specific courses were encouraged. Additional general teaching requirements included specific attention to three broad areas: inclusion; the use of language across the curriculum; and the use of information and communication technology (ICT) across the curriculum. Within each of these broad areas, general principles that should inform teachers' pedagogies were provided (Department for Education and Employment and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 1999: 18). Similar to teaching practices, the choice of assessment practices appeared to be left to the teacher. According to Ord (2004: 4), "Teachers have very few statutory requirements and enormous flexibility with regard to citizenship education assessment. Some assessment needs to be formal, but much of it can be more imaginative than other subjects might allow".

Specific learning goals, represented in both curriculum contexts, appeared to share certain similarities yet some noticeable differences. Characterisations of citizenship education in official curricula in both contexts, for example, appeared to embrace a multilayered, transformative vision, reflecting a blend of goals advocated in the earlier described theoretical conceptions. Conceptual understanding of key civics questions, concepts, structures, and processes, focused skill development, attention to personal values and diverse societal perspectives that guide citizen thinking and

actions, and meaningful involvement in the civic affairs of one's community were general learning goal areas forefronted in both curricula. Some distinctive differences, however, were noticeable. For example, there appeared to be more attention to duties and responsibilities and to religious and spiritual dimensions of citizenship in the English curriculum whereas the provincial curriculum sample in Canada tended to highlight personal values and active participation in different ways. Nonetheless, these assorted policy initiatives reflected important shifts in thinking about what it means to educate for citizenship and provided helpful guidance about what might be considered to be critical characteristics of citizenship as we move through the 21st century.

2.3.3) Curriculum perspectives

As was mentioned earlier in this section "Curriculum is not a neutral document" (Ross, 2001: 1). Curriculum theorists (Eisner, 1985; Miller and Seller, 1985, 1996; Ross, 2000; Wiles and Bondi, 1998) have stressed that particular curriculum perspectives privilege particular learning goals and may guide teachers' choices of pedagogical goals and practices. Different schools of curriculum thought have revealed various orientations. Eisner (1985), for example, identified five basic orientations to the curriculum: development of cognitive processes; academic rationalism; personal relevance; social adaptation and social reconstruction; and curriculum as technology. Miller and Seller (1985) categorised curriculum orientations in terms of transmission, transaction, and transformation. Pratt (1994) identified four broad curriculum orientations: cultural transmission, social transformation, individual fulfillment, and feminist pedagogy. Ross (2000) refers to

three distinct approaches: content-driven, objectives-driven, and process-driven curricula.

For the purposes of this study, I have selected three broad curriculum perspectives that closely align with Miller's 'transmission/transactional/transformational' model (1996) to help provide a sense of differing perspectives that may guide teachers' pedagogical choices and a context for analysing teachers' pedagogical practices and the kinds of learning experiences that are given priority. Miller's model was selected because of its integrated nature and its infusion of many of the central ideas offered by other curriculum theorists. Whatever model one considers, specific perspectives identified are neither exclusive nor exhaustive and there are strong interconnections among them. Particular perspectives do, however, represent differences in focus. Each emphasises particular tendencies in relation to learning goals, ways of approaching the classroom learning environment, teaching practices, and assessment. It should be remembered however, as Pratt (1994: 21) has pointed out, that "most educators do not fall neatly into one of these sharply defined categories. People are more various than that, more unexpected, inconsistent, idiosyncratic, and interesting".

Curriculum perspectives in this model, and for the interests of clarity, are treated as a loosely formulated continuum, with the transmission orientation at one end, and a transformative orientation at the other end. Transmission, transactional, and transformative orientations are briefly outlined below.

Transmission. The “transmission” or “content-driven” orientation is often associated with a functionalist perspective that involves developing or reproducing a reflection of existing societal patterns (Ross, 2001: 5). Core knowledge and skills are “seen as fixed rather than as a process” (Miller, 1996: 6) and to be passed on from one generation to the next generation. Curriculum is viewed in terms of a fairly limited number of academic subject-based disciplines delivered by the teacher, with the requisite expert knowledge, to the student, often represented as the “passive” recipient (Miller, 1996). Pratt (1994: 10) suggests that the transmission orientation has a number of beliefs in common. These include:

- (1) the role of curriculum is primarily intellectual;
- (2) that all or most of what is intellectually significant is to be found in the traditional academic disciplines;
- (3) that the sources of education are essentially literary, to be found in words and symbols;
- (4) that the task of schools is to repair deficits or gaps in people’s understandings;
- (5) that education is a didactic process whereby information is transmitted to the student by means of the spoken word; and
- (6) that particular studies will have general effects.

The classroom-learning environment is viewed primarily as a location where important content is transmitted from the teacher to the student. Classroom resources (e.g. texts, videos) are selected and provided by the teacher for purposes of conveying information. Rules for class behaviour are usually top-down and desks are often organised in rows to ensure that the teacher can directly address students, and that

interruptions by other class members can be minimalised. Classroom space (e.g. bulletin boards) is organised by the teacher and most often conveys important course content. Teaching practices often associated with this orientation have as their aim the mastery of content and basic skills. Teaching activities and strategies that transmit information or basic skills (e.g. mini-lectures, reading or viewing for content, copying notes, practice and drill skill activities) are highlighted. Assessment practices primarily aim to assess knowledge acquisition and /or skill development. Content quizzes and other types of short answer tests (e.g. multiple choice, completion tests) are supported.

Transformative. At the other end of the continuum is the “transformative” orientation. The transformative orientation is often associated with more “reform” and “liberative” perspectives. This orientation focuses the development of the whole person and emphasises personal and social connectivity, not a reduced set of core knowledge or thinking skill intentions (Miller, 1996). Learning in this orientation, according to Miller (1996: 4), integrates “skills that promote personal and social transformation”, “a vision of social change that leads to harmony with the environment”, and acknowledges “a spiritual dimension to the environment”. Political and social change and improvement are advocated in this orientation and it is believed that students ought to be made aware of the political, cultural, historical, and social aspects of their society and of themselves as active and responsible participants in it (Pratt, 1994). Teaching and learning go beyond the transmission of information. Students and teachers are actively engaged in all phases of learning, knowledge is constructed through varying forms of dialectic and collaborative enquiry. The classroom-learning environment is viewed as a location to meet and

discuss ongoing enquiries. Classroom resources are located and selected primarily by students, with the assistance of the teacher, for purposes of working through a particular enquiry or problem related to the curriculum. Rules for class behaviour are worked out mutually and desks are often organised in pods or small groups in order that students can learn cooperatively with their peers. Moving beyond the classroom walls into the broader school and local community contexts is encouraged.

Classroom space (e.g. bulletin boards) is organised by the students and often represents work from their investigations. The teacher's role is largely one of guide and facilitator. Teaching practices often associated with this orientation have as their aim personal integration and social awareness and critique. Teaching activities and strategies that encourage students to critically enquire into various social and political themes and issues and use their findings to bring about personal and/or social change are encouraged. Assessment practices aim to assess personal growth and integration and social awareness. Opportunities for self-evaluation and reflective journals and portfolios are advocated.

Transactional. Somewhere in between is the “transactional” orientation. The transactional orientation, or what some refer to as “instrumentalist”, stresses individual development within the context of social and economic need. In this orientation, there is attention to

objectives that meet specific needs for competencies - of society, of the economy, of the individual - are specified in advance, and a curriculum is drawn up to achieve these objectives. Abilities and capabilities necessary to meet the needs of contemporary life are specified and used to justify the collection of subjects that constitute the curriculum. (Ross, 2001: 8)

Unlike the “transmission” orientation, which views knowledge as something that is largely fixed, the “transactional” orientation reflects “utilitarian” tendencies and views knowledge as something that is changing and can be manipulated (Miller, 1996). Learning goals are achieved through dialogue, cognitive interaction, problem-solving activities or some other form of enquiry. The classroom environment is viewed primarily as a location where problems can be discussed and enquiries carried out between the teacher and the students. Classroom resources (e.g. texts, videos) are located and selected by the student, with the assistance of the teacher within the context of the specified objectives of the curriculum. Rules for class are usually worked out between the teacher and the students and desks are often organised in small groupings to encourage interaction and dialogue. Classroom space is organised by the teacher and the students and most often displays their work. Teaching activities and strategies, often associated with this orientation, have as their aim the development of problem-solving, decision-making, and/or enquiry skills closely aligned with curriculum goals. Independent and group enquiry projects, case study/decision-making approaches, and moral dilemmas of real life issues and events are some of the teaching practices often connected to this orientation. Assessment practices tend to aim to assess the application of cognitive skill processes (e.g. processes involved in carrying out an investigation, resolving a conflict). Evaluation of students’ work usually looks at various steps applied in the process and the actual product. Criteria-referenced -essay answer and performance-based assessments (e.g. checklists, rating-scales, rubrics) are reflective of practices linked with this orientation.

Policy documents in both contexts reveal elements of each of these curriculum perspectives and

it appears that certain learning goals, teaching methods, and approaches to assessment are given priority. As the study proceeds, these perspectives will be used to help understand data across the sample and individual orientations to classroom practice.

2.3.4) Pedagogical practices for citizenship education

While recent reforms in citizenship education curricula in Canada and England have provided both pressure and support for increased attention to pedagogical practice, research about how teachers educate for citizenship has been limited (Davies, 2003; Fogelman and Edwards, 2000; Hughes and Sears, 1996; Kerr, 2000, 2003; Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, Blenkinsop, 2003). Those studies that do exist have tended to be American-focused and have tended to consider discrete aspects of pedagogy related to citizenship education: controversial issues/conflict (Bickmore, 1992; Evans and Saxe, 1996); decision-making and deliberation (Parker, 1996); dissent (Sears and Hughes, 1998); pluralism and equity (Adams, Bell, and Griffin, 1997; Banks, 2001); and global/international content (Pike and Selby, 1988; Merryfield, 1998); and, political participation (Avery, 1997).

Studies of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy are rare in Canada and England. Only a few national (e.g. Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, 2001; Davies, Gregory, and Riley, 1999; Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, and Blenkinsop, 2003) and international studies (e.g. Hahn, 1998; Torney-Purta, Schwille, and Amadeo, 1999; Kerr, 2000) are available to provide some guidance in

this area. Canada, in particular, does not have a specific study in this area, and notions of citizenship education pedagogy, need to be gathered primarily from general literature and curriculum-based documents in this area. The *Civic Education Study*, under the leadership of Torney-Purta, Schwille, and Amadeo (1999) and organisational umbrella of The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), involved a major multinational study (approximately 24 countries) of civic education since 1993, provided some helpful findings. The first phase of the study, for example, examined what students are expected to learn about their nation and citizenship and is summarised in *Civic Education Across Countries: Twenty-four National Case Studies from the IEA Civic Education Project* (1999). It provided some interesting insights about learning goals and pedagogical practices associated with citizenship education. Some of these included (Hahn and Torney-Purta 1999: 425):

- there is a common core of content topics in civic education across countries;
- almost all of the authors of the 24 case study chapters expressed the belief that ‘civic education’ ought to be cross disciplinary, participatory, interactive, related to life, conducted in a non-authoritarian environment, cognizant of the challenges of societal diversity, and co-constructed by schools, parents, and the community;
- there is a widely perceived gap between the goals for democracy expressed in the curriculum and the reality presented by societies and their schools; and
- everywhere diversity is a matter of concern; yet, there is not much sense of the best direction to take in formulating programs.

Davies, Gregory, and Riley’s national study on teachers’ perceptions of concepts of citizenship, reported at BERA (1997) and described in their work, *Good Citizenship and Educational Provision* (1999: 1), provided a detailed account of

their research with over 700 teachers in England to describe “teachers perceptions of good citizenship, their views about the key influences on and threats to the development of good citizenship, and their opinions of what can be done to help promote good citizenship”. The findings from this study are of particular interest to this investigation, in that they provided more specific understandings about teachers’ perceptions of good citizenship, key influences on the development of good citizenship, and the sort of work teachers believe is necessary in schools to promote good citizenship within the English context, prior to becoming a statutory part of the National Curriculum.

Teachers, in this study, tended to associate social concern characteristics (e.g. concern for the welfare of others, meeting community obligations, tolerance of diversity), knowledge characteristics (e.g. knowledge of government, current events and issues, critical thinking), and conservative characteristics (e.g. acceptance of authority, acceptance of assigned responsibilities) with notions of good citizenship (Davies, Gregory, and Riley, 1999: 45-58).

Teachers emphasis on social concern characteristics of citizenship led Davies (2000: 99) to suggest that, while it may be impossible to directly align “one or other of the traditions (e.g. liberal/republican)” with teachers’ perceptions, “perhaps there is closer alignment with a republican tradition if one views the primacy of the moral as an element of that approach”. Study findings suggested certain differences between elementary and secondary teachers’ perceptions. This was particularly noticeable with respect to knowledge characteristics. Secondary teachers, for example, appeared to be more sensitive tended to critical thinking and issues rather than the acquisition of information (e.g. racism, sexism,

democratic rights and responsibilities, international issues, human rights concerns) (1999: 55, 56).

In terms of teaching practices, teachers' suggestions appeared to fall into three categories (1999: 81-83): one, "develop an affinity for the community, mostly community service projects"; two, "act as good role models, personalise discussions and connect the curriculum to the real world, get involved...and don't label it"; and three, "develop a sense of interdependence, those that teach students to question, and those that look at a range of issues and teach students how to use debating skills". In terms of assessment, there was less clarity and a "common sense" approach to the use of assessment methods was advocated,

At the moment there are remarkably few positive developments, and very radical thinking may be required if citizenship education is to be taken seriously (Whitty et al. 1996). Few of our teachers were able to suggest ways forward. However, it is possible to see much good work in citizenship education being perpetrated through the study of traditional subjects. But 'themes' and 'subjects' do have very different conceptual parameters and one needs to be particularly alert to the nature of intended learning outcomes and appropriate assessment methods in order that valuable work should occur.
(1999: 104)

Concerns were raised that assessment approaches were understood "only superficially" and that significant work lay ahead in working through "what constitutes successful achievement" and how it might be assessed.

The *Citizenship Education Thematic Study*, under the leadership of David Kerr, was undertaken in 1999 as part of the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks (IRCAF) Project (2). The IRCAF Project involved an international review of curriculum and assessment frameworks in 16 countries and

was managed by NFER for the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). Sixteen countries were involved: Australia, Canada, England, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Korea, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Singapore, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the USA. This study aimed to provide: descriptions of practice in the countries concerned; consideration of contextual factors; and an analysis of fundamental issues. The study, according to Kerr (2000: 1,2) combined material from the IRCAF Project, specific enquiries about citizenship education addressed to the 16 countries, discussion at the invitational seminar on Citizenship Education, held in London, in January 1999, and published sources such as the National Case Study chapters from Phase 1 of the IEA Citizen Education Study. The conclusions from this study are of particular interest to this investigation, in that they provided more specific understandings about curriculum goals, teaching and learning approaches, the use of textbooks and other resources, and assessment. Some of the important findings from this study included (Kerr 2000: 5-10):

- citizenship education in the secondary curriculum is still organised through an integrated approach in most countries, but often as a discrete, explicit component alongside other subjects and aspects. The most common approach is through social studies or social science courses, where citizenship or civics is closely linked to the subjects of history and geography;
- teaching practices have moved in many countries away from narrow, knowledge-based approach to citizenship ed., to a broader approach encompassing knowledge and understanding, active experiences and development of student values, dispositions, skills and aptitudes...it is accepted in all countries that there is still a substantial variety in approach from school to school and classroom to classroom;
- the transition to a broader approach is proving difficult to manage in a number of countries because of the impact, in particular, of teacher culture and beliefs and the slow adaptation of schools to change;
- the continuing gap between the rhetoric of policy and the reality of practice in many contexts, from the national level down to individual school and classroom level...There is still a long way to go to ensure

that effective practice in citizenship education is developed and sustained within and across countries;

- these (textbooks, author's word) still underpin the teaching of citizenship education in most countries. They play an important role in determining the approach in classrooms and therefore in shaping pupil experiences. There is a danger when there is an over reliance on textbooks which emphasise acquisition of knowledge above more active, participatory experiences, for this can sometimes disaffect both teachers and pupils;
- most countries have a mixture of summative and formative assessment arrangements in citizenship education and a growing debate about exams; and
- the need for urgent coordination and dissemination of approaches, programmes and initiatives in citizenship education that are developing effective practice. This is best achieved through the establishment of a citizenship education database within and across countries.

The *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* (Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, Blenkinsop, 2003), recently commissioned by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) to study citizenship in schools over eight years, and under the auspices of The Department of Education and Skills (DfES), has been designed to,

track a cohort of young people who entered secondary school in 2002: a group that comprises some of the first students to have a statutory entitlement to citizenship education. The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study aims to identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which 'effective practice' in citizenship education develops in schools so that such practice can be promoted wisely.
(Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, Blenkinsop, 2003: 1)

Some of the early findings, from phase 1 of the study, revealed that:

- schools employed a diversity of approaches in the delivery of citizenship education;
- a significant number of teachers felt unprepared for the introduction of citizenship education as a statutory subject; and

- delivery plans for citizenship education have largely been drawn up by school leaders with little or no consultation with teachers and students.

In addition, early findings indicated a “considerable gap that exists between the policy aims for citizenship and the actual practice in schools”. In terms of teaching practices and assessment approaches, teachers reported,

that teacher-led approaches to citizenship-related topics were predominant in the classroom, with more participatory, active approaches much less commonly used. Teachers relied on their own and media sources in their planning for citizenship education and had little or no experience of assessing student outcomes. Just over four-fifths of teachers (83%) and just under four fifths of college tutors (79%) said that they did not assess students in citizenship education. (Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, Blenkinsop, 2003: vii)

Understandings of pedagogical practice may also be gleaned from newly developed texts, resource materials, and websites, which suggest a slightly more different picture. In Canada, as the goals of citizenship education have broadened, there has been clear evidence of educators exploring pedagogical approaches that effectively accommodate complex learning goals associated with citizenship education. Canadian teachers, wishing to explore and integrate new understandings of citizenship into classroom and school-based practices, have found a host of ideas to inform and guide their work both locally and internationally (Chamberlin, 1992; Evans and Lavelle, 1996; Glassford, 1996/1997; Pike and Selby, 2000). Osborne's work (1994, 1998), in particular, has provided helpful guidance for teachers. He has emphasised the importance of creating an open, trusting and collaborative classroom climate and the value of a ‘problems-based’ approach. He has stressed that all students should have an opportunity through their school curriculum to develop a deepened understanding of Canada and the world. He has also identified problem-formulating, value-

creating, anticipation, participation, focus on the future, autonomy, critical judgment, integration, and a global orientation as critical capacities that teachers ought to be nurturing to help students become active and participating citizens.

Recent reforms in curricula across Canada have sparked pedagogical work related to emerging understandings of citizenship education. Various websites, texts, and resource materials (e.g. Historica's *YouthLinks*, UNICEF Canada's *Global Schoolhouse*, CIDA's *Youth Zone*, *Citizenship: issues and action*, Kielburgers' *Take action: a guide to active citizenship*, and Classroom Connections *Cultivating a culture of peace in the 21st century*) provide a rich array of performance-based classroom ideas and activities. Case analysis, public issue research projects, model town councils, peace-building programs, community participation activities, public information exhibits, online international linkages, and youth forums are types of classroom and school-wide activities that are being encouraged to assist young people to learn about the principles and practices of citizenship.

Current instructional initiatives like Case's *Critical Challenges Across the Curriculum Series*, the Canadian International Development Agency's (CIDA) *Global Classroom Initiative*, and the Library of Parliament's *Teachers' Institute on Parliamentary Democracy* are providing helpful ideas for analysing and designing effective instruction, with the underlying intent to encourage young Canadians to become informed and involved citizens. These development initiatives have been complemented with research support. Research support initiatives like the Citizenship Education Research Network (CERN), created in

the late 1990s under the leadership of Yvonne Hébert, brought together researchers, policy makers, and educational practitioners interested in carrying out systematic long-term research in the area of citizenship education in order to build a national capacity for this focus of research.

Recent reforms in citizenship education curricula in England have generated a flurry of development pedagogical interest and activity in recent years. While research studies in this area are minimal, those that do exist suggest growing attention to citizenship education pedagogy in three distinct curriculum contexts: explicit courses on citizenship; in mainstream courses (e.g. History, Personal, Social, and Health Education (PSHE), and Religious Education) that integrate the goals of the Citizenship curricula; and, in whole school approaches. Examples of whole school approaches, according to Davies (2003: 51), have included mock elections, school councils, special commemorative days (e.g. United Nations Day), peer mediation programs, and community service initiatives, and have been supported by organisations such as the Hansard Society, Schools Council UK, the Citizenship Foundation, the Institute for Citizenship, and Community Service Volunteers (CSV).

Official advice on citizenship education pedagogy has been provided on a variety of fronts. The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), with the input of teachers has produced, suggested pedagogical advice in terms of teaching [www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes] and assessment practices [www.gca.org.uk] for Key Stages 3 and 4, with supporting Schemes of Work. The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) has produced a framework for

the inspection of citizenship, in order to inform inspectors about what they should be inspecting in relation to Citizenship (www.ofsted.gov.uk). The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) has established a new dedicated Citizenship website with a range of resources [www.dfes.gov.uk/citizenship] to support the Citizenship curricula. DFES has also funded a range of curriculum development projects.

As in Canada, teachers in England are finding a host of ideas to inform and guide their pedagogical practice and a rich array of performance-based classroom ideas and activities to support citizenship education pedagogy has emerged. The Citizenship Foundation, for example, has developed a range of activity-based teaching ideas and source materials that have been piloted in schools. An examination of their website [www.citfou.org.uk] reveals a range of thematic examples of pedagogical practice (e.g. thinking skills, youth councils, tolerance, active community work). Huddleston and Rowe's work on issues of moral concern (2001), Thorpe's case study resource pack on understanding citizenship through the study of contemporary issues (2001, 2002), and Supple's attention to active global citizenship (2003) are worthy of special mention. The Centre for Citizenship Studies in Education at the University of Leicester has developed a range of curricular and pedagogical materials to support teachers' work in schools. Their portal site for teachers to explore the global dimension of Citizenship education [www.citizenship-global.org.uk] is particularly notable in this regard. It provides a range of pedagogical ideas around issues such as racism, the plight of refugees, and international governance. The newly established Association for Citizenship Teaching (ACT) provides professional support, knowledge and good practice, skills and resources for the teaching and learning of

Citizenship in schools. Its journal, *Teaching Citizenship*, edited by Graham Morris, examines, reviews, and reports current developments in citizenship education with particular attention to the discussion and sharing of practical pedagogical information for the teaching of citizenship education. In addition, various texts, resource materials, and support websites (e.g. The Hansard Society's resources on parliamentary democracy, OXFAM's *Cool Planet* website, the British Youth Council's peer education and youth councils materials, *The Young Citizen's Passport*, *The Changemakers'* initiative, and The Institute for Citizenship's *Activate Series*) have been developed, reflecting significant pedagogical work underway.

A variety of professional learning activities are underway to support the Citizenship initiative. A variety of professional learning activities have been initiated to encourage the growth of professional and training "communities of practice". New one year initial teacher preparation courses have been set up under the auspices of the TTA (Teacher Training Agency), funding for the Advanced Skills Teacher (AST) professional learning support, and the establishment of the itt citized (Initial Teacher Training for Citizenship Education and funded by the Teacher Training Agency) network are examples of curricular and pedagogical support. The itt citized network, in particular, provides various forms of pedagogical support through its website, newsletters, conferences, and commissioned research. There have also been a variety of research support activities initiated to "identify, measure and evaluate the extent to which 'effective practice' in citizenship education develops in schools so that such practice can be promoted more widely" (Kerr, 2003: 10). The National Foundation for Educational Research's (NFER) longitudinal study of citizenship education over 8 years is an example. International research support is also evident through

organisations like the International Association for Citizenship, Social and Economics Education (IACSEE) which provides professional learning support and a research journal that informs educators about relevant developments in citizenship education, largely from a European perspective.

There appears to be a growing amount of advice available for educators in both countries about effective pedagogy for citizenship education. New understandings of citizenship are informing educators about what critical capacities are required for meaningful civic engagement and for dealing with complex public issues of local and global proportions. New understandings about how we educate for citizenship are informing approaches to teaching and learning that most effectively achieve the complex learning intentions. Furthermore, there is growing evidence of efforts to provide different opportunities for professional learning to address these new understandings. A cursory examination of these practices reveals the emergence of a range of activities and strategies that have the potential to attend to deepened conceptual understanding, substantive public issue investigation (from the local to the global), critical judgement and communication, personal and interpersonal understanding, provision for community involvement and political participation, and authenticity - a focus on real life themes, contexts, and performances. Emerging approaches to teaching and learning are appearing to emphasise a weaving of these many integrated capacities in cross-disciplinary and participatory approaches. Furthermore, suggestions are being provided that integrate whole school approaches in ways that best respond to the learning intentions. The use of case studies, the development of decision making and cooperative learning structures, the infusion of substantive and procedural concepts, international telecommunications linkages, peer

mentoring and conflict resolution programs, and the use of literature to teach civic virtues are a few of the pedagogical practices being investigated and encouraged to assist young people learn about the principles and practices of citizenship.

Research studies about how teachers educate for citizenship have tended to paint a rather pessimistic picture of pedagogical practice. Understandings, gathered from newly developed texts, resource materials, and websites, however, suggest a more encouraging picture. Whichever is more accurate, it is apparent that characterisations of educating for citizenship are rather unclear and continue to reveal varying purposes and diverse pedagogical practices. Davies (2000: 93) has reminded us that,

during the last few decades (in England) that there has been something of a confusing and confused situation. It seems as there has never been a point at which an initiative in this field has been simultaneously successfully and clearly articulated by academics and teachers and legitimated by central and or local government or professional bodies. The debates have been characterised largely by assertion and counter assertion as opposed to findings based on research into classroom practice or teachers' thinking.

I would argue that Davies' reminder rings true for the Canadian context as well.

There is an almost non-existent research base on citizenship education pedagogy, and it remains rather unclear, what is being practised in the name of citizenship education in the classrooms and schools in either country.

2.4) Towards a suitably sophisticated pedagogy for citizenship education

In recent years, research on pedagogical practice has suggested the need for a more sophisticated conceptual understanding of pedagogy, one that attends to the technical competencies in relation to critical knowledge bases and contextual

forces that ought to inform this practice. Some of the developments are discussed below.

2.4.1) Pedagogy and its importance in student learning

There is growing evidence that a teacher's pedagogy is one of the most important factors in determining student learning. According to Darling-Hammond (1998: 6), "teachers who know a lot about teaching and learning and who work in environments that allow them to know students are the critical elements of successful learning". Teachers are the ones ultimately responsible to work creatively with their students, to translate and shape curricular goals and theoretical notions into effective classroom and school-wide practices, and to provide an environment for effective learning. As Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun (2000: 6) note,

How teaching is conducted has a large impact on students' abilities to educate themselves. Successful teachers are not simply charismatic and persuasive presenters. Rather, they engage their students in robust cognitive and social tasks, and teach the students how to use them productively.

Reviews of several hundred studies contradict the longstanding myths that "anyone can teach" and that "teachers are born and not made" ... "the most successful teachers not only have adequate preparation in their subject matter, they have also studied the art and science of teaching" (Darling-Hammond 1998: 7). Highly competent teachers are able to apply a range of pedagogical practices that are appropriate for particular curriculum goals, diverse learner characteristics, and circumstances. They build up a complex pedagogical repertoire that incorporates and integrates understandings of the curriculum, subject matter, processes of teaching and learning, characteristics of diverse learners, and the learning context(s).

2.4.2) Definitions of pedagogy

Definitions of pedagogy have tended to highlight different elements. Watkins and Mortimore's (1999: 2) definition, for example, stressed that pedagogy is "any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance the learning of another".

Alexander's (1999: 149) definition, "the purposeful mix of educational values and principles in action, of planning, content, strategy, and technique, of learning and assessment, and of relationships both instrumental and affective", heightened attention to its theoretical underpinnings and delineated a range of activities.

Bennett's and Rolheiser's (2001: 15) definition, "the ensemble of instructional concepts, skills, tactics, strategies, and organisers available to teachers to create learning environments that encourage students to learn", further focused attention on a range of specific types of practices and, more explicitly, acknowledged the learning environment.

2.4.3) Research on pedagogy

Research on pedagogy, according to Watkins and Mortimore (1999: 3-8), has moved through four distinct phases in recent decades:

1. a focus on different styles of teaching;
2. a focus on the contexts of teaching;
3. a focus on teaching and learning; and
4. an emerging focus on an increasingly integrated conception which attends to technical competencies of teaching in relationship to critical knowledge bases and contextual forces.

Early studies of pedagogy tended to forefront teachers' pedagogical styles. Styles were typically polarised (e.g. authoritarian/democratic, traditional/progressive,

teacher-centered/student centered) and focused solely on the teacher. Empirical studies of teachers' pedagogical practices revealed that these polarised understandings were rather simplistic and, in action, rare. Gradually, attention shifted to a focus on the relationship between contextual factors and pedagogy, introducing more sophisticated understandings of pedagogy. Classroom contexts (e.g. inner city; rural), and how teachers managed and orchestrated multiple learning activities within them, added a layer of complexity that went beyond studies that tended to focus primarily on a teacher's style. How teachers make decisions about pedagogy extended to considerations of the complexities of a live classroom. Various studies (Cuban, 1993) revealed that teachers display significant differences in how they respond to the contextual factors of a classroom and/or a school, and that their pedagogical practices are often enhanced or inhibited by these factors.

A focus on the study of teaching and learning added yet another layer of complexity to understandings of pedagogy. Various studies emerged during in the 1980s and 1990's that considered the qualities of an effective teacher and the intricate processes of teaching, in relation to various theories of cognition (e.g. constructivism) and meta-cognition. Hunter's *Instructional Theory into Practice* (1976), Marzano et al.'s *Dimensions of Learning* (1992), Wiggins and McTighe's *Understanding by Design* (1998), Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun's *Models of Teaching* (2000), Bennett and Rolheiser's *Beyond Monet: The Artful Science of Instructional Integration* (2001) were illustrative of this focus.

One example, *Models of Teaching* (Joyce and Weil, with Calhoun, 2000) is perhaps the most illustrative of this focus on teaching processes and is studied widely. It

provides a helpful framework for thinking about pedagogical approaches and practices in more holistic and integrated ways, rather than seeing pedagogy as simply a collection of isolated activities. This framework, the product of grounded enquiry, attempts to respond to the complex and integrated understandings of teaching and learning. Furthermore, it provides varying perspectives, within which reflection and discussion might take place, ongoing professional learning might be stimulated, and thoughtful pedagogical choices made to advance both theoretical sophistication and technical know-how. It outlines four broad instructional families - the social family, the information-processing family, the personal orientation family, and the behavioural systems family.

Models of Teaching (Joyce and Weil, with Calhoun, 2000)

The social family

This family of models emphasises “our social nature, how we learn social behaviour, and how social interaction can enhance academic learning”. Classroom and school contexts are viewed small communities rather than a collection of individuals and there is a strong focus within this orientation on social learning, including the capacities for democratic citizenship (e.g. from making decisions to resolving conflict in group situation). Pedagogical practices identified with this orientation include cooperative learning (Johnson and Johnson, Kagan, Slavin), group investigation (Dewey, Thelen, Sharan), role playing (Shaftel), and jurisprudential enquiry (Oliver and Shaver) approaches.

The information-processing family

This family of models focuses primarily on a person’s capacity to think, ways in which acquire and organise information, ways in which we learn about concepts, and ways in which we think and construct knowledge. The focus in this orientation is on a person’s capacity to think, including the capacity to analyse social values, to weigh evidence, to clarify public issues, and to think critically, learning intentions often associated with aspects of citizenship education. Pedagogical practices identified with this orientation include inductive thinking (Taba, Joyce), concept attainment (Bruner), mnemonics (Pressley), advanced organisers (Ausubel), and enquiry training (Suchman) approaches.

The personal family

This family of models concentrates on ‘the development of our personal selves, how persons develop their identities as a result of experience, negotiations, and context. There is a strong emphasis on themes such as self-confidence, empathy for others, self-directed learning, and self-actualisation. Pedagogical practices identified with this orientation include nondirective teaching (Rogers) and enhancing self-esteem (Maslow) approaches.

The behavioural systems family

This family of models emphasises that a wide range of educational goals from learning to read to developing athletic skills to unlearning certain problematic behaviours. This orientation has a long history and different terms - learning theory, social learning theory, behaviour modification, and behaviour theory. Pedagogical practices identified in this orientation include mastery learning (Bloom), direct instruction (Good and Brophy), social learning (Bandura), programmed learner (Skinner).

In recent years, research on pedagogy is suggesting a more complex conceptual focus that connects technical competencies with different kinds of knowledge bases and contextual forces (Bennett, Anderson, and Evans, 1997; Mortimore, 1999; Turner-Bisset, 2001). Mortimore (1999: 8), for example, has argued for a more deeply integrated conceptualisation of the study of pedagogy that considers

relations between its elements: the teacher, the classroom, or other context, content, the view of learning, and learning about learning...this model of pedagogy would also be increasingly differentiated by details of context, content, age and stage of learner, purposes and so on.

Turner-Bisset (2001: 7) has made a similar appeal. She has argued that while earlier studies of the qualities and processes of effective pedagogy were helpful, they were in many ways illustrative of “tip of the iceberg” approaches and lacked attention to varying dimensions of knowledge required for effective teaching. Referring back to Shulman’s work (1986, 1987), and to types of research on pedagogy that have occurred since that time, she has encouraged a shift in focus to one that carefully considers a more deeply integrated conception of pedagogy, one that attends to the wide range of knowledge bases informing and guiding practice and explores the interconnections between and among these knowledge bases in relation to teaching practices. Turner-Bisset (2001: 19), for example, suggested certain “knowledge bases are essential for the most expert teaching, which demonstrates pedagogical content knowledge in its most comprehensive form”. She identified eleven interacting factors under the general theme of ‘Pedagogical Content Knowledge’. These include: substantive subject knowledge; syntactic subject knowledge; beliefs about the subject; curriculum knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; models of teaching; knowledge of learners: cognitive; knowledge of learners: empirical;

knowledge of self; knowledge of educational contexts; and knowledge of educational ends.

A common theme running across this emergent focus is the belief that pedagogy, in its most comprehensive form, uses – and is influenced by - different kinds of knowledge, in various combinations, and that studies of pedagogy ought to be undertaken within this context of integration and complexity.

2.4.4) Teachers' characterisations of pedagogy

Research on teachers' characterisations of pedagogy has also been gaining attention.

While educational researchers and teachers may work in similar contexts, their characterisations tend to emerge from different perspectives and circumstances.

Teachers are more often involved in the selection and translation of curriculum goals specific, to a particular context in which they work whereas researchers often use theory as the basis for their understanding of issues and problems. Research on teachers' characterisations of pedagogy, according to Watkins and Mortimore (1999: 3-8), has revealed at least four areas of focus as well. These include:

1. a focus on different styles of teaching;
2. a focus on the qualities of good teaching;
3. a focus on conceptions of teaching; and
4. a focus on factors that both inform and/or constrain teachers' pedagogical practices.

Some studies have emphasised 'teaching styles', in the same way that researchers have done. Bi-polar characterisations, or what some refer to as "thinking-in-twos" (e.g. student-centered/teacher -centered), have been evident, as have been

more personalised understandings. According to Watkins and Mortimore (1999: 9),

teachers may simply describe their approach in terms of a contrast in style which they attribute to others. So the simplified bi-polar concepts such as formal-informal are likely to be found in their conversations.

Other studies have tended to emphasise teachers' characterisations of pedagogy in terms of the qualities of good teaching. Various research studies (Hay McBer Report, DfEE 2000; Kyriacou, 1997) reveal various lists of "critical qualities" necessary for effective pedagogy gleaned from studies with teachers. Johnson (1990), for example, found when he interviewed teachers about their work, that they cited the following elements: grouping of pupils; physical and social climate; learning centres and activities; classroom management; pupil evaluation; teacher morale; pupil achievement; instructional practices; teacher planning; and the student/teacher relationship. While these types of studies convey a clear awareness of the multidimensional nature of classroom pedagogy, they also reveal at times rather simplified explanations of their teaching.

Some studies have tended to focus on teachers' multilayered and multifaceted conceptions of teaching. In particular, there has been close attention to the relationship between curriculum goals and teaching strategies used in the classroom or school context (Trigwell and Prosser, 1996). Samuelowicz and Bain (1992), for example, located teachers' conceptions on a continuum:

1. Imparting information
2. Transmitting knowledge
3. Facilitating understanding
4. Changing students' conceptions
5. Supporting student learning

Marzano et al. (1992) have explained teachers' conceptions around five interconnected dimensions:

1. Positive attitudes and perceptions about learning
2. Acquiring and integrating knowledge
3. Extending and refining knowledge
4. Using knowledge meaningfully
5. Productive habits of mind

These studies have tended to reveal more complex and sophisticated understandings of pedagogy by teachers (particularly among experienced teachers) and a sense that pedagogy involves a highly complex set of interconnected understandings and practices that differ from teacher to teacher and from context to context. They've also revealed that teachers' conceptions do not always tell the whole story, what teachers "say" and what they "do" do not always align. These studies have tended to also include a more explicit focus on teachers' understandings of those factors that appear to either enhance and/or restrict one's pedagogical practices. Teachers' understandings of subject knowledge, teachers' views of learning, and the everyday constraints of the classroom/school are examples of these factors.

2.4.5) Toward improved pedagogical practice

Educational researchers and practitioners have recently taken up this call for a more integrated complex understanding of pedagogy (Bennett, Anderson, and Evans, 1997; Cole and Knowles, 2000; Hallam and Ireson, 1999; Hill, 2002). Hallam and Ireson (1999: 71), for example, have focused on a possible framework for understanding pedagogy in the secondary education context that identifies six interconnected criteria:

- Consideration of the aims of education and the values that underpin teaching;
- Knowledge of theories of learning;
- Knowledge of different conceptions of teaching;
- Knowledge of models of teaching and learning and of the dynamic interaction between student characteristics, the characteristics of the learning environment, task demands, the process of learning and teaching and different kinds of learning;
- Understanding of how these can be operationalised in the classroom; and
- Knowledge and skills for evaluating practice, research, and theory, relating to education.

Another example, *Productive Pedagogies* (Hill, 2002), developed for the Queensland, Australia context by the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (SRLS) Group, offers a more recent framework for thinking about classroom pedagogy. It highlights four broad dimensions - intellectual quality, relevance, supportive classroom environment, and recognition of difference. *Productive Pedagogies* is not a specific strategy but rather a way of thinking about pedagogy that attempts to respond empirically to two central questions: “What classroom practices contribute to increased student learning for all students?” and, “What classroom practices contribute to more equitable student learning?” This framework requires teachers to think more deliberately about what and how they are teaching, the learning styles and backgrounds of their students, and the contexts in which they are teaching.

The framework includes twenty “productive pedagogies” believed to improve the quality of instruction. Of particular importance is its attention to the “recognition of difference”, a dimension often under-represented in other approaches. Various educators and researchers in schools in Queensland and New South Wales, Australia have been involved in aspects of its implementation, assorted research studies, and

the development of a number of classroom resources. Studies on the use of the *Productive Pedagogies* framework have tended to be positive in terms of student learning and of increased teachers' familiarity with and use of a broader range of high quality instructional approaches, and knowledge bases informing these approaches (New South Wales Department of Education and Training 2003: 4). The following is a brief overview of the four interwoven dimensions in the *Productive Pedagogies* framework:

Productive Pedagogies (New South Wales Department of Education and Training 2003)

Dimension 1: Intellectual Quality

This dimension focuses on knowledge acquisition and knowledge-in-use. Instructional approaches are encouraged that require students to demonstrate deepened understandings and perform tasks that reflect higher order thinking, problem solving, and constructivist forms of thinking rather than the transmission of information.

- Higher-order thinking
- Deep knowledge
- Deep understanding
- Substantive conversation
- Knowledge as problematic
- Metalanguage

Dimension 2: Relevance

This dimension emphasises the need to ensure that the focus of learning be relevant to students and to themes and/or issues of significance outside the classroom. Instructional approaches that help students examine real issues and real world problems and make connections to their past experiences and background knowledge and the world beyond the classroom are encouraged.

- Knowledge integration
- Background knowledge
- Connectedness to the world
- Problem-based curriculum

Dimension 3: Supportive Classroom Environment

This dimension focuses on the importance of creating an inclusive learning environment that is respectful and attentive to the diverse learning needs of all students, particularly for students from disadvantaged backgrounds. Instructional approaches that provide social support for students' achievement, academic engagement, and a high degree of self-regulation and direction are encouraged.

- Student direction
- Social support
- Academic engagement
- Explicit quality performance criteria
- Self-regulation

Dimension 4: Recognition of Difference

This element often silent in other instructional approaches, focuses on the importance of valuing individual and cultural difference, in particular non-dominant cultural knowledges. Instructional approaches that attend to the "recognition of differences" and "encompass inclusivity of non-dominant groups" are stressed.

- Cultural knowledges

- Inclusivity
- Narrative
- Group identity
- Active Citizenship

Each example provided above, in its own way, provides a brief sampling of attempts to explore deepened understandings of pedagogy. Central to each is an emerging focus on an increasingly integrated conception of pedagogy that attends to technical competencies of teaching in relationship to critical knowledge bases and contextual forces.

2.4.6) A language of pedagogy

Current research on pedagogy has also led to more attention to the language of pedagogy. Any attempt to describe and compare teachers' pedagogy must deal with the often-reported absence of a commonly shared language among teachers. While experience suggests that teachers who share similar professional learning experiences, or who work in similar schools or school districts, may employ common ways of talking about pedagogy, it was not assumed in this study that teachers use similar terminology, nor that they give similar meanings to similar terms. To ensure clearer understanding of language, a great deal of time was used, probing the use of language and its meaning in the varied contexts. As a backdrop for my own understanding of respondents use of terminology, I found the following pedagogical terms (Rolheiser and Bennett, 2001: 15) useful in this study to help clarify my own use of the terms and to provide some basis for exploring respondents' meanings.

A Framework For Talking and Thinking About Pedagogy

Pedagogy. The ensemble of instructional concepts, skills, tactics, strategies, and organisers available to teachers to create learning environments which encourage students to learn.

Instruction. The ideas and actions that teachers use to shape student learning, and which teachers conventionally describe as “teaching.” It represents one significant component of the teaching and learning process. Others would include such areas as content or curriculum expertise and classroom management expertise.

Instructional repertoire. The set of instructional ideas and practices that teachers select, apply, and reflect upon in their instructional planning and teaching (Fullan, Bennett, Rolheiser-Bennett, 1990).

Instructional concepts. General concepts which teachers often use to describe what they endeavor to enact in their teaching, such as ‘variety’, ‘relevance’, ‘humour’, and ‘caring’. Instructional concepts guide rather than prescribe specific courses of action.

Instructional organisers. Lenses through which teachers make sense of and design the teaching and learning process. Examples include Multiple Intelligences, learning styles, and Bloom’s Cognitive Taxonomy.

Instructional strategies. Complex instructional practices that involve a sequence of steps for the teacher and students. These often have generic applicability across grade levels and subject areas. Examples include the jigsaw method of cooperative learning, mind mapping, concept attainment, and simulation. Other complex instructional strategies may be grounded in a particular curriculum area, such as guided reading or literature circles.

Instructional tactics (activities). Actions that involve students and which are usually invoked by the teacher to achieve a specific purpose. Like strategies, tactics may involve steps; however, they are less complex than instructional strategies and are not designed to make as big an effect on student learning. Examples include de Bono’s CoRT program (e.g., PMI [Plus, Minus, Interesting]; EBS [Examine Both Sides of an Argument]) and Kagan’s simpler cooperative learning methods (e.g. Think/Pair/Share, Inside Outside Circles).

2.5) Pedagogy and citizenship education

This chapter has provided a brief historical snapshot of what it has meant to educate for citizenship within the school curriculum in Canada and England throughout the twentieth century, revealing a shift in purposes and practices. It contends that educating for citizenship has tended to move through three general phases: characterisations in the early 20th century which forefronted social and political initiation; characterisations in the post world war II era which witnessed expanding boundaries in terms of conception and practice; and in recent years, characterisations that underscore an emergent, multi-layered, transformative vision. Next, the chapter argued that understandings of pedagogical practice, understood within the context of more recent characterisations, is unclear in schools in both countries. Lastly, the chapter outlined that evolving understandings of pedagogy and recent approaches to

the study of pedagogy are becoming conceptually more sophisticated and that determining 'what' and 'how' young people should learn, and do learn about citizenship, remains a complex curriculum challenge.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 outlines elements of the research design and explains how the research process unfolded. This chapter begins by describing the central aims of the study and explaining its rationale. A pilot study that preceded the main study, and the purposes that it served, is then described. The design of the main research study and the steps followed in the study are then delineated. Attention is given to central and subsidiary research questions, the research orientation and its justification, sampling, data collection, and analysis. Issues of reliability and validity are then discussed, followed by considerations of ethical matters and a summary of the study's timetable. Critical methodological issues and relevant research literature are addressed and incorporated throughout the chapter.

The chapter is organised into five sections:

3.1) Aims and rationale

3.2) A pilot study

3.3) The main research study

3.3.1) Timetable summary

3.3.2) Research questions

3.3.3) Research orientation and its justification

3.3.4) The sample

3.3.4.1) Teaching experience

3.3.4.2) Educational background and area of teaching responsibility

3.3.4.3) Curriculum leadership

3.3.4.4) Initial awareness about citizenship education

3.3.4.5) Sources of interest in citizenship education

3.3.4.6) Six teachers selected from the sample for further enquiry

3.3.5) Data collection: Methods and sources

3.3.5.1) Postal self-completion questionnaire

3.3.5.2) Face-to-face interviews

3.3.5.3) Classroom observation

3.3.5.4) Documents

3.3.6) Analysis

3.3.7) Reliability and validity

3.3.8) Ethical considerations

3.1) Aims and rationale

Broadly stated, the study aimed to:

- illuminate ways in which a sample of specialist secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in formal secondary school curriculum courses/ programmes in Canada and England.

More specifically, the study aimed to:

- identify and explain the contrasting range of preferred pedagogical goals and practices communicated and exhibited by specialist teachers in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes when educating for citizenship;
- appraise the potential implications of these specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in terms of the kinds of learning experiences foregrounded, the respective policy contexts, and broader theoretical curriculum perspectives; and

- reveal and analyse factors that appeared to relate to specialist teachers’

characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy.

A study of citizenship education pedagogy was timely. There had been a renewed interest in citizenship education worldwide and teachers, teacher educators, policy-makers, and researchers, working in this curriculum area were asking a variety of questions about the complex processes by which young people learn about democratic citizenship (Davies, 2001; Hahn and Torney-Purta, 1999; Ichilov, 1998; Sears and Hughes, 1996). Few studies had focused on citizenship education pedagogy and researchers lamented about the general lack of, and advocated for more, empirical research in this area (Alexander, 1999; Fogelman and Edwards, 2000; Davies, 2003; Kerr, 2000, 2003; Sears, Clark, and Hughes, 1999). This concern was further reinforced by the growing recognition among education researchers more generally, that “what teachers know and do is one of the most important influences on what students learn” (Darling-Hammond, 1998: 6).

Comparativists (Alexander, 1999; Broadfoot, 2004; Crossley, 2002) were voicing similar concerns about the general lack of empirical research on pedagogy and identified pedagogy as an important and substantive research direction for the future.

Alexander (1999: 109), for example, commented that “comparativists have largely ignored school and classroom processes and have tended to concentrate on national systems and policies” and that this imbalance needs to be corrected and that “pedagogy” ought to be “a central focus for educational research”.

Reasons for choosing to undertake this study in Ontario, Canada and in England were primarily academic and professional, but also pragmatic and opportunistic. Canada

and England, with shared traditions and a similar educational focus on citizenship education, appeared to provide rich research contexts to inform, and contribute to, both the theoretical and practical aspects of pedagogy in this curriculum area (Crossley and Watson, 2003). Although the two countries are clearly distinct in many ways (e.g. size, population, and demography), they share a common heritage, are similar economically, advocate liberal “western” pluralistic democratic beliefs, and use similar governance structures and processes. They also face some common challenges. Issues of diversity, centralised compared with decentralised forms of governing, and low levels of civic understanding and participation of most people (but especially young people) are persisting challenges being addressed in both national contexts.

Current versions of citizenship education in both countries are sufficiently similar to allow for an interesting and valid exploration of responses to common challenges and it was anticipated that a comparative orientation could offer important insights into this educational undertaking and the challenges it presents. Citizenship education in Canada was undergoing somewhat of a renewal. In Ontario, in particular, a new compulsory *Civics* course (OME The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10, Canadian and World Studies, 1999) for all grade 10 students had been introduced, and broader reform initiatives had made the goal of responsible citizenship more explicit throughout the curriculum (OME Ontario Secondary Schools Grades 9 to 12 Program and Diploma Requirements, 1999). Citizenship education in England was undergoing what appeared to be a more significant shift. The Citizenship Order (DfEE/QCA, 1999) created a new foundation subject *Citizenship*, for pupils 11 to 16, as a new statutory component of the National Curriculum (September 2002) and part

of a non-statutory framework alongside Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) for pupils 5 to 11 (Kerr, 2000: 73).

Furthermore, it was anticipated that a comparative emphasis could contribute to “improved practice” and “the preparation of more insightful educators and, so, in the nurturing of more thoughtful classrooms” (Kubow and Fossum, 2003: 254). It should be noted, however, that this study was not intended to be a comparison that aimed to borrow or transplant one country’s educational ideas and/or practices in another.

Vulliamy, among others, has warned us of the limitations of these types of comparisons (Vulliamy, 1998). Rather, the comparative dimension used here, aims to deepen our understanding about how citizenship education pedagogy has been taken up ‘among’ and ‘between’ teachers in two differing national contexts, as a necessary prerequisite for informed treatment in either country. Interest in enriching my own professional understanding of another educational context and moving beyond the familiarity of my own ‘backyard’ was also an important motivating factor.

My professional and academic interest in political education in general, and education for citizenship in particular, were factors as well. Interest in political education and how teachers educate for citizenship originated while working on my Master’s degree in political studies and was later deepened when I was teaching History and Social Science courses in secondary schools in southern Ontario. This interest was later reinforced in my role as an instructional and teacher education consultant within a large public district school board and now in my work as a teacher educator at a faculty of education. The complexities and issues associated

with teachers' pedagogical practice have continued to be the focus of much of my academic interest and professional work and have been an important driving force underpinning this study. Lastly, it should also be admitted, that there were other more simple pragmatic and opportunistic reasons for deciding to embark on this study. It was relatively easy for me to access and read the materials and I felt reasonably confident about my ability to understand contexts beyond my own national boundaries due to evolving professional relationships with colleagues in England.

3.2) A pilot study

A pilot study preceded the main study. This study was undertaken in autumn/early winter 2000/2001 in England and winter/spring/summer 2001 in Canada to gain a preliminary snapshot of teachers' understandings of citizenship education and to try out various data collection tools. A qualitative stance was emphasised and data were gathered from a small group of secondary teachers through postal self-completion questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. Relevant documents (e.g. school-based curriculum documents) were also examined. Snapshots of teachers' understandings about essential learnings, curriculum practices, and contextual pressures were explored and analysed. Findings suggested varying levels of support for essential learnings that teachers associated with citizenship education, uncertainty about related pedagogical practices, and apprehension about implementation. Data collected, and methods used, in this pilot study provided a basis for thinking about the focus and design of the main study, but are distinct from the main study.

This pilot study, albeit small in scale, served a number of purposes. In particular, the segment carried out in England introduced me to England's secondary

comprehensive school system, issues associated with the introduction of citizenship education as a statutory strand of the National Curriculum, and pertinent literature linked to the study and practice of citizenship education in England. Second, the pilot study provided me with an initial sense of teachers' understandings about what it means to educate for citizenship. Findings from the study revealed teachers' varied preferences for essential learning goals, divergent curriculum practices, and shifting contextual influences. The study signalled a level of pedagogical uncertainty and the need to investigate this area of study. Lastly, the pilot study alerted me to the many challenges and intricacies involved in carrying out a research study of this type.

Anderson (2002: 22) has commented that while the study of effective teaching and learning practices can be “conceptually intriguing” and “professionally appealing”, disciplined enquiry into how one educates remains “empirically elusive”. Issues that emerged during the study around clarity of focus, sampling processes, interview questions, observation techniques, keeping up-to-date and detailed records, ensuring validity and reliability, language, and researcher flexibility reinforced this sense of elusiveness. I learned a great deal from the pilot study, mostly through personal misconceptions held about the research process and methodological errors made along the way. Below is an overview of some of the learnings experienced while carrying this research study, ones that were considered in the design and implementation of my larger research study.

Research focus. Being new to the English educational system at the time, I was interested in casting a wide net in order to familiarise myself with how educating for citizenship was understood and practised on the eve of its inclusion into the National Curriculum. This wide intent was both helpful and problematic. On the one hand, it

provided me with a general sense of the teachers' perspectives and curriculum practices related to citizenship education but on the other hand, it became very difficult to make sense of the quantity and diversity of data being collected. The study began to take on a life of its own and grow out of proportion to what was initially anticipated. Many times through the study, I asked myself whether "less would be more"? As the research focus was being considered for the main study, clarity and manageability were recurring themes.

The sample. I was interested in working with a 'purposive' sample of teachers, those who had done work in the area of citizenship education and who could provide me more substantive understandings of what it meant to educate for citizenship. It seemed to me that this type of sample would be more appropriate for providing the type of data most congruent with the intent of the study. Using the advice of knowledgeable experts in this field and clear and useful criteria in the selection process were invaluable in thinking about how best to develop a list of potential participants. Invited participants were, for the most part, willing to give thoughtful and detailed responses to various aspects of the enquiry. It also confirmed for me the value of this type of sampling for the larger study.

Choice and implementation of research strategy. Given the intent of the study to interpret teachers' understandings and practices and to reveal common themes and differences amongst these teachers, a qualitative orientation was adopted in the pilot study. This orientation provided me with an opportunity to design and try out certain methods of data collection and to consider some of the issues of validity and reliability. The questionnaire, for example, was designed to collect a wide range of

data pertaining to the intended outcomes of the study. Many of the questions were highly structured and required closed responses. In retrospect, it was both very time consuming, difficult to construct, and somewhat leading. The questionnaire, used in the subsequent main study, was significantly altered as a result.

Some of the other learnings about the choice and implementation of a research strategy included: the importance of reminding respondents to return their questionnaires; the need to continually check that methods were internally valid, that is, that the data collected with each research method was carefully aligned with the core research questions of the study; the value of using certain research methods over others, depending on the type of data being collected; the need to pay more careful attention to the ways in which data collection methods are selected, applied and distributed over the process of the research, in particular, classroom observation; the benefit of gathering feedback from both instructors and participants about the design and application of different research methods; and the necessity of building in ways of corroborating responses and developing more sustained connections with interviewees.

The process of analysis. I essentially began the research process for the pilot study without an analysis framework in mind. This proved to be problematic on two fronts. As the pilot study progressed, it appeared that I should have been asking more direct questions about respondents' understandings of citizenship and about connections that they made between these understandings and their practices. Unfortunately, the data collected did not shed much light on these two areas, consequently providing a general weakness in the final analysis. Secondly, the study

from the outset was without theoretical boundaries. Consequently, particular attention was given to developing a tentative theoretical framework for the later main study both to provide some initial boundaries on the research and to make it more manageable.

Flexibility and record-keeping. The importance of flexibility and the need to keep up-to-date detailed records were two themes that were reinforced throughout the study. The need to keep to archive the data and to use a diary to record thoughts as they emerged became important goals to work towards. Many good ideas were lost in the pilot study because appropriate attention had not been given to record keeping. I also became more aware of the need to carefully follow the flow of the data and the emergent nature of the process, and flexibility became critical. While I began with a general strategy in place, I had to learn to adapt it as new data were collected or as particular issues emerged.

The pilot study suggested to me the need for ongoing research and development work in different areas of citizenship education, if educators are to realistically address the complex and multidimensional learning goals associated with its mandate. Some of these included: one, the need to better understand and develop of a suitably sophisticated model of citizenship education pedagogy, one that offers both a comprehensive and integrated conception of its elements, and guidance for curriculum practice; two, the need for increased attention to those factors that can either support or undermine long term commitment to curriculum initiatives of this type; and three, the need for professional learning opportunities to assist teachers further clarify and deepen their understandings of various conceptions of citizenship

and citizenship education and associated curriculum practices. Most importantly, it confirmed my suspicions of a rather variant gap between teachers' intended curriculum intentions and pedagogical practices and the need for a study that would investigate citizenship education pedagogy.

3.3) The main research study

The main research study began in spring 2001 and was completed in spring 2004. A qualitative orientation, with comparative overtones, guided the study's design and implementation, with the view of gathering in-depth, holistic, and grounded accounts of how a select group of secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in Canada and England and why. Empirical data were collected through a variety of research methods and sources. Teachers completed questionnaires, were involved in interviews, and were observed teaching in their classrooms. Pertinent documents were analysed. An inductive mode of analysis was used to allow theories and practical ideas to emerge during the course of research. Analysis concerned itself primarily with the identification of "patterns and processes, commonalities and differences" (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 9) in terms of how teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy. Attention to overlapping factors that appeared to inform teachers' characterisations further deepened the groundedness of the research and assisted me to better understand and interpret why teachers, in a social context, construct their understandings and practices in particular ways. Principles of rigour and an emergent and flexible design structure guided methodological decisions. A research schedule was established for the study although this plan shifted as new ideas and practices were revealed.

Steps followed in the research included (in no particular chronological order):

- i.) ongoing reading of pertinent literature re: citizenship education in Canada and England, pedagogy, and research approaches;
- ii.) undertaking a textual analysis of official curriculum guidelines and emergent curriculum support resources pertaining to citizenship education in secondary schools in Ontario, Canada and England, primarily in the time period from the late 1990s until the present;
- iii.) designing an initial plan of action and continuing to make modifications to it, as new ideas and practices were revealed.
- iv.) establishing research questions;
- v.) developing a tentative design structure and plan of action for the research process to guide the major study;
- vi.) selecting a research sample;
- vii.) initiating the data collection process with a postal self-completion questionnaire and the analysis of responses of a number of recommended specialist teachers from across Ontario, Canada and England;
- viii.) selecting, interviewing, and observing a number of these specialist teachers for more in-depth data collection (criteria for the selection of these particular teachers is provided in detail at a later point);
- ix.) undertaking interviews with a number of experts in both England and Canada concerned with citizenship education and appropriate classroom pedagogy; and
- x.) revisiting and analysing field notes, transcripts, explanations, and interpretations throughout the research process.

In the design, application, and analysis of a qualitative, cross-national investigation, one faces a variety of issues. Choosing an appropriate sample, labour intensiveness involved in the collection of data, data overload, varied methods of analysis to choose from, the challenge of researcher bias, time demands to process and code data, and ensuring the validity and reliability of conclusions were just some of the issues which were dealt with in the unfolding of the study. Researching teaching in two countries further complicated matters. Not only were issues around methodological choices heightened, issues around language and interpretation as well as broader feasibility and manageability questions (e.g. access to sample, costs), needed appropriate attention (Alexander, 1999; Anderson, 1990; Cohen et al., 2000; Denscombe, 1998; Glesne, 1999; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Osborn 2004). An overview of the core elements of the study, and an explanation of how the research process unfolded, follow.

3.3.1) Timetable summary

A. Initial literature investigation and early preparation

- Canada (part time): January 1998 - July 2000

B. Pilot study

- England (full time): August 2000 - February 2001
- Canada (full time/part time): February 2001 - August 2001

C. Main study

Main study proposal

- England (full time): Winter 2001

Data collection

- England (full time): February 2001 - June 2001
- Canada (part time): September, 2001 - February 2003

Questionnaire schedule

- England: Spring/Summer 2001: posted to 22 teachers, 16 returned
- Canada: Autumn/Winter 2001/2002: posted to 22 teachers, 17 returned

Interview schedule

- England: Spring/Summer 2001): 3 teachers, a minimum of 5 interviews with each interviewee
- Canada: January 2002 - February 2003: 3 teachers, a minimum of 5 interviews with each interviewee
- England area sites: Spring/Summer 2001: An instructional leader and students at each site
- Canada area sites: February 2002 - February 2003: An instructional leader and students at each site
- Transcription of tapes: September 2001 - April 2003

Observation schedule

- England: Spring 2001): 3 teachers, a minimum of 4 observations with each teacher
- Canada: January 2002 - February 2003: 3 teachers, a minimum of 4 observations with each teacher

Document analysis and literature review schedule

- England and Canada: September 2000 - July 2003

Data analysis

- England and Canada: Spring 2000 – Spring 2004

Writing up

- Canada (part time): Fall 2003 - July 2004

Submission

- July 2004

3.3.2) Research questions

Research questions for this research study evolved - and were modified - as literature was reviewed and data were collected and analysed.

The central question that framed the main research study was:

1. In what ways do specialist secondary school teachers characterise educating for citizenship in Canada and England and why?

Subsidiary questions included:

2. What learning goals do specialist secondary school teachers prefer to nurture in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes when educating for citizenship?;
3. What pedagogical practices (with special attention to classroom climate, teaching practices, and assessment) do these teachers communicate and/or exhibit preferring to use in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes to achieve these goals?;
4. Why do these teachers advocate these learning goals and pedagogical practices when educating for citizenship (with attention to such factors as: teachers' understandings of citizenship, views of teaching and learning, and contextual forces)?; and
5. What are the potential implications of these characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in relation to the kinds of learning experiences forefronted, the respective policy contexts, and theoretical curriculum perspectives?

Referring back to earlier drafted questions, the focus on my questions was much more narrowly defined and somewhat close-ended. Two examples from the original list of questions, “how do teachers assist young people develop their capacities for civic engagement” or “how do teachers emphasise global and transformative orientations” reveal a tendency to be rather restrictive and leading, not to mention the somewhat unrealistic assumptions about teachers' understandings about citizenship education brought to the study by the researcher. As data came in initially, and an emerging sense of the complexity of the overlapping factors guiding pedagogy became apparent, the need to infuse questions that encouraged less restrictive responses became evident. The final iteration of questions, I believe, was more

succinct and interconnected, and tended to invite a more diverse and grounded range of responses, providing a richer base of data for analysis, without losing the primary focus of the study. To a certain extent I continued to grapple with the challenge of selecting questions that could reasonably be researched, ones that would reflect what Anderson (1990: 31) has referred to as “the right level of breadth and abstraction”.

With this in mind, I tended to be continually considering a hierarchy of questions that ranged from very specific to very open-ended. Consequently, guiding questions for the study continued to evolve throughout the study.

3.3.3) Research orientation and its justification

Research on teachers' pedagogical understandings and practices continue to evolve.

Research on teachers' characterisations of pedagogy, according to Watkins and

Mortimore (1999: 3-8), has revealed at least four areas of focus. These have included a focus on:

1. different styles of teaching;
2. the qualities of good teaching;
3. conceptions of teaching; and
4. factors that both inform and/or constrain teachers' pedagogical practices.

Studies in the 1950s and 1960s tended to focus on the teacher's style or behaviours and skills (Cole and Knowles, 2000; Kyriacou, 1997; Mortimore, 1999). Teaching was viewed as a set of skills to be mastered and applied, a sets of goals to be achieved, and a set of procedures to learned and followed. This focus tended to shift throughout the 1970s and 1980s with more attention to the cognitive side of teaching, teachers' decision-making, how they plan, and how they manage multiple tasks and responsibilities (Brophy, 1992; Cole and Knowles, 2000). More recently, research

has attempted to capture not only the complex cognitive and behavioural aspects of teaching, but also the interconnectedness between pedagogical practices and those factors, with varying personal and contextual dimensions that appear to inform one's pedagogy (Bennett, Anderson, and Evans, 1997; Cole and Knowles, 2000; Hallam and Ireson, 1999). The act of teaching, according to Cole and Knowles (2000: 7),

has become increasingly complex, challenging work and is informed by multiple forms of knowledge and is representative of a variety of ways of personal, professional, and contextual knowing. In the run of a normal day teachers draw on knowledge about subject matter of various kinds, as well as general and subject-specific pedagogical knowledge. They also look to research and relevant professional literature; rely on the wisdom of experience and practice; make use of personal learnings and intuitions; are mindful of how to operate within the bureaucratic structures of state or provincial departments of education, school boards and districts, individual schools and other educational institutions, and even local government bodies; negotiate complex personal interactions with students, parents, peers, and others; and situate themselves and their work within the larger historical, political, and social forces within local, regional, and national communities.

Mindful of this complexity, there has been increasing attention to research orientations, and accompanying methods, that acknowledge these intricacies and that can generate new and deepened understandings of teachers' pedagogical practices.

One of the earlier challenges that I faced in this study was taking a decision about which research orientation would best suit the study's general intent. As Denscombe (1998: 3) has reminded us, the researcher is confronted with

a variety of options and alternatives and has to make strategic decisions about which to choose. Each choice brings with it a set of assumptions about the social world it investigates and a set of advantages and disadvantages.

Two general orientations to social enquiry - the positivist mode and the interpretivist mode - were explored and contrasted. Quantitative research, on the one hand, has

been associated with the positivist mode. This research mode rests on certain assumptions: one, that social facts have an objective reality; and two, variables can be identified and measured (Glesne, 1999: 6). Positivism, according to Denscombe (1998: 240),

is an approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural science model of research to investigations of the social world. It is based on the assumption that there are patterns and regularities, causes and consequences in the social world, just as there are in the natural world.

Research purposes associated with this orientation have tended to aim for generalisability, causal explanation, and prediction. Research strategies have tended to begin with hypotheses, a specific focus, a predetermined research design, and quantitative methods. Furthermore, research strategies have tended to be experimental, deductive, and associated with numbers as the unit of analysis. The researcher's role has usually been one of detachment and objective portrayal.

In contrast, qualitative research has tended to be associated with an interpretivist (sometimes referred to as constructivist) mode. Assumptions that social realities are constructed, and that these realities are complex, interconnected, and difficult to measure, have tended to underpin this research approach. Research purposes have tended to aim for deep understanding, interpretation, and contextualisation. Research design has tended to be emergent and grounded (naturalistic), and has favoured a more inductive analytical orientation. Attention has tended towards a search for patterns, relationships, multiple perspectives, and complexity. Unlike quantitative research, the qualitative orientation has tended to use words as the unit of analysis and the researcher's role has usually been one of involvement,

The researcher becomes the main research instrument as he or she observes, asks questions, and interacts with research participants. The concern with researcher objectivity is replaced by a focus on the role of subjectivity in the research process (Glesne, 1999: 5).

Researchers consider similar elements in their work whether positivist or interpretivist. Each orientation states a purpose, poses a problem or raises a question, defines a research sample, develops a time frame, collects and analyses data, and presents findings. Each also pays attention to issues of relevance, feasibility, depth and breadth, validity and reliability, and ethics. Most importantly, each orientation provides helpful frameworks to guide academic communities in determining purposes of the research, important themes and issues for enquiry, research strategies and methods, and roles of the researcher. Each research orientation, however, represents differing epistemological perspectives (different ways of knowing) and the research orientation one chooses “says something about one’s views on what qualifies as valuable knowledge and your perspective on the nature of reality or ontology” (Glesne, 1999: 4).

According to Denscombe (1998: 3),

In practice, good social research is a matter of ‘horses for courses’, where approaches are selected because they are *appropriate* for specific aspects of investigation and specific kinds of problems. Choices ought to be reasonable, explicit, and ‘fit for purpose’. The crucial thing for good research is to ensure that choices are reasonable and that they are made explicit as part of any research report.

Vulliamy (1990) reinforces this message and encourages researchers to be judicious in their choice of research orientations and the subsequent choice of particular research techniques. On a continuum, he describes three different positions held by those engaged in qualitative research. At one end of the continuum are researchers

who believe that research orientations should never be blended. They, according to Vulliamy (1990: 9),

argue that the basic assumptions or axioms underpinning the conventional positivist and the interpretive (which they term 'naturalistic') paradigm are fundamentally in opposition to each other and that 'a call to blend or accommodate them is logically equivalent to calling for a compromise between the view that the world is flat and the view that the world is round'.

At the other end of the continuum are other qualitative researchers who believe that research techniques can be blended, "in using qualitative research techniques", they "see no fundamental differences between these and more conventional research techniques, such as surveys and experiments, which are geared towards measurement". Vulliamy's analysis alerts us to the varied and contested notions underpinning qualitative research applications but also to the differing theoretical orientations and epistemological assumptions that often underpin researchers' use of various qualitative research methods.

A qualitative approach, with comparative overtones, was selected for this study because it appeared best suited to address the primary intent of the study, the exploration and illumination of ways in which specialist secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes in Canada and England. This is not to suggest that some quantitative data were not collected, but rather to indicate my general preference for a more qualitative orientation. Firstly, this approach offered thick and rich descriptions of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy and deeper insights into the variety of overlapping factors that appear to inform specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy. Alexander (1999: 149) has

suggested that the qualitative study of pedagogy can act as a “window on the culture of which it is part, on that culture’s underlying tensions and contradictions as well as its publicly-declared educational policies and purposes”. Secondly, this approach offered groundedness, meaning would be derived from the real world of lived experience, rather than from contrived or experimental contexts. A qualitative approach, according to Miles and Huberman (1994: 10) provides a “strong handle on what real life is like” and “is buttressed by *local groundedness*”. Its emphasis on people’s “lived experience” is,

well suited for locating the *meanings* people place on events, processes, and structures of their lives: their perceptions, assumptions, prejudgments, presuppositions and for connecting these meanings to the *social world* around them.

Thirdly, this approach allowed data to be collected, and meaning to be constructed, over time. While this implied ongoing attention to the data, it also meant a higher degree of flexibility with, and sensitivity to, research design and ongoing data collection. It also implied an epistemological perspective that favoured the interpretivist’s perspective that human actions and social structures are socially constructed. Fourthly, this approach offered opportunities to gain deeper insights into the variety of overlapping factors (e.g. details of context, views of the learner) that inform specialist teachers’ characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy.

According to Vulliamy (1990: 11), a qualitative orientation,

is holistic, in the sense that it attempts to provide a contextual understanding of the complex interrelationships of cause and consequences that affect human behaviour. In doing so, it seeks to avoid either the deliberate manipulation of variables (characteristic of the experimental tradition of educational research) or the study of attitudes or indicators as variable isolated from the wider totality (characteristic of the survey tradition).

Lastly, this approach tended to support what Vulliamy (1990: 12) has referred to as

“ecological validity” and its capacity for capturing depth of understanding, in contrast to “population validity”, known for its capacity for generalisability (more about this later).

It should be noted that approaches to, and ways of classifying comparative studies have been highly varied, reflecting differing elements of analysis and theoretical stances, each with its own strengths and limitations (Bray and Thomas, 1995; Broadfoot, 1999, 2004; Osborne, 2004; Schweisfurth, 1999). Comparative studies, according to Broadfoot (1999: 22), “have found it more difficult than many other specialisms to define what its boundaries are” and studies have ranged from, “single country studies of almost any aspect of educational provision at one extreme, to relatively decontextualised, international comparisons such as the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) studies at the other”.

The comparative dimension infused in this study tends to honour those studies that bring together detailed empirical data with a particular educational focus (in this case, citizenship education pedagogy), considers data among and between respondents from two distinct national settings; and is contextualised in terms of broader international discussions and debates about citizenship education. As indicated earlier, Canada and England provide rich research contexts to inform and contribute to both the theoretical and practical aspects of citizenship education pedagogy. A paradigm of critical education research (Apple, 1995; Habermas, 1972; Smyth, 1989) was not used in this study primarily because of its prescriptive nature in suggesting what behaviour ought to ‘look like’ in a social democracy. While this

paradigm raises important issues about power, ideology, and inclusion among others, and has been significant for educational research in general, I was concerned about locating and analysing my data within the context of a deliberate political agenda, being aware of the preconceptions that might influence interpretation while wishing as far as possible not to establish predetermined 'answers'.

3.3.4) The sample

Choosing a sample raises an array of issues. Some of these include: the type and size of the sample; the representativeness of the sample; the sampling strategy to be used; and, access to the sample. In this study, non-probability, purposive sampling was used. Specialist teachers were handpicked purposely on the basis of their perceived ability to provide the most valuable data, given the specific purposes of the study,

The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research.
(Patton 1990: 169)

There was no pretense to "represent the wider population" nor was the intent "to generalise the findings beyond the sample in question" (Cohen et al., 2000: 102, 103). Twenty-two specialist secondary school teachers from across England and twenty-two specialist secondary school teachers from Canada (Ontario) were identified and invited to complete a postal self-completion questionnaire. The following criteria were applied in the sample selection process:

- i.) a good working knowledge of secondary curriculum and citizenship education curriculum in their respective area (e.g. Key Stages 3 and 4 in England, Grades 9-12 in Ontario);
- ii.) evidence of substantive and effective teaching experience;

- iii.) varied views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education; and
- iv.) evidence of ongoing professional development and curriculum leadership.

Teachers meeting these criteria were preferred because it was believed that they were experienced in and could talk knowledgeably about this area, given the specific purposes of the study and the relative newness of citizenship education as an official component of the curricula in both locations. I was not so much concerned about studying a broad range of teachers, as gaining a preliminary understanding of citizenship education pedagogy. It should be noted that teacher educators and/or local educational consultants, knowledgeable about citizenship education in their respective regions, recommended teachers for the study. Given the author's unfamiliarity with the teaching population in England, the advice of teacher educators/consultants was particularly helpful. Sixteen teachers for England and seventeen teachers from Canada (Ontario) agreed to become involved in the study.

From this larger sample group, six teachers were selected for further enquiry, three from schools in Canada (Ontario) and three from schools in England. Teachers selected for this subsequent stage of the enquiry met the following additional three criteria:

- i.) reflected typical - yet distinctive - orientations (“illustrative not definitive” Patton, 1990: 173);
- ii.) were accessible for interviews and classroom observations; and
- iii.) citizenship education was being seriously considered in the school in which the teacher taught.

Engaging this small group of selected teachers offered me the opportunity to analyse teachers' characterisations in more depth, and in doing so, maximising contrasts and illuminating more fully, the focus of the research questions. Non-probability and purposive sampling was selected over probability sampling for this study to provide 'information-rich' cases about pedagogy. I was neither concerned about studying a broad spectrum of teachers nor a select group (e.g. class, ethno-cultural background, gender) so much as gaining a preliminary understanding of the pedagogical goals and practices of a specialist individual teachers in Canada and England. Consequently, the sample population was neither large enough nor representative enough to make generalisations.

Please note that the inclusion of the following data are based on questionnaire responses from across the sample and intended to illuminate the nature of the sample as opposed to providing an analysis of data for the purpose of the answering the research questions.

3.3.4.1) Teaching experience

The Canadian sample was made up of teachers working in secondary schools in Canada, with teaching responsibilities that included educating for citizenship as part of their teaching timetable. Fourteen respondents had over 15 years teaching experience and three respondents had just over 5 years of classroom teaching experience. Teaching experience was with students mostly between the ages of 14 and 18 although one of the respondents had taught pupils as young as 11. The majority of respondents' ages ranged from 35 to 55. Only a few respondents were

under 34. Gender of the respondents was relatively balanced, with nine men and eight women.

All respondents in the English sample were teachers working in secondary schools in England who viewed their teaching responsibilities as including educating for citizenship as part of their teaching timetable. Twelve respondents had over 15 years teaching experience, while four of the respondents had 3, 5, 6, and 12 years of classroom teaching experience respectively. Teaching experience was mostly with pupils between the ages of 11 and 18, although one of the respondents had taught pupils as young as 5. Ten respondents were between the ages of 45 and 55. Four respondents were between the ages of 35-44 while only two of the respondents were under 34. The respondents in the English group were made up of ten men and six women.

3.3.4.2) Educational background and area of teaching responsibility

All respondents in the Canadian sample had at least an Honours Bachelor of Arts (BA), with many having postgraduate degrees. Most had read their degrees in either History or the Social Sciences. English was the only other major area of study. All respondents had completed their Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) with two areas of subject certification, mostly in concurrent teacher education programs following the completion of the BA. All respondents identified at least one of their areas of subject specialisation in either History and/or Social Sciences Education. Other areas of subject certification included English Education, Religious Education, and French Language Education. Major subject area(s) taught by the respondents included History and/or one of the Social Sciences (e.g. Civics, Politics, Geography, Law,

Economics, Sociology). Two respondents included English courses as part of their teaching load, in conjunction with some History/Social Science teaching responsibilities.

All respondents in the English sample had at least a BA, with many having graduate degrees. Similar to the Canadian group, most had read their degrees in either History or the Social Sciences. Other disciplines studied included Theology, English, Maths, Sciences, and Drama. Nine of the respondents had completed their Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in the area of History/Social Sciences Education. Other areas of certification included Religious Education, English Education, and Physical, Social, and Health Education (PSHE). Major subject area(s) taught by the respondents included History/Social Sciences and Religious Education and, to a much lesser extent, English, PSHE, Maths, and Science.

3.3.4.3) Curriculum leadership

Most of the respondents in the Canadian sample held curriculum leadership positions within the schools in which they were worked. Twelve were heads of History and Contemporary Studies Departments. Five indicated teaching responsibilities only. All but two of the respondents had been recently involved in curriculum initiatives related to citizenship education. Many indicated being involved in developing curriculum materials at their schools for the new Civics program, as part of the History and World Studies curriculum. Learning materials and web-based projects, issue investigations, mock elections, and model parliaments, were noted. One respondent described his students' participation in the municipal elections as poll

clerks for student voters. Two respondents discussed being involved in school-wide initiatives related to citizenship education.

Over half of the respondents indicated being involved in initiatives that extended beyond the classroom. These included delivering district-wide workshops and summer institutes on the theme of citizenship education, reviewing and writing textbooks and resource guides for the new Ontario Civics program, and involvement in such programs as *Historica's Youthlinks* and the Teachers' Institute for Parliamentary Democracy. Two respondents described involvement in the 1996 review of Canada's immigration policy with the Committee for Democratic Education and Citizenship Court.

Most of the respondents in the English sample held curriculum leadership positions within the schools in which they were worked, with many holding department headships or coordination roles. Twelve were heads of Department (History, PSHE, Religious Education, and English) or program coordinators. One respondent reported being a Deputy Head Master, while two others indicated teaching responsibilities only. All but one of the respondents had been recently involved in curriculum initiatives related to citizenship education either within their school or Local Education Authority (LEA). Most indicated being involved in integrating citizenship education into their existing curricula (e.g. English, History, PSHE, RE) at the school level. Some were involved in specific school-wide initiatives (e.g. running a school election, peer mediation project, writing curriculum material for a local radio station, Voice of Authority, Holocaust education, Healthy Schools initiative). One teacher described the development of a drug education video at school and the development

of a Year 10 assembly on tolerance. Another talked about establishing business partnerships and working with older people in the local community with Key Stage 3.

Eleven respondents were involved in regional and/or national initiatives. These included such initiatives as the Citizenship Passport Project, the Motorola Youth Parliament Video Competition, an international internet simulation on land need, the ITCE Involving Young Citizens Equally Project, a joint DfES/university political literacy project, and other related projects. One respondent had been invited to comment by QCA on their draft document for reaching Citizenship at KS3, KS4, and Post 16 (1999), and to pilot citizenship education materials. Another had been recently filmed (2001) teaching about citizenship and interviewed by DfEE funder channel 4 documentary *Teaching Citizens*. Two of the respondents were involved in providing training sessions/workshops on citizenship education around the UK.

3.3.4.4) Initial awareness about citizenship education

Respondents in the Canadian sample indicated that citizenship education was not new to them. Most indicated becoming aware of citizenship education through their initial teacher education programs, conferences, and curricula in the early stages of their careers. This awareness had been further enhanced by recent “ideas (provided) at conferences, workshops, and professional discussions”. Recent curriculum reform in Ontario (e.g. the introduction of a mandatory Civics course) was also cited as an important impetus for the current focus on this dimension of education.

Primary sources of information about citizenship education for these teachers came from three main sources: workshops, conferences and university courses;

professional reading; and Ministry of Education documents. Workshops, conferences, and university courses were identified as key sources of information about citizenship education. These included workshops provided by such organisations as the Ontario History and Social Science Teachers' Association, the Teachers' Institute for Parliamentary Democracy, CRB Foundation's summer institutes, Historica's *YouthLinks* program, and various university certification courses. Six respondents identified ongoing professional reading as an important source of information. Textbooks about citizenship education, educational resources from organisations like UNICEF and Oxfam, materials from political parties and government bodies, and magazines like the *New Internationalist* were cited as important sources for professional reading. Lastly, Ministry guidelines and course profiles were identified. One respondent identified news about current events and being personally involved in politics as an important source of information about citizenship education.

Awareness of citizenship education, in the English sample, appeared to emerge from various curriculum initiatives in the late 1990s (INSET courses, *Citizenship Passport Project*, peer mediation) and communications (school newsletters). Five respondents indicated longer-term connections with this aspect of the curriculum. One recalled listening "to people like Bernard Crick" from earlier school days. One respondent indicated being involved in National Curriculum work on citizenship themes in 1991, while another indicated being invited to serve on a Citizenship Foundation's Advisory Group in 1996.

Sources of professional information about citizenship education for these teachers came from three main sources: professional courses and conferences, professional reading; and DfES documents. Attendance at a number of professional courses and conferences were indicated as key sources for information about citizenship education. These included INSET courses and courses provided by the Institute for Citizenship, the Citizenship Foundation, the Holocaust Educational Trust and Development Education Centre, and various universities. Professional conferences like the Historical Association's school conferences were identified. Eight respondents indicated that ongoing professional reading was their main source of information. Sources like Times Educational Supplement, school circulars, websites, and journals were cited. To a lesser extent, DfES curriculum documents and LEA advisor support were mentioned. One respondent identified her involvement in local politics as her main source of information about citizenship education.

3.3.4.5) Sources of interest in citizenship education

Sources of interest in this area of the curricula varied in the Canadian sample. A "personal interest in the content", a "love for politics", and its "part of the curriculum in every course that I teach" were some of the reasons offered. Five highlighted its long-term benefits for both students and society. One respondent wrote,

I feel it is fundamental to education and students being educated...the youth are the ones who will 'take over' and we need them to have an understanding about what community living is about and participation.

Another wrote,

I believe that most Canadians don't understand their responsibilities as Canadian and global citizens...I believe that education is an important part of daily social justice work". Others talked more specifically about educating students to be able to "vote wisely" and take on their roles "as consumers and producers.

One person talked about its importance for school ethos, “it broadens the narrow view of education which is to only increase personal knowledge and some skills” and “enhances the tone of the school as citizenship in the broader society is parallel to good citizenship within the school community”. Seven indicated that it was a professional responsibility, “it is curriculum mandated”, “part of the history program, new civics program”. One asked “you can’t really avoid it if you are teaching history or civics in Ontario”. A few respondents referred to unique personal factors that they attributed to their unique understanding(s) of citizenship and/or their interest in assisting secondary school students with the development of their own civic literacy. Being president of student council, political involvement at the local level, leadership opportunities with scouting, and participation in a United Nation seminar were some of the experiences identified.

Responses from English teachers also varied and overlapped. For about half of the respondents, it was viewed as having relevance for students and society. One respondent wrote “students need to be informed in order to make realistic, informed decisions on important issues”. It “will help provide for a better society, as far as behaviour is concerned and lack of political knowledge among young people”. For seven of the respondents, it was simply viewed as part of their job responsibilities. It’s “part of my job profile...being asked to organise PSHE, it was identified that citizenship would form part of that provision”. For others, it was viewed as an interesting way for thinking about and enhancing curricula. It was viewed as offering a ‘curriculum umbrella’ to include such themes as critical thinking, peer mediation, development education, and youth enablement programs, areas which are sometimes

overlooked. Some referred to ways in which it might enhance PSHE, Religious Education and History classes. One respondent wrote, “we became involved in youth parliaments to help raise pupils’ self esteem and to assist in teaching year 7 history students the concept of parliaments for the English civil war study unity”. Another wrote “my interest in the practical applications of moral and spiritual education...my personal faith, which highlights the vital importance of being a responsible member of society”. Five respondents attributed personal factors to their interest in assisting secondary school students with the development of their own civic literacy. These included religious experiences, involvement in community life, experiences as a student, and economic background. Two did not reply to this question, indicating that the question was too personal.

3.3.4.6) Six teachers selected from the sample for further enquiry

Six teachers were selected from this broader sample for further investigation, three from schools in Ontario (Canada) and three from schools in Yorkshire (England). Teachers selected for this subsequent stage of the enquiry met the additional three criteria (mentioned earlier):

- i.) reflected typical - yet distinctive - orientations (“illustrative not definitive” Patton 1990, 173);
- ii.) were accessible for interviews and classroom observations; and
- iii.) citizenship education was being seriously considered in the school in which the teacher taught.

Whereas the larger sample was selected from across a larger geographical region, these teachers were selected from within more specifically located regions. **David**, **Larissa**, and **Heather** (pseudonyms) refer to the Canadian teachers, from the

Toronto, Ontario region, which were interviewed and observed - beyond the general questionnaire. **Morgan, Susan, and Pat** (pseudonyms) refer teachers from the Yorkshire area, which were interviewed and observed from the sample in England.

A brief introduction to these teachers:

David. David was the Head of the History and Contemporary Studies Department at the secondary school in which he worked during the data collection phase of this study. **David's** taught secondary school History and Social Science courses from grades 9-12, including the required Grade 10 Civics course. **David** communicated a good working knowledge of Ontario's Secondary School (OSS, Grades 9-12) Curriculum, the History and World Studies Curriculum, and including its citizenship dimensions. **David** had been teaching 13 years and there was substantive evidence of effective teaching experience and involvement in a range of ongoing professional development and curriculum leadership initiatives. **David's** views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education, gleaned from the questionnaire data, revealed a focus on local governance, rights and responsibilities in Canadian context, and current local and national issues. He indicated a strong interest in pedagogical practices that aimed at developing the skills of enquiry and some aspects of critical thinking, with particular emphasis academic preparation. He also advocated for increased awareness of local participation.

The school in which **David** taught is situated in a large, culturally diverse, suburban, public secondary school north of the Toronto area. It offers a broad range of course offerings from grades 9-12 for its over 1800 students and proudly highlights on its website its 'safe school policy' and its fifty year tradition as a 'community-based

school'. It claims a strong academic program with board-wide support for character and citizenship education and instructional intelligences. The Department in which **David** teaches has played a leadership role in both the region and province in developing curriculum materials for citizenship education.

Larissa. **Larissa** is a History and Social Science teacher at the secondary school in the Toronto area. She teaches secondary school History and Social Science courses from grades 9-12, including the required Grade 10 Civics course. **Larissa** communicated a good working knowledge of Ontario's Secondary School (OSS, Grades 9-12) Curriculum and its citizenship dimensions. **Larissa** has been teaching for 7 years and there is substantive evidence of effective teaching experience. She had been involved in a range of ongoing professional development and curriculum leadership initiatives. **Larissa's** views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education, gleaned from the questionnaire data, revealed a focus on global governance, human rights and obligations, and current global issues and their impact locally. She indicated in her questionnaire responses a pedagogical emphasis on skills of enquiry and social critique, and the exploration of notions of social justice within a global context. She wrote in her questionnaire return that she encouraged students to participate in school-wide and locally based forms of community service and political action activities with a global issue focus.

Larissa teaches in a relatively small and culturally diverse school, with a student population of about 625. The school claims a family atmosphere that is founded on tolerance, mutual respect, and trust between teachers and students. The school provides a unique learning environment for students of exceptionally high academic

ability in the Toronto area. It offers a broad range of course offerings from grades 7-12 and proudly highlights “tradition of excellence in education” on its website. It also offers an extensive program of co-curricular activities which foster leadership, teamwork, and initiative among students. The school shares its skills with the community through an active network of student outreach programs (e.g. community service). The Department in which **Larissa** teaches has played a leadership role in the Toronto area developing curriculum materials and organising student conferences in support of global citizenship education.

Heather. Heather is the Head of the History and Contemporary Studies Department at the secondary school in which she works. She teaches secondary school History and Social Science courses from grades 9-12, including the required Grade 10 Civics course. **Heather** communicated an excellent working knowledge of Ontario’s Secondary School (OSS, Grades 9-12) Curriculum, the History and World Studies Curriculum, and its citizenship dimensions. She has been teaching 17 years and there is substantive evidence of effective teaching experience. **Heather** has demonstrated extensive involvement in a range of ongoing professional development and curriculum leadership initiatives, in particular, those with an equity and diversity focus. Her views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education, suggested in her questionnaire responses, revealed a focus on personal, school, and local level governance, democratic rights and duties, and diversity and inclusion. **Heather** indicated in what was written in her questionnaire a particular emphasis on developing the skills of enquiry, critical thinking, and cooperative learning. She indicated a preference for exploring culturally diverse beliefs and values within the

context of Canadian history. Personal action and service at the school and local levels were encouraged.

The school in which **Heather** teaches is situated in a large, culturally diverse, urban, public secondary school on Toronto east side. The school, according to Ontario's Education Quality and Accountability Office's (EQAO) report, "is committed to promoting academic excellence, citizenship education, and individual student growth through dynamic programs within a safe, orderly environment" and advocates for the 3R's: "Respect for Self, Respect for Others, and Responsibility for all of our Actions". It offers a broad range of regular course offerings from grades 9-12 for its over 1400 students (55% whose primary language is other than English), a variety of Special Education programs, and an extensive range of co-curricular activities. The school prides itself on its attention to diversity, its egalitarian spirit, the involvement of parents, and associations with a growing number of community and business partners. The Department in which **Heather** teaches has played a leadership role in the region in developing curriculum materials for citizenship education, particularly those that attend to issues of cultural identity and pluralism.

Morgan. Morgan is the Head of the History at the secondary school in which she works and she teaches secondary school History courses Levels 6 through to 11, and 6th form. She communicated in her questionnaire responses an excellent working knowledge of the National Curriculum guidelines for Key Stages 3 and 4, and in particular, the History Curriculum and developments regarding the new citizenship education initiative. **Morgan** has been teaching for 16 years and demonstrated extensive involvement in a range of ongoing professional development and

curriculum leadership initiatives. Her views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education, gathered from her questionnaire responses, revealed a focus on government structures and processes, democratic rights and duties, and social justice issues through historical examples. **Morgan** also indicated in the questionnaire data putting an emphasis on skills of critical thinking and learning to work together. Forms of participation that she encouraged in her questionnaire responses focused primarily within the context of the classroom, and to a lesser extent, the school.

Morgan teaches in a mixed, comprehensive school situated in Yorkshire, with Technology College status. Its most recent OFSTED report acknowledged that the “school achieves standards which are well above average in attainment, attendance, and pupils’ attitudes and behaviour, and most pupils make good progress” and that “the majority of the teaching is at least good”. The report, however, encourages more attention to special education needs, communications with parents, and religious education. The school offers a broad range of regular courses for Key Stages 3 and 4 for its over than 1500 students. The school serves an economically diverse community, but cultural diversity is minimal. According to the school website, it prides itself on its academic achievement, pupils’ personal development (e.g. respect for others, value peace, oppose forms of discrimination), an improving home-school agreement, and a full programme of extra curricular activities.

Susan. **Susan** was the Head of the Personal, Health, and Social Education (PSHE) Department at the secondary school in which she worked during the data collection phase of the study. She taught courses in this subject area from Levels 6-11. **Susan** had been teaching 11 years and communicated in her questionnaire responses an

excellent working knowledge of the National Curriculum guidelines for Key Stages 3 and 4, and in particular, the PSHE Curriculum and its connections to the new citizenship education initiative. Her views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education, following from her questionnaire responses, revealed a focus on governance at personal, school, and local levels. She also indicated in her questionnaire giving particular attention to student rights and duties, current school and local issues, and examples of good citizenship. She also indicated developing some enquiry, thinking (e.g. identifying the main idea), group interaction skills. Her questionnaire responses also revealed an interest in nurturing a sense of fairness guided by a personal notion of a good person and established rules, laws and traditions. Questionnaire data also suggested that she was a strong advocate for community service at the school and local levels.

The school that **Susan** taught at was a mixed 11-16 comprehensive school, situated in Yorkshire. The school is smaller than most secondary schools nationally (about 700) and recently increased in numbers as a result of a planned closure of another local secondary school. Its most recent OFSTED report acknowledged a range of things that the school does well (e.g. attainment and good progress in modern foreign languages, history, art, music, and physical education, a significant amount of good teaching, and extra-curricular activities provide pupils with wider experiences). The report encouraged, however, more attention to various dimensions of the program (e.g. unsatisfactory religious education, behaviour of a significant minority of pupils, the use of information technology (IT) across the curriculum). The report also revealed a higher proportion of low attaining pupils attending than in most schools, a high proportion of pupils on the special educational needs register (well above

national averages), and a number of pupils facing economic challenges. The majority of pupils in the school are white, with little cultural diversity evident.

Pat. **Pat** teaches secondary school History courses, Levels 6 through to 11, and 6th form at a secondary school in Yorkshire. She communicated in the questionnaire data an excellent working knowledge of the National Curriculum guidelines for Key Stages 3 and 4, and in particular, the History Curriculum and developments regarding the new citizenship education initiative. **Pat** had been teaching for 4 years and demonstrated extensive involvement in professional development and curriculum leadership initiatives. Her views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education, taken from her questionnaire responses, revealed a focus on global governance, human rights and duties, and global issues, within historical and contemporary contexts. She also indicated in her questionnaire that she emphasised the skills of enquiry and critical thinking and gives particular attention to exploring one's identity and recognising diverse perspectives. Examining notions of social justice and improvement, as they pertain to issues of prejudice and inequality, was also advocated. Participation in the classroom was given special attention and the goal of active involvement beyond the classroom was encouraged.

The school in which **Pat** teaches is situated in Yorkshire and is a large (approximately 1700 pupils) comprehensive school, with a large and growing sixth form. Its most recent OFSTED report acknowledged that the “whole ability range is represented in the school and in a number of subjects attainment is average”. It also acknowledged that the school has “recently been awarded engineering and technology specialist school status and has received many external awards for its

work. It has a high reputation and is heavily over-subscribed". The report described a range of things that the school does well (e.g. attainment is well above average, teaching is good and often very good, responsible and industrious pupils, successful links with the community). The report did, however, encourage more attention to specific dimensions of the program (e.g. insufficient allocation of time to study religious studies, lack of resources in some areas, for example information communication technology (ICT)). There was little evidence of cultural diversity at the school. According to the school's website, it prides itself on its reputation for academic accomplishment, social and sporting achievement, community involvement, and its recently received Technology and Engineering Specialist Status award.

3.3.5) Data collection: Methods and sources

Data were collected through a variety of research methods and sources. Initially, an invitation to participate in the study (Appendix 1) was mailed out to the forty-four identified specialist secondary teachers in Canada and England. Twenty-two were sent out to teachers in Canada (Ontario) and twenty-two to teachers in England. The postal self-completion questionnaire was enclosed. Respondents were requested to return the questionnaire within six weeks and a stamped envelope, with return address, was provided. Many of the completed questionnaires were received within this timeframe, however, reminders (Appendix 2) were sent out to those who had not responded. Thirty-three were returned, seventeen from Canadian teachers and sixteen from English teachers. Questionnaires were read and analysed, and notes were recorded.

Six teachers, selected from this broader sample, were interviewed and observed teaching in their classrooms. Interviews were taped and transcribed. Classroom observation notes were recorded. During visits to the schools, pertinent curriculum documents (e.g. teachers' lesson plans, teacher developed classroom resources) were reviewed and notes were taken. It was intended that the use of these varied methods would improve the validity of the findings and allowed "findings to be corroborated or questioned by comparing the data produced by different methods" (Denscombe 1998: 85), providing an increased level of methodological triangulation.

Ethical considerations were infused from the outset. To ensure informed consent, a cover page giving background information about the nature of research project, its purposes, and its intended benefits was provided in the invitation to participate.

Participants were invited to participate voluntarily and were given the option of not completing particular questions or withdrawing from the process at any stage.

Data collection was carried out in, or in close proximity to the local setting, over a sustained period, and with ongoing check-backs with respondents. Data collection focused on teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy (e.g. goals, contrasting teaching practices), and those overlapping factors (e.g. details of context, views of the learner) that appeared to inform teachers' characterisations. As data came in, a data management system slowly emerged. Methods of data collection are explained next, with particular attention to the issues surrounding their usage.

3.3.5.1) Postal self-completion questionnaire

Postal questionnaires have both strengths and limitations. Cohen et al. (2000: 245, 262) have suggested that the questionnaire is “the best form of survey in an educational enquiry”, it is a “useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse”. In particular, they are viewed as being cost effective “given the usual constraints over finance and resources”. Questionnaires do, however, pose certain challenges. Questionnaire design, choosing appropriate types of questions (e.g. structured vs. unstructured), question writing, operationalising the questionnaire, and ethical considerations are some of the main issues that need to be addressed.

The questionnaire (Appendix 3) used in this study was designed to gather data about specialist secondary school teachers’ characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy. As mentioned earlier, it was sent out to twenty-two secondary teachers in Canada (Ontario) and to twenty-two secondary teachers in England. Denscombe’s (1998: 87) advice “to collect information which can be used subsequently as data for analysis”, Anderson’s six stage format for questionnaire construction (Anderson, 1995: 207), and learnings from the design of the pilot study questionnaire guided the preparation of the questionnaire used in the study, both to ensure that key bases were covered and that fundamental design problems were lessened.

Initially general information needs that aligned with the broad research aims were identified. These included information about:

i.) the respondents;

- ii.) teachers' preferences for learning goals that ought to be nurtured in formal secondary school curriculum courses and/or programs;
- iii.) teachers' understandings of, and preference for, certain types of pedagogical practices when educating for citizenship; and
- iv.) teachers' sense of those factors that appear to relate to teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy.

Having identified general information needs, subsidiary topics and specific information needs were then identified and itemised, the “kinds of data required to give the researcher relevant evidence about the concepts or constructs, e.g. their presence, their intensity, their main features and dimensions, their key elements, etc.” (Cohen, 2000: 247). Considerable time was spent ensuring that these specific information areas aligned with the emerging aims of the study and were comprehensive.

A variety of semi-structured and structured questions were then drafted and sequenced. Some structured questions were developed to gather information about the respondents that would enable comparisons to be made both within, and across, the sample. A few rank-ordering questions were infused to gain a relative sense of respondents' priorities in particular areas (e.g. preference for types of resources). For each question, space was provided to allow respondents to provide additional comments. Most questions, however, were semi-structured and open-ended, inviting respondents to respond on their own terms, hopefully gaining rich and authentic personal data about pedagogical practices.

Questions were designed to align with the core questions of the study and were categorised into four general areas: background information; educating for citizenship: aims and practices; samples teaching activities and strategies; and connections (factors relating to practices). Following are some brief excerpts:

A. Background information

1. Age (please circle): (i) up to 34 (ii) 35-44 (iii) 45-54 (iv) 55-64

6. Teaching and school-based experiences:

Number of years teaching secondary school:

Major subject area(s) taught:

Age levels taught:

Current job title:

A recent curriculum initiative/project that you have been involved in at the school, regional, or national level:

B. Educating for citizenship: aims and practices

12. Do you prefer to emphasise particular learning aims when educating for citizenship? (Identify in order of importance to you.)

-
-

Why?

14. For the three elements identified in question 11., indicate teaching and learning practices that you use to nurture each of these elements of citizenship? (For each example, briefly identify: the element(s) of citizenship taught, the teaching and learning approach used, and the course in which it is situated.)

15. Why do you use these types particular types of teaching and learning practices?

C. A sample teaching and learning strategy

18.a. Provide a brief description of a favourite teaching and learning strategy that you have found to be effective when educating for citizenship. Provide details about: the main learning aims; the teaching and learning strategy, and; the course in which it was used.

- main learning aims
- the teaching and learning strategy
- course in which it was used

b. Why do you think this teaching and learning strategy is particularly effective for pupils learning about citizenship?

Please note: If possible, please attach worksheets or other pertinent documents that you have used in using this strategy.

D. Connections

22. Do the following factors influence how you educate for citizenship?

- particular views (or conceptions) of citizenship? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?
- particular views (or theories) of how pupils most effectively learn? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?
- pupil characteristics (e.g. prior knowledge, learning style, cultural background)? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?
- school characteristics (e.g. school ethos, timetable, department characteristics, classroom)? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?
- other contextual influences (e.g. prevailing social, political, economic, and educational trends, official government policies)? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?
- personal background/experiences

Questions were continually reviewed to strive for clarity and to avoid such issues as leading questions, question ambiguity, and/or the use of double negatives. Pilot testing of an earlier questionnaire had helped in terms of questionnaire design. In particular, I had used significantly more close-ended questions in the pilot study setting an agenda that in retrospect presupposed certain types of responses. The more semi-structured question orientation used in the main study was intended to provide

greater opportunity for respondents to comment in a way that more accurately reflected their thinking.

The questionnaire was rather extensive, and I was careful to sequence questions in a way that would be interesting for respondents to complete and informative for me to analyse. Initial questions tended to be of a factual nature. Subsequent questions were varied, requiring some factual responses but also personal views and opinions. Additionally, some items were inserted for a cross referencing of responses. I did have some concerns about whether or not I would receive satisfactory responses to such a long questionnaire (8 pages). I went with the belief that there would be a strong willingness to complete the questionnaire given respondents' interest in this curriculum area. In final analysis, the response rate was very high and completed responses, with the exception of two, were very detailed.

3.3.5.2) Face-to-face interviews

Patton classifies four main types of interviews: the informal conversational interview; the interview guide approach; the standardised open-ended interview; and the closed quantitative interview (Patton 1987: 116, 117). Interviews (Appendix 4) used in this study were designed to gather data about specialist secondary school teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy and questions asked aligned with the central aims of the study. Six teachers, three from schools in Canada (Ontario) and three from schools in England (Yorkshire), were selected from the larger sample to be interviewed. A minimum of five, forty-five minute face-to-face semi-structured interviews were carried out with each interviewee in this study. It was felt that this number of interviews would provide the appropriate amount of

data. In some instances, additional interviews took place to ensure adequate data were collected.

Each interview infused a blend of the standardised open-ended interview and interview guide approaches. Wording and sequencing of questions were largely decided in advance, and all interviewees were asked the same basic questions, in a similar order. Questions were open-ended but constant probes were used to pursue particular topics and issues raised by the interviewee. Below are some sample questions from the initial interview protocol:

Excerpts from Interview 2 with specialist teachers

1. Review of last week.

Brief overview of 5 key findings in last week's interview

2. Review of last observed class.

What were the primary purposes of the lesson in terms of citizenship dimension

What teaching and learning practices did you build into the strategy to achieve these purposes?

Why did you choose to focus on this(ese) aim(s) of citizenship education? and

Why did you choose to teach it this way?

3. What teaching and learning practices do you prefer to use when educating for citizenship?

Which ones, explain, why?

5. Are these teaching and learning practices influenced by a particular view of teaching and/or learning?

How? Why?

9. Feedback on the interview?

This approach was selected for different reasons. Generally, it provided an opportunity to probe more deeply into the thoughts, beliefs, and motivations of the teachers involved and to corroborate data collected through the postal questionnaire

and classroom observations. More specifically, this approach provided comprehensive and systematic coverage across all interviewees, facilitating the organisation, analysis, and comparison of data.

The open-ended nature of the questions and semi-structured format allowed respondents to respond on their own terms, yet allowed for probes into respondent-specific topics and issues. Interviews were kept reasonably conversational and situational. This interview approach, however, had its own set of issues to be addressed. Interviewing involves generating knowledge through human interaction that is inter-subjective and culturally-informed: “no matter how hard an interviewer may try to be systematic and objective, the constraints of everyday life will be a part of whatever interpersonal transactions she initiates” (Cohen et al., 2000: 268).

Interpersonal issues such as building trustworthiness, enhancing clarity of meaning, and responding to avoidance tactics, in addition to the more logistical issues, required careful attention.

General information areas to be explored in the interviews were identified initially, keeping in mind the emerging aims of the study. Topics were identified and itemised and questions were then drafted and sequenced. Questions were mostly open-ended with opportunities for probes throughout. Questions were reviewed to avoid such issues as leading questions, question ambiguity, and the use of double negatives.

Pilot testing of an earlier interview guide had alerted me to the use and sequencing of certain types of questions. Particular attention was given to language. Sears (1996: 11) has warned,

misunderstandings often arise in discussions of citizenship education because the same language means different things to different people” phrases such as ‘the educated citizen’ or ‘responsible citizenship’ often touted as the desired outcomes of citizenship education, operate as educational slogans in that they are ‘systematically ambiguous’ and often represent particular and social interests.

It became apparent to me, early in the research process, that special attention to language was critical. Many of the meanings that appeared to be clear to one person were not so clear to the other. In early discussions with my supervisor, it became apparent that we needed to clarify language usage. This was further complicated by the language usage in two different countries. One of the first areas of confusion was over the words ‘very’ and ‘quite’. For me, to describe an experience as ‘quite interesting’ meant something similar to ‘very interesting’; not so to the supervisor who interpreted the phrase differently. In discussions with interviewees, meanings of words continually needed to be probed. Use of words such as group learning, cooperative learning, attainment targets, achievement categories, active learning, and participation were continually considered throughout the process, to clarify understanding.

A minimum of five interviews was undertaken with each of the six teachers. Each interview consisted of a number of sequenced, open-ended questions that enquired into the interviewees’ thoughts about: conceptions of citizenship education, effective instructional practices, and factors that appeared to influence teachers’ pedagogical choices. Probes were used both to clarify and to investigate more deeply interviewee responses (e.g. what do you mean? anything else? could you tell me more about your thinking on that? why do you feel that way?). Attention was given to ensuring that the interview was conducted carefully and sensitively and that it was ethically sound.

Subsequent to the first interview, questions were introduced at the commencement of each interview to review and corroborate findings from earlier interviews and to address clarification from classroom observations. I found that most interviewees responded to the questions asked. On some occasions, however, interviewees (one in particular) avoided answering questions directly. In these situations I found myself returning to unanswered questions until a response was forthcoming. In some instances, I found it helpful to preface questions with comments that softened the intent of the question, hopefully reducing any sense of defensiveness. Any contradictions in interviewees' responses that were noticed were addressed, most often late in the interview process once a level of trust had been established.

Establishing trustworthiness was infused throughout. Interviewees were met beforehand to establish some initial rapport. Efforts were made to explain why the researcher was conducting the research, to point out that the interviewee's responses were confidential (the respondent's name or identification will be attached to the respondent's data, but the researcher will never divulge the respondent's name to anyone), and to acknowledge that ongoing opportunities would be provided to rethink and revise earlier comments made. Ethical considerations were also infused. Background information about the nature of research project, its purposes, and its intended benefits were discussed. Voluntary participation and withdrawal from the process at any stage were acknowledged at the beginning to the interview process. Careful attention was given to active listening and keeping the conversation going. Furthermore, care was taken to respond impartially to whatever interviewees said, in an attempt to limit respondent bias. Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes, was recorded, and transcribed.

At least one informal conversational interview was held with an instructional leader and a small group of students at each school to gain a sense of how they were being taught about citizenship education in their school context. Interviews with different citizenship education experts were also undertaken to gain a sense of the range of perspectives being considered. In each region, 3 experts were interviewed. Experts were chosen for their significant contributions to, and expertise in, the study of citizenship education.

3.3.5.3) Classroom observation

Through observation,

you learn firsthand how the actions of research participants correspond to their words; see patterns of behavior; experience the unexpected, as well as the expected; and develop a quality of trust with your others that motivates them to tell you what otherwise they might not (Glesne, 1999: 43).

Classroom observation was used in this study to gather data about specialist secondary school teachers' pedagogical practices. The same six teachers who were interviewed, were also observed *in situ* (in this case, the natural setting of the classroom). Observation was used for different reasons. Generally, observation was used to complement data collected from questionnaires and interviews and to reveal more grounded data about teachers' actual practices. It helped me to better understand the context of their teaching, to corroborate data collected through the questionnaire and interviews, to discover things that participants did not necessarily talk about in interview sessions, and to record actual actions rather than obtain reports of preferences of intended actions. Lastly, data collected through observation was context sensitive and deepened the level of ecological validity. It did, however,

bring its own set of issues. Reliability was a central challenge. Observation relies heavily on researcher interpretation and inference, and the use of field notes often lacks verifiability. As Denscombe (1998: 156) has noted, “because participant observation relies so crucially on the researcher’s self as the instrument of research, it becomes exceedingly difficult to repeat a study to check for reliability”. Other issues such as informed consent, clarifying the focus of observation, and access posed additional challenges.

Each teacher was observed in her or his classroom on at least on four occasions. Observations focused on teachers’ pedagogy. Each teacher was reminded about the nature of the research project being undertaken, its purposes, and its intended benefits. The voluntary nature of their participation and the option of withdrawing from the process at any stage were reinforced, ensuring informed consent. My role in the observation process was most closely aligned with what Johnson and Christenson (2000) refer to as observer-as-participant. As such, my role was primarily as an observer with some interaction with the study participants. Participants were fully aware that they were part of a research study although my interactions with them were more limited and briefer than those of a researcher taking on complete participant or participant-as-observer roles.

A semi-structured observation format (Appendix 5) allowed me to gather data in a reasonably flexible manner, illuminating not only the dynamic nature of classroom events but also connections to themes and issues emerging from other data collected. I tended to follow Denscombe’s advice (2000: 150) to “start out being fairly non-selective in terms of what he or she observes” and “to aim to get an overall feel for

the situation”. It was, of course, not feasible to observe every aspect of classroom life, and gradually, a more focused observational approach was followed, using a list of relevant pedagogical ‘look fors’ was developed, based on the aims of the study, pertinent literature, and earlier data collected. Observations were recorded in field notes. Three levels of recording were used: descriptions of observed classes were constructed based on predetermined ‘look fors’ of relevance to the study, hopefully lessening the problem of selective perception; classroom maps were diagrammed; and fragmentary jottings were made, based on unique instances that emerged during the process of observation. To lessen the problem of selective recall and to improve reliability, some notes were constructed during actual observations, but most were developed soon after the observations to ensure that highlights and passing thoughts were not forgotten. Throughout my observations, attempts were made to minimise classroom disruption in order to be able to see things as they normally occur.

3.3.5.4) Documents

Documents can corroborate questionnaire, observation, and interview data, and potentially contribute to more reliable findings. They can become an important source of information for following hunches or for raising new questions. A variety of documents that either informed and/or represented teachers’ instructional practices were gathered and examined in this study. Relevant documents from the Ministry of Education in Ontario, Canada (MOE) and from QCA and DfEE and DfES in England, primarily in the time period from the late 1990s until the present, were reviewed to better understand the curriculum context for citizenship education. Classroom and school-based curriculum materials (e.g. courses of study, teaching planning binders, student notebooks) developed and/or used by respondents were

also examined to acquire a better sense of their pedagogical practices over the term and to corroborate data acquired through the questionnaires, interviews and observations. These sources of information provided helpful accounts of curricular content, teaching suggestions, assessment and evaluation targets, and a sense of guiding policies and expectations.

It should also be noted also that a rather extensive review of citizenship education literature in both Canada and England was ongoing throughout the study to sensitise me to the current state of knowledge about the selected research topic. This literature alerted me to theoretical and practical issues, questions, and gaps in the research base. Working back and forth between the literature and the study was very useful in that it helped to stimulate additional questions and to locate this study in the context of existing research. I was able to access a good range of current and historical publications (e.g. books and journals) from libraries in England, in Canada and online. I was careful to assess the quality of the materials read and kept a critical eye on the credibility and reliability of the sources selected. Attention was given to academic journals early on in the process and rather sophisticated searches were carried out both in Canada (e.g. University of Toronto's Libraries Online Catalogue) and in England (e.g. BIDS Education Service) in search of high quality information sources. When assessing the quality of journals, attention was given to such criteria as: history of the journal, professional association support, names of editorial board, whether or not articles were refereed. Encyclopedias (e.g. Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Handbook of Research on Teaching) were also consulted at times. Newspapers and magazines were also read to keep up with broader public discussion about related themes and issues. I was careful to continue reading

pertinent literature throughout the study rather than attempting to do a comprehensive review of the literature prior to the data collection, fearing Johnson and Christensen's (2000: 41) concern that too much prior knowledge,

may not be recommended because researchers using grounded theory approach attempt to develop a set of constructs, relationships, and theory uncontaminated by knowledge of prior research or theory.

3.3.6) Analysis

Qualitative data have a variety of strengths. They are grounded in reality, rich in detail, and often reflect a respect for ambiguity and uncertainty as it arises. Analysis of qualitative data is, however, a complex undertaking and there are many challenges. Choosing appropriate methods of analysis, being mindful of researcher bias, being cognizant of context, and paying close attention to reliability and validity require careful scrutiny on the part of the researcher. Analysis of data in this study focused primarily on the central question of the study, in what ways do specialist secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes in Canada (Ontario) and in England? Particular attention was given to characterisations of pedagogical practice (e.g. learning goals, classroom learning environment, teaching and learning practices, and assessment and evaluation) and factors that appeared to relate to specialist teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy (e.g. understandings of the goals of citizenship education, views of the learner, and contextual influences). The process of analysis was done simultaneously as the data were being collected and tended to move through the following steps:

- Notes from questionnaires, interviews, and observations were kept together in similar formats. Interviews were transcribed and comments and reflections were added in the ongoing process of review;
- General field notes were kept throughout the study process, noting reflections and other remarks, as the process unfolded;
- Data from questionnaires, interviews, and observations were coded and categorised into units for analysis, guided by the central research questions. An ‘open coding’ system was adopted. Analytic units emerged and were refined from the data as the study progressed;
- Data were sorted and sifted and general themes, patterns of similarity and difference, and relationships were captured. These, in turn, were taken back out to the field in subsequent stages of data collection. Checks with respondents were ongoing as data were collected;
- As the study pushed ahead, I gradually began to generate a small set of generalisations and wrote personal memos to myself as new ideas and reflections emerged, discerned; and lastly,
- Emergent generalisations were considered within the context of more formalised bodies of knowledge in the form of conceptual understandings, relevant policy constructs, and curriculum and pedagogical theories and practices.

Analysis tended to follow three overlapping and concurrent forms of activity adapted from Miles and Huberman’s Data Analysis Flow Model (1994: 11,12). One form of activity involved the process of data reduction, the ongoing process during data collection of teasing out themes and categories and sharpening the focus of the data guided by the central research questions. Analysis of the data followed an inductive

process, similar to that suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967) in which categories were generated during the course of research. Analysis concerned itself primarily with the identification of “patterns and processes, commonalities and differences” (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 9) in terms of the ways in which these teachers appeared to understand what it means to educate for citizenship. Attention was also given to a horizontal (across respondents’ responses) and vertical (within an individual respondent’s responses) analysis of the data.

As the process unfolded, general categories began to subdivide and become more intricate. The second form of activity involved displaying key information, gleaned from the data, in an organised, summarised, and mostly, extended text format. This allowed me to gain a sense of the big picture as it unfolded and provided a base for drawing some early and partial conclusions. It also made the rather extensive and cumbersome range of data collected more manageable. Below is a brief sample of learning goal preferences of the interviewees. Note the vertical and horizontal dimensions.

Learning goal preference	David	Larissa	Heather	Morgan	Susan	Pat
<p>1. Knowledge, concepts, and issues</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • concepts • issues • cautions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • local governance • rights and responsibilities in Canadian context • current local issues • examples of participation at the local level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • global governance • human rights and obligations • current global issues • forms of involvement at global level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • personal, school, and local level governance • democratic rights and duties • students' issues • examples of personal action at school and local levels • diversity and inclusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • governance through historical examples• democratic rights and duties • social justice issues through historical examples • strong emphasis on depth of understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • personal, school, and local level governance • student rights and duties • current school, local issues • participation at the school, local level • examples of 'good' citizenship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • global governance • human rights and duties • global issues in historical context • involvement classroom focused
<p>2. Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • critical thinking • enquiry • collab. • little attention to more complex civic literacy skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emphasis on enquiry and some aspects of critical thinking • particular emphasis academic preparation (e.g. thesis prep) • some emphasis on collaborative skills acknowledged • little attention to enquiry of specific skill sets related to cited. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emphasis on skills of enquiry and critique to empower • attention to critical thinking and collaboration but not to the same extent as enquiry • little attention to enquiry of specific skill sets related to cited. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • blended emphasis on the skills of enquiry and critical thinking • cooperative learning skills that allow students from diverse backgrounds to work together • attention to literacy skills • little attention to specific skill sets related to cited. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emphasis on skills of critical thinking • learning to working together effectively also forefronted • little attention to enquiry of specific skill sets related to cited. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emphasis on enquiry and generic thinking skills • some attention to working in groups and leadership skills • little attention to social critique or specific skill sets related to cited. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • blended emphasis on the skills of enquiry and critical thinking • attention to exploring and recognising diverse perspectives • little attention to social critique or specific skill sets related to cited.

Learning goal preference	David	Larissa	Heather	Morgan	Susan	Pat
3. Beliefs • beliefs • values • notions of social justice • little attention to identity	• relatively silent on learning goals in this area	• preferred emphasis on nurturing a sense of social justice within a global context • attention to exploring culturally diverse points of view and differing interpretations	• exploration and sharing of culturally diverse beliefs and values • exploration of snapshots from Canadian history to get a sense of the diversity that have shaped Canada's character	• encouraging an understanding of diverse values through historical examples • challenge personal biases • explore human value dilemmas within the context of notions of social justice	• nurture a sense of fairness guided by a notion of a 'good person' based on an agreed upon morality • fairness is guided also by a respect for established rules, laws and traditions	• examining one's identity • exploring diversity • examining notions of social justice particularly as it pertains to issues of prejudice and inequality
4. Participating • classroom/school involvement • community service • political action	• local and national issue focus • service oriented • local participation to learn about existing processes • in an political party election • increased awareness, deepened understanding	• global issue focus • political action oriented • local and international participation aimed to improve a situation • social improvement	• interpersonal, school and local issue focus • in-school and local participation • action linked closely to personal responsibility • personal empowerment	• current and historical issues focus • learning about through study and interactions in the classroom • some work in school orgs but less attention	• school and local issues focus • in-school political action • local community service • learning about existing processes	• issues from the local to the global • in-school practice but encourages the goal of active involvement beyond the classroom • personal learning and social improvement

Different visual organisers were developed to capture emergent ideas and interconnecting themes. Text tended to evolve from specific descriptions and explanations to comparisons and analyses. Thick descriptions resulted, conveying teachers' multiple pedagogical perspectives and practices and the variety of overlapping factors that appeared to inform teachers' characterisations. A third form of activity involved ongoing attempts to make sense of what the data were saying in terms of themes, pattern regularities (and irregularities), and issues deepened and verification became more evident. Attention to context further extended the groundedness of the research and assisted me to better understand and interpret how teachers in a social context construct their understandings of citizenship education pedagogy. Given that the sample population was small and not representational, attention to notable differences in relation to the social groupings (e.g. class, ethno-cultural background, gender) was considered to the extent that they emerged in the data. In the instances where these factors were evident, findings were delineated in relation to the particular person or group of persons. I found myself checking back on my notes, looking for substantiation and/or contradiction, and often reviewing these thoughts with interviewees.

Presentation of the data from questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations, and documents was developed in an integrated manner around key themes and issues in each of the pedagogical areas discussed in chapters 4 to 7. In most cases, general findings began with a consideration of what respondents said in the questionnaires. These findings, in most cases, were subsequently considered within the context of

what respondents said in interviews and did in their classrooms. In most cases, specific references were made to the source of the data.

3.3.7) Reliability and validity

Issues of reliability and validity were given careful consideration throughout the enquiry process. The issue of reliability, “if someone else did the research would he or she have got the same results and arrived at the same conclusions?” (Denscombe, 1998: 213) was addressed by giving ongoing attention to the purposes of the study, its research orientation, the sampling approach, the context(s) in which research was undertaken, and the reasoning behind key decisions taken. Notes of varying levels of detail were kept throughout the study, providing a helpful audit trail as the process unfolded. Attention to validity was a concern from the outset. The natural setting of the classroom and school was a principal source of data, providing a level of ecological validity. Data were analysed inductively and findings were triangulated, contributing to what is sometimes referred to as descriptive validity. Feedback was invited from many of the respondents to get a sense of whether or not the researcher’s explanations and interpretations appeared to be accurate, hopefully providing better interpretive validity. There was careful thought given to internal consistency among the study’s intentions, methods, and conclusions. Suitably complex explanations of the phenomena were generated, hopefully avoiding oversimplification. Attention was also directed toward the critical role that the researcher’s ‘self’ plays in qualitative research, in terms of how data were produced, used, and interpreted. As Denscombe (1998: 208) reminds us,

the data do not exist ‘out there’ waiting to be discovered, as would be the case if a positivist approach were adopted, but are *produced* by the way they are interpreted and used by the researchers ... *the*

researcher's self plays a significant role in the production and interpretation of qualitative data.

To ensure more trustworthy interpretations, there was a continued watchfulness for personal biases as the research was undertaken. Time at the research site interviewing, observing, building relationships with respondents, it is believed, increased the trustworthiness of the data and the reasonability of the claims made.

3.3.8) Ethical considerations

Acceptable ethical standards of research have evolved and become more formalised over time. Risks to participants, personal interests vis-à-vis community interests, confidentiality, informed consent, and issues of sponsorship are some of the ethical issues continually needing attention. Recognition of these problems has led to the development of various ethical codes for research. In Canada and England, most universities work within established codes. Of particular mention are the British Education Research Association's (BERA) Code of Ethics and the American Educational Research Association's (AERA) Ethical Standards. In this study, five general standards (Anderson, 1995: 20) were applied: informed consent was obtained prior to the study; participants were made aware of the key features of the study; participants were made aware of their option to withdraw from the study at any time; it was made clear to them that their involvement was completely voluntary and that withdrawing or refusing to participate would have no adverse implications for them; and there were minimal risks for respondents and its potential for yielding important knowledge far outweighed any potential costs. While anonymity could not be maintained due to the selective and purposive nature of the study, confidentiality of the participants and their responses was ensured. The following excerpt, from the

letter of invitation (Appendix 1) to participate in the study, reflects attention to these matters:

I would like to invite you to be involved in a research study entitled *Educating for citizenship: teachers' pedagogical practices study*. The purpose of this study is to investigate more deeply the connections that secondary school teachers' make between their understandings of citizenship and the teaching and learning practices that they use to educate for citizenship in England and Canada. Your input would be invaluable and greatly appreciated!

The attached questionnaire should take about 40 minutes to complete. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may choose to answer only those questions with which you are comfortable. Upon completion of this form, I am requesting that you to return it to me in the envelope provided, (date). Your questionnaire responses will remain confidential. I will be the only person to have access to the questionnaire responses and they will be stored in locked cabinets in my office during the data analysis phase. The responses will be destroyed as soon as the data has been coded and put into a computer database.

Every attempt was made to avoid the possibility of respondents being misled. There was no need to withhold information in this study and various forms of debriefing were provided for respondents to talk about the study and to comment on any part of it. A note of thanks was also sent to participants (Appendix 6).

CHAPTER 4: CHARACTERISING TEACHERS' LEARNING GOALS

The central intent of this study was to illuminate ways in which specialist secondary school teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy in formal secondary school curriculum courses and programmes in Canada and England. The purpose of this chapter is to begin this discussion with a focus on teachers' preferred learning goals when educating for citizenship. One's pedagogical practices do not usually stand separate from one's learning goals (Pratt, 1994; Ross, 2001). This, of course, is not to suggest that one can assume total congruency between expressed goals and practices (Hallam and Ireson, 1999; Turner-Bisset, 2001) but rather to propose a starting point for discussion that aims to signify what these teachers believe has meaning and to provide a context for understanding their pedagogical practices.

This chapter considers teachers' characterisations of learning goals across three dimensions:

- teachers' preferred learning goals across the sample;
- personal 'goal sets' in relation to curriculum perspectives; and
- factors appearing to relate to teachers' preferred learning goals.

Three arguments shall be made in this chapter. One, that teachers across the sample articulate a variety of preferred learning goals when educating for citizenship. These goals reflect, in very general terms, liberal/civic republican tendencies represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education (Heater, 1999; Kerr, 2003; McLaughlin, 1992; Osborne, 2001; Sears, 1996). This variety is reflected across the sample, between national groupings, and within teachers' personal 'goal sets'. Two, that teachers' expressed learning goals appear to imply both eclectic and distinctive 'goal sets' which blend transmission, transactional, and transformative curriculum

perspectives. Distinctive personal ‘goal sets’ signal tendencies towards preferred curricular perspectives, raising issues about what goals of learning are given priority, what practices might be experienced in the classroom and school, and what curricula perspectives might – or might not – be addressed. And three, that a variety of factors appear to inform teachers’ preferred learning goals. Personal understandings of citizenship education, personal background experiences, learner characteristics, and contextual factors tended to receive more attention, signifying the need to consider a more sophisticated understanding of citizenship education pedagogy.

The chapter is organised into four sections:

4.1) Specific learning goals

4.1.1) Knowledge

4.1.2) Skills

4.1.3) Beliefs, values, and notions of social justice

4.1.4) Participating in civic life

4.2) Teachers’ personal ‘goal sets’ and curriculum perspectives

4.2.1) Personal orientations: A blend of transmission, transactional, and transformative perspectives

4.2.2) Blended ‘goal set’ emphases

4.3) Factors relating to teachers’ preferred learning goals

4.4) Characterising teachers’ learning goals

In this chapter, questionnaire, interview, and to a lesser extent, observation data are presented to illuminate teachers’ preferred learning goals. Data are presented in an integrated manner around key themes and issues to support the three central

arguments. In most cases, general findings in each section of this chapter begin with a consideration of what respondents write in their questionnaires. These findings are subsequently considered within the context of what respondents say in interviews and, to a lesser extent, what they do in their classrooms. Subsequent analysis chapters address pedagogical practices within the context of these articulated learning goals and more explicitly infuse observations of classroom practice.

4.1) Specific learning goals

Data taken from the postal questionnaires suggested that teachers across the sample consider a variety of learning goals when educating their students for citizenship.

Data reflected, in very general terms, liberal/civic republican tendencies that are represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education and in their respective curricula (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, *The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10, Canadian and World Studies 1999*; Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, (England) (QCA) *Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4: Initial guidance for schools 2000*). An understanding of rights and duties, democratic parliamentary structures and processes, rule of law, membership in differing communities (from the local to the global), diverse social and cultural beliefs and values, notions fairness and social justice, forms community involvement and participation, skills of enquiry and critical thinking, and an awareness of contemporary civic events and issues were representative of this variety, across the sample, between national groupings, and within teachers' personally held preferences. Typical of this emphasis on variety was one English teacher's comments,

- I use an integrated scheme of learning aims... understanding democracy, comparing it with other systems, encouraging research and

debate, raising pupils' self esteem, combating cynicism, providing an activity in which pupils participate, and learn how to deliver a speech or make a presentation.

Questionnaire data also revealed varying levels of personal support for, and understandings of, specific learning goals, generating considerable variation across the sample. This variation tended to confirm observations by McLaughlin (1992: 37) that goals are often variant and may be mapped “in terms of minimal and maximal interpretations of the notion locatable on a continuum rather than in terms of discrete conceptions”. Teachers' preferred learning goals, and some of the key variations expressed, are addressed in the first section of this chapter. They are based on an analysis of the questionnaire, interview, and to a lesser extent, observation data. Preferred learning goals, identified by teachers across sample, are subsumed under four distinct strands: knowledge; skills; beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and participation in civic life. These strands are reflective of teachers' tendency to characterise learning goals in ways that approximate learning strands observed in official curricula and in the “educational dimension” described in Heater's citizenship education framework (2000). Issues revealed in the data are interwoven throughout this section, with particular attention to goal preference (what gets included and what gets excluded); conceptual ambiguity; and the challenges of design and implementation.

4.1.1) Knowledge

Questionnaire data indicated strong support for goals that encouraged knowledge acquisition and conceptual understanding. Respondents across the questionnaire

sample encouraged nurturing students' knowledge about key concepts, democratic structures and processes, and contemporary and historical civic issues, supporting those findings cited in the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement's (IEA) Civic Education Study and summarised in *Civic Education Across Countries; Twenty-four National Cases Studies from the IEA Civic Education Project* (1999). An understanding of key concepts (e.g. democracy, one's rights and responsibilities), democratic structures and processes (e.g. governmental decision-making bodies, civil society and volunteer organisations), and current events and issues (e.g. local curfews, child labour) within and across local, national, and global contexts was representative of the general knowledge areas identified across the data sources. Typical questionnaire responses may be illustrated by referring to the words of two teachers. One Canadian teacher wrote "the informed person is the key...the more you know and are aware, the better the decisions that the citizen will make, they can make ...". A teacher from England commented, "there is a lack of knowledge at KS3 and KS4" and becoming informed about civic themes and issues is "education for living, it makes better prepared adults". Key knowledge areas identified by national groupings tended to align with the knowledge strands in their respective official curricula. Canadian teachers tended to highlight aspects of the "Informed citizenship" strand of the Canadian and World Studies curriculum (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, *The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10, Canadian and World Studies 1999*: 48, 49) whereas the English teachers tended to emphasise aspects of the "Knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens" strand of the English curriculum (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, (England) (QCA) *Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4: Initial guidance for schools 2000*: 14, 15) signifying types of knowledge deemed important by respondents. Data

revealed variations across the sample, between national groupings, and among respondents' personal support for specific learning goals in this strand, three of which are explained below.

Concepts and/or issues. All teachers across the sample indicated a preference for learning goals associated with conceptual understanding and being informed about civic issues and events, reflecting similar knowledge characteristics found in Davies, Gregory, and Riley's study (1999: 55). Based on the questionnaire data across the sample, there appeared to be a slight variation in terms of whether or not the focus ought to be mostly on knowledge acquisition and conceptual understanding or mostly on issues, and with what level of depth. There appeared to be a slight tendency among most Canadian teachers' to forefront understandings about current events and issues whereas most English teachers' tended to place more of an emphasis on establishing a strong knowledge and conceptual base. **David**, one of the Canadian respondents for example, put a particular emphasis on developing students' awareness of current events. Current newspaper articles and clips from TV news were used regularly in his classes to encourage awareness of current events, from the local to the global. In each of his classes that I observed, **David** began with a reading or video clip of a current news story (e.g. municipal election, chaos in Argentina elections, federal Cabinet shuffle). **Morgan**, one of the English respondents interviewed and reflecting an emphasis on foundational conceptual knowledge, stated,

once a foundation of knowledge is established the teacher can talk all about political rights, and freedoms and then you can talk to disability rights and gender issues and race issues, environmental issues, all of those can springboard out from an understanding of 'what are rights?'

For **Morgan**, this knowledge base provided conditions for deeper understanding of some of the more complex themes and issues that emerged in her History classes (e.g. “the Luddites, Peasant Revolt or at A level teaching something about the Lutheran stuff”). Observations of **Morgan’s** classes reflected this emphasis. It was apparent in my visits to **Morgan’s** classes that she spent a great deal of time and effort putting together teaching strategies interesting for the students but that also addressed her more specific goals of knowledge acquisition and concept development. One example, discussed in more detail in Chapter 6, focused on the Suffragettes and women’s rights.

Three respondents from across the sample, two English and one Canadian, cautioned against an overemphasis on knowledge acquisition (at the expense of other learning goals) and raised concerns about teacher bias and the possibly of indoctrination in the questionnaire data.

One teacher, for example, raised concerns about her own biases,

But when I’m talking about the political spectrum or debating privatisation, I really have to take care, or even globalisation, that this does not become...here are the right arguments, and here are the bad. I try to give them the opportunity to make up their own minds about those questions.

Strong-Boag’s warning (2000) of the implications of not addressing those learning goals that capture the “pluralist” and “inclusive” intent of citizenship education is a case in point, as less than half of the respondents included knowledge goals that addressed this intent.

Rights and duties. An understanding of rights and duties was forefronted as a key learning goal by teachers in both Canada and England in the questionnaire data. Ten

Canadian teachers and nine English teachers identified rights and duties as the primary concepts to be emphasised. Certain issues, however, were evident. There was substantive variance in the ways teachers talked about these concepts. Often, concepts were described in minimalist terms, with little attention to more sophisticated understandings. Most respondents in their questionnaire responses, for example, tended to emphasise knowing about rights and duties within civil and political domains with little attention to the socio-economic and cultural domains often referred to in the literature (McLaughlin, 1992; Hébert and Sears, 2001). Respondents in the English group tended to put a slightly stronger emphasis on one's duties and legal responsibilities rather than rights, perhaps reflective of what others (Heater, 2000; Kerr, 2003) have referred to as deeper civic republican inclinations within England itself.

From the local to the global. Questionnaire data revealed that almost all of the teachers across the sample connected citizenship to varying contexts, from the local to the global, and advocated nurturing students' knowledge about citizenship within these different contexts, reflecting what Heater (1990) referred to as a globally relevant framework. While the majority of respondents referred to local and national contexts, there was a tendency to forefront the local context across the sample. Not one of the Canadian respondents referred to understandings of citizenship within a provincial context. Similarly, only two respondents in the English group referred to understandings of citizenship within the context of the European Union.

Seven Canadian teachers forefronted the local context in their questionnaire responses and four encouraged more attention to the national context. Among the

English teachers, there was strong support for a local focus from six of the respondents whereas a national emphasis received slightly less support. Attention to the global context was evident across the sample and was only forefronted by three teachers in Canada and two in England. Interview data tended to illuminate these variant preferences. For example, among the Canadian teachers interviewed, **David** tended to put a particular emphasis on the local context. Issues, government and the services it provides, decision-making processes, and forms of involvement were discussed primarily within the local context. **Larissa**, on the other hand, forefronted concepts and issues of a global nature. She discussed nurturing knowledge about global governance, human rights, international justice, a sense of global interconnections, and global issues. **Heather** communicated yet another variation. She tended to highlight concepts such as democracy, rights and responsibilities, and participation as they affected students' lives, often within schools. Similar variant preferences were noticeable among the English teachers interviewed. **Susan** explained her emphasis on developing local understandings of citizenship. Pupils' rights and responsibilities, voting, current school and community issues (e.g. stereotypes, ageism), service to one's school and/or community, decision-making at the local level were areas of emphasis for her. **Pat** appeared to prefer to encourage global understandings and indicated a strong preference for learning goals that addressed knowledge about global concepts and issues. Observations of classes visited reflected these variant contextual emphases, more of which are discussed in subsequent chapters.

4.1.2) Skills

In the questionnaire data, thirteen of the Canadian teachers and eleven of the English teachers identified skill development as a critical strand of learning in citizenship education. Skill development was valued for different reasons. For some, it was valued for personal development and empowerment; for others, it was valued for effecting social change. In support of the former view, one of the teachers from England wrote,

I usually explain to each class, the aim of PHSE citizenship is not telling them what to think but enabling them to gain the necessary skills and information to make a reasoned judgement about things that will concern them.

In support of the latter perspective, a Canadian respondent remarked,

in a society where we are so bombarded with information, it is critical that students learn how to deal with this information...they must learn how to analyse the information and then decide what as citizens they can do to effect change.

Thinking critically, enquiry, and working effectively on one's own or in groups were skill areas that appeared to receive the broadest support across the sample. These skill areas tended to align with priorities advocated in their respective curriculum guidelines. Interviews and classroom observations also revealed a strong preference for skill development. In one class that I observed in England, for example, one of the teachers was working on photograph analysis. Her primary intent, in terms of a citizenship education focus, was to help students to learn how to deconstruct political messages found various sources of information. In another class that I observed in Canada, the teacher was assisting students with the development of researching skills. In this particular class, time was set aside for very discrete teaching activities

to assist students with the development of particular research skills, all within the context of an enquiry process (e.g. locating pertinent information on the Internet, identifying the main idea). A focus on skills was evident in most classes visited whether in England or Canada. There appeared to be little evidence, however, of those skill sets sometimes associated with more sophisticated forms of civic literacy (e.g. negotiating, mediating conflict, media literacy). Data again revealed variation across the sample, between national groupings, and within respondents' personal preferences, three of which are discussed in the pages that follow.

Thinking critically: personal development or social critique? Questionnaire data suggested that respondents in both countries preferred to encourage the development of students' capacity to think critically about themes, issues, and events of civic importance. Eight Canadian and eight English teachers identified critical thinking as a central learning goal. Teachers appeared to prefer to encourage critical thinking for personal development and empowerment and/or encourage critical thinking for social critique. There appeared to be a stronger emphasis on personal empowerment in both the questionnaire and interview data, however both perspectives were apparent. Those encouraging critical thinking for personal empowerment tended to talk about developing discrete thinking skills (e.g. recognising a point of view, developing a coherent and substantiated argument) to improve students' potential effectiveness as future citizens. One Canadian respondent wrote,

my goal is to help students look at things through a much more critical eye. Hopefully they'll do that, not only when they watch videos but when they do other things. When I hand a document out, sometimes I'll re-write something to have a bias, and so what I'm trying to do is I'm trying to get them to understand how to detect the bias.

One of the English teachers interviewed commented,

when you throw them out into the world and then they're sitting in the pub or they're sitting in the betting office or they're sitting in the office or the factory or wherever they are, and the newspaper says something, there's a headline and they say, hold on, what about such and such, that's where I think that skill-driven citizenship is of value, you might have forgotten proportional representation because maybe we don't deliver it in an exciting, memorable way, but along the way, we will have given them skills to criticise, analyse, question and not accept things at face value.

Those aiming to encourage critical thinking for social critique tended to talk about assisting students to analyse, and take a stand on, real public issues with the intent of bringing about improvements to their communities. **Pat**, for example, discussed her emphasis on goals that encouraged critical thinking combined with her broader goals of encouraging a sense of diversity and inclusion,

I think by encouraging skills of critical thinking and encouraging students to the diverse range of using opinions, you can actually bring in quite a wide range of views. But I feel it's my role as a teacher to help them (pupils) become aware of a diverse range of opinions and their wider responsibilities...ability to understand another person's position, which is a difficult thing.

As with the knowledge strand, English teachers appeared to encourage a depth of understanding of critical thinking skills. Canadian teachers tended to talk about a breadth of skills, with a strong emphasis on developing these capacities using real life examples and/or in real life contexts.

Enquiry. Questionnaire data, to a lesser extent, indicated that respondents across the sample preferred to encourage an understanding of the skills and processes of enquiry (e.g. able to locate information, synthesising information, communicating findings). Six Canadian and five English teachers, who encouraged enquiry, tended to connect it primarily with the goal of personal empowerment. Typical of this emphasis were **Larissa**, one of the Canadian teachers and **Morgan**, one of the English teachers. **Larissa**, like other Canadian respondents, talked about her

emphasis on building students' skills of enquiry. There was a sense in her responses that by equipping students with these skills, that they would feel empowered,

I'm always a bit concerned when I confront young people with some of the, with the magnitude of the challenges that we're facing. I think, you don't want to scare them to the point of thinking, there's nothing I can do, these are overwhelming problems and I'm going hide, I'm going to deny and I'm going to ignore...I think we start out by looking at examples of you know, what have other people done. We start the year by watching Gandhi, thinking about some questions we would like to research, researching the questions, and talking about what are effective means of bringing about change. I think the best way to learn is by doing, it's very important to me that they actually develop some skills and strategies that as 14 and 15 year olds they can do...

Observations of **Larissa's** classes revealed different examples of students working through different steps of the enquiry process, both independently and collaboratively around current issues such as health care, education, and hydro. Within this learning context, **Larissa** was observed often taking time to teach quite explicitly those enquiry skills (e.g. framing a question, recognizing evidence, communicating findings) that she felt students needed. **Morgan** commented that "enquiry for me is a massive approach" that can "make the most boring thing interesting" and can "help pupils develop a range of skills in an integrated way". **Morgan** claimed that most of her curriculum is "enquiry driven" and that the Department in which she works is rather "obsessive" about this approach. It was apparent from reviewing her curriculum binders that enquiry was forefronted in a very teacher-directed and structured way. In different examples, pupils were expected to work through various steps from asking questions to collecting and organising data, analysing and interpreting data, drawing conclusions, and communicating findings. In some instances, data gathered for observations of classes appeared to be in distinct contrast

to questionnaire and interview responses and these instances will be outlined in more detail in the subsequent analysis chapters.

Working effectively, independently and collaboratively. Just over half of the respondents across the sample indicated in their questionnaire responses a preference for building students skills to work independently and/or collaboratively when investigating issues and events of civic importance. Those respondents advocating the use of cooperative learning structures or group learning did so with the intent of promoting learning, encouraging a sense of mutual responsibility and belonging, and assisting with the development of social skills.

There appeared to be greater variation in terms of the tendencies advocated between the two national groupings than in other strand areas considered so far. While it would be inaccurate to suggest that one group endorsed one set of skills, and that the other group endorsed another set, there appeared to be a stronger tendency among the English respondents to highlight the goal of nurturing students' independent study skills. While many English teachers acknowledged the value of developing the skills of effective group work, there appeared to be a preference for encouraging those skills that would assist students investigate civic themes and issues and be able to work independently. On the other hand, Canadian respondents tended to talk more explicitly about encouraging cooperative learning skills, suggesting possible differences at least in the level of intent ascribed to these types of learning goals by the two national groups.

4.1.3) Beliefs, values, and notions of social justice

Respondents from both Canada and England indicated a preference for encouraging an understanding of beliefs, values, and notions of social justice in their questionnaire responses. Six Canadian teachers and eight English teachers gave particular attention to this goal strand. Responses, in comparison to earlier strand areas discussed, were more variable in terms of the focus encouraged. Some respondents indicated a preference for nurturing certain values, some preferred to encourage the exploration of beliefs and values underpinning civic action, and still others, encouraged examining notions of social justice as practised in historical and/or contemporary contexts. Canadian respondents tended to consider these learning goals largely within the context of Canada's diverse culture milieu (Kymlicka, 1995). Teachers' questionnaire and interview responses, in the Toronto schools in particular, highlighted the multicultural character of their schools and the need to explore diverse values, beliefs, and notions of social justice in their classrooms. Fewer respondents in the English grouping identified cultural background as a significant factor. Data revealed additional variations between national samples and within respondents' personal preferences, three of which are discussed below.

Nurturing values. While many of the respondents across the sample emphasised that citizenship education ought to nurture certain values, slightly different values appeared to emerge between the Canadian and English teachers. Comments like "respect for others" and a "commitment to social responsibility" and "tolerance" were forefronted by English teachers in the questionnaire data. One of the English teachers interviewed stated, "tolerance is the key aim that I am trying to do".

Another commented that she preferred to nurture a sense of fairness guided by a notion of a “good person”. For her, being a good person meant being a good citizen, its “about people doing nice things to each other just because... and knowing the consequences of one’s actions”, a sense of agreed upon morality. This data tended to align with Davies, Gregory, and Riley’s findings (1999: 48-50) and Davies’ comments (2000: 99) that English teachers “commonly stress what can be called social concern characteristics of citizenship. This incorporates concerns for the welfare of others, moral and ethical behaviour and tolerance diversity within society”.

Questionnaire responses across the Canadian sample identified similar items but there appeared to put more of an emphasis on values like “respect for the rights of others”, “appreciation for diversity”, and “personal responsibility”. **Larissa**, a Canadian teacher, highlighted “empathy” in an interview. She commented, “the challenge for me is, how do you develop empathy”.

Exploring beliefs and values underpinning civic decisions. Fewer respondents indicated an interest in encouraging students to explore and make links between personal beliefs and values, personal action, and the consequences of that action within the civic realm, or what Rowe referred to as an “value conflict or pluralist model” (Rowe, 2000: 198). One Canadian respondent wrote that educating for citizenship ought to encourage students to

make links between personal action and consequences of that action, to relate citizenship elements to students’ personal and/or religious beliefs, and to relate citizenship elements to students’ personal experiences.

An English teacher commented that “without personal moral awareness of a fairly high order, the practice of citizenship within wider society is rendered difficult, if not impossible”. **Pat**, in one of the interviews, stressed the importance of examining one’s identity,

I do believe that if you’re not aware of your own identity and who you are, then you’re not actually going to be much use as a citizenship...the whole idea of being able to reduce prejudice, or to be able to say, you’re aware of your prejudices, requires you to actually know your own identity, you’re got to struggle with that before you can understand other people’s identities...

Themes such as justice and fairness, anti-racist values, personal morality, links with the teachings of the world’s major religions, notions of responsibility, and service work within the community, reflected the range of areas identified.

Canadian respondents tended to consider this element largely within the context of Canada’s diverse culture milieu. Teachers in the Toronto area, in particular, highlighted the multicultural character of their schools and the need to explore diverse values and beliefs in their classrooms. **Heather**, in her questionnaire and interview responses, strongly encouraged understandings of cultural diversity and anti-discriminatory goals within the broader context of citizenship education. She talked about the diversity within her school in terms of ethnicity, religion, language skills, ability skills and income. Whether examining a particular event or exploring a historical or contemporary public issue, her intent was to ensure that a diversity of viewpoints and examples were represented and considered. This is not to imply that notions of cultural diversity were not of importance to the English respondents, but rather to suggest that this focus tended to be heightened among Canadian teachers. **Morgan**, one of the English teachers interviewed and observed, for example,

highlighted her goal of encouraging an understanding of diverse values and the need to challenge personal value biases as they arise. Her students, for example, were encouraged to recognise and comment on differing beliefs and values through historical examples and themes addressed in particular units of study (e.g. Luddites, child labour).

Notions of social justice. Only a handful of respondents of Canadian and English teachers across the sample viewed examining notions social justice as a preferred learning goal. There was little clarity about what notions or aspects of social justice ought to be encouraged and many of the respondents provided only brief remarks in the questionnaire data. Some referred to religious notions of justice while others referred to legal codes. This variety was also noted in the interview data as well.

Two examples are provided below. **Larissa**, for example, appeared to look at social justice from a human rights perspective. She commented,

when you see the level of suffering that exists in parts of the world, and you contrast that with some of the excesses around culture there is just something that's out of whack, on a human level. And the other part of it, I think, is just this level of disparity between our reality, and what others are experiencing...something is ethically questionable...I think that it's urgent that we start engaging students in some type of thinking about these concerns...

Pat, on the other hand, appeared to consider social justice within the context of prejudice and inequality. She remarked,

I struggle sometimes as to how to get these things into a particular lesson at times, but definitely they are huge goals to me. I raise a lot of attention to inequalities, for example, and we look at issues about being under-privileged and privileged and what is privilege and what do you mean by that.

Observations of their classes revealed some attention to issues of social justice. In separate instances, students were observed in each of these teachers' classrooms

being encouraged to think about the sort of society that they wanted to live in, the kinds of rights that they thought that they and others should be entitled to, and ways one can go about creating that kind of world. A global focus often underpinned the area being studied (detailed examples of these instances are provided in Chapter 6).

4.1.4) Participating in civic life

The goal of encouraging an understanding of participation in civic life received strong support from all teachers in the study. Respondents tended to agree that understandings of participation ought to begin in the classroom and about half encouraged varying forms of participation beyond the classroom. Forms of participation preferred beyond the classroom, included volunteering, community service, and to a lesser extent, direct political action. There was a general sense that by encouraging participation in civic life, students would have the opportunity to deepen their understandings and to practise their skills. As one teacher wrote, “participation is most important because when people participate, I feel they are learning about the community, the nation, the world”. A local focus tended to be advocated more strongly than a national or a global one. As with other general goal areas, questionnaire and interview data also revealed distinctive variations across the sample, between national groupings, and within respondents’ personal preferences, two of which are explained below.

A classroom and school focus. Questionnaire data suggested that the goal of encouraging participation in civic life appeared to be understood by Canadian and English respondents as happening almost exclusively within the context of the classroom and the school. Among the English teachers, there was a general sense

that pupils ought to be introduced to various forms of civic participation through the curricula and that they ought to be provided with opportunities to practise responsible involvement in classroom-based and school-wide activities. Interviews revealed a similar focus with slight variations. Typical of this classroom focus was **Morgan's** interview comments. She stated that,

encouraging a sense of civic participation begins in the context of the classroom. Through the study of historical examples, discussion, and by bringing guest speakers into the classroom, pupils can be introduced to various types of participation in varying contexts (e.g. picking up trash in the school halls, studying the actions of political parties) so over time pupils can get an understanding of when you're 18, you have this responsibility to contribute to how this country is run.

A similar emphasis was noted in **Susan's** remarks, "the school offers a rich context for practising citizenship through pupil input into the school forum, the mediation program, and other initiatives". This focus was also observed being played out in English classrooms in two ways: one, involvement in small group and large group discussions; and, two, in other types of classroom tasks (e.g. role playing, volunteering for different tasks). Questionnaire responses among Canadian teachers also tended to acknowledge that the classroom and the school were the most important locations for learning participation. Interview comments reinforced this emphasis. **Heather**, for example, viewed the school as a rich context to explore the interpersonal aspects of citizenship and to empower her students through action. **Heather** encouraged her students to take action, "if you see something that needs to be done" (e.g. trash on the floor, someone being bullied in), "don't sort of walk by and ignore something when you can do something about it...just do it". She added,

you know, sometimes is hard like if you're the only person who is disagreeing, even in a group of peers, and someone makes a racist or homophobic comment or whatever and being the only person to stand up and say, you know what, that's not acceptable. Just that kind of

empowering students to say, you know, I'm uncomfortable with that. You know whatever it takes to change behaviours and things like that, it's part of that kind of involvement I think. I want my students to feel responsible, but also empowered cause a lot of students don't feel like they have a voice, I mean a few do, but they're the isolated ones.

Beyond the classroom: Service learning and political action. Encouraging participation beyond the classroom was advocated by only a five of the respondents from the English group. Notions of participation appeared to range from “responsible consumerism” to “supporting charities” to “understanding how communities have developed” to simply “doing something”. Of those teachers indicating a preference to go beyond the classroom, there was an emphasis on a voluntary, service dimension of participation. Indicative of this tendency were the following comments written by two of the English respondents. One respondent wrote, “service to, or on, any one of the numerous bodies within local government or the voluntary sector e.g. registered charities” is central to active participation. Another remarked,

Participation is a feeling that all elements of the local community can be involved in social and community events...this for us has meant participation in the recent celebrations of the new millennium which took part in the local village...there were a musical evening and entries in a display of work and a year book.

There was little evidence of broad support among English teachers of encouraging participation beyond the classroom in ways that aimed to bring about any form of change or that moved beyond the community. There were, however, a few exceptions. **Pat**, for example, tended to emphasise the goal of “active involvement” in real civic issues, from the local to the global. While she talked about the value of using the classroom as a site in which to practise citizenship, there was a clear inclination towards active involvement in real issues. **Pat** commented in an interview,

I think in terms of involvement, I like to be as active as possible. I think it has more meaning. Involvement on paper is very esoteric, I prefer to get kids to write letters about things, get kids to be aware of how to lobby MP's, get kids to be aware of the mechanisms that are available to them now, how they can raise money, aware of their relative power, and also aware of how their consumer power can affect and influence other people's lives. So, I try and make it quite real for them...Participation taught otherwise really doesn't have much meaning.

Ten Canadian teachers indicated support for forms of participation that went beyond the school. Canadian respondents, like their English counterpart, tended to put a stronger emphasis on learning about participation through service learning. There were, however, a small number of Canadian respondents who tended to advocate a more activist intent, "to make society a better place" or "to work for political change wherever feasible and consistent with one's values". For these respondents, participation meant being aware of issues in one's community, gathering information about them, forming opinions, and expressing oneself in an appropriate forum on one or more of these issues. The goal of participation for these respondents appeared to be about bringing about change and improvement to their communities through "volunteering, lobbying, or educating". **Larissa** offered a slightly different variation on this theme. **Larissa**, in different interview sessions, tended to encourage a focus on global issues with some form of direct action at local and international levels. **Larissa** indicated that following the study of a particular public issue in her class, students were challenged to think about ways they might get involved in finding solutions and taking action,

...the challenge for them is, so what can we do? We see what the problems are, they do their own research, we see what others are trying to do, so what can we do ... my job is to try to give them opportunities, ideas, but without being too prescriptive so that there is room for creative initiative for them...It's ongoing, it has been ongoing

for some time...one of the groups, for example, chose child labour and paired up with an NGO...

While teachers in Canada and England reported and talked about various activities used to nurture a sense of participation, there was little substantiation of these types of activities in my visits to schools, more of which will be discussed in the subsequent analysis chapters.

In summary, this first section outlined the variety of learning goals articulated and forefronted by teachers across the sample in questionnaire, interview, and to a lesser extent, observation data. A multifaceted set of goals was clearly evident, supporting Kerr's claim (2000: 7) that there has been a conceptual move "away from narrow, knowledge-based approaches of citizenship education to a broader approach encompassing knowledge and understanding, active experiences and development of student values, dispositions, skills, and aptitudes". There was little evidence, however, to indicate any strict adherence to a set of learning goals that represented a particular model of citizenship or citizenship education.

Articulated learning goals tended to encompass common themes and reflected, in very general terms, liberal/civic republican tendencies embodied in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education and the respective curricula of the national contexts. There was, however, evidence of variation across the sample, between national groupings, and within teachers' personally held goal sets, in terms of personal support for, and understandings of, specific learning goal strands.

Evidence of these common themes and variations were described and subsumed under four distinct learning goal strands: knowledge; skills; beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and participation in civic life.

Lastly, different issues arising from the data were interwoven throughout the section. Concerns about what knowledge gets included and what knowledge gets excluded and the potential disregard for core policy goals, or at worst, indoctrination, were raised. Varied goal preferences and the potential for ambiguity were also considered. Lastly, the predictable challenges for designing and implementing pedagogical practices that would effectively address the complex and multilayered goals associated with their understandings of citizenship education were acknowledged.

4.2) Teachers' personal 'goal sets' and curriculum perspectives

This section considers teachers' personal 'goal sets' in relation to curriculum perspectives. It examines how individual teachers personally integrate their preferred goals (vertical analysis), a shift in focus from looking at goal preferences across the sample and between national groupings (horizontal analysis). It is argued in this section that teachers' 'goal sets' blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curriculum perspectives in both eclectic and distinctive ways. Further, it is argued that distinctive personal 'goal sets' signal tendencies towards preferred curricular perspectives, raising issues about what goals of learning are given priority, what practices might be experienced in the classroom and school, and what elements of official curricula and /or broader theoretical frameworks might – or might not – be addressed.

4.2.1) Personal orientations: A blend of transmission, transactional, transformative perspectives

Data collected from questionnaires, interviews, and to a lesser extent, classroom observations suggested that teachers personally articulate their preferred learning goals in eclectic and distinctive ways. Transmission, transactional, and transformative elements were evident in each teacher's articulated 'goal set' when analysed within the context of Miller's (1996) curriculum perspectives continuum. In most instances, teachers' 'goal sets' tended to indicate a strong alignment with what may be referred to as a 'transmission' or a 'content-driven' orientation. In these instances, personal 'goal sets' tended to put a particular emphasis on knowledge acquisition and some basic skills, with the intent of simply passing on pertinent content and skills. Attention to values and involvement in civic life was apparent, but less prominent. Most teachers' goal sets' also forefronted tendencies aligned with a 'transactional' or an 'objectives-driven' orientation. **Morgan**, for example, tended to forefront in her questionnaire and interview responses personal skill development that would enable youth for their civic role,

we're more than just history teachers...citizenship is important because we're teaching the child in a variety of ways, just as anything like thinking skills and literacy are important to what we are doing, because it's bigger than a content-driven course...citizenship is important for an individual's development, ability to progress in the world, to handle the world that they are moving into.

Morgan's intent appeared to align more with a transactional orientation in that it signalled attention to individual development within the context of social and economic need. In this example, there is a clear intent to move beyond content acquisition to the development of competencies deemed important to society, what Ross (2001: 8) has referred to as "abilities and capabilities necessary to meet the

needs of contemporary life”. Fewer teachers in both national groupings communicated ‘transformative’ tendencies. In these instances, personal ‘goal sets’ tended to highlight personal and social awareness and change, the assumption being that students ought to be made aware of the political, cultural, historical, and social aspects of their society and of themselves, as active participants in it (Pratt, 1994; Miller, 1996; Ross, 2000). Teachers did not, as Pratt (1994: 21) has noted, appear to locate their ‘goal sets’ in only one of these defined curriculum perspectives. Rather, dominant tendencies were discernable as were disjunctions across the curriculum perspectives continuum, appearing to suggest a degree of relativity across and within personal orientations. In some cases, a rather eclectic picture emerged in which no clear pattern was evident, other than an assortment of goals that reflected simply a range of perspectives.

4.2.2) Blended ‘goal set’ emphases

Two blended ‘goal sets’ appeared to stand out across the questionnaire responses.

Most respondents, across the sample, appeared to convey a blended transmission/transactional orientation. To a lesser extent, about a third of the sample expressed what appeared to be a blended transactional/transformative orientation.

Interview data tended to yield further clarification of these blended ‘goal sets’. **David** and **Susan’s** ‘goal sets’, for example, were illustrative of blended transmission/transactional orientations. **David**, one of the Canadian teachers interviewed, tended to emphasise his attention to knowledge acquisition about the local community and personal skill development. He wrote,

for me, the goal of personal development allows the student to be kind of, in my opinion, on more of a citizen level...once you start

understanding who you are, where you came from, your baggage and all that, then I think you can start taking part in society. That's huge.

For **David**, the emphasis on developing local knowledge and personal skills appeared to be closely aligned with helping students to fit into, and contribute to, one's community. **Susan**, one of the English teachers, articulated a similar 'goal set' orientation. Her 'goal set' tended to forefront personal skill development and community understanding. For **Susan**, the central goal appeared to be about introducing pupils to knowledge, skills, and values that would help them to become 'good' persons and to contribute to the communities in which they lived. **Susan's** responses seemed to suggest a focus on character development, pupils arrive with significant "baggage" and the main goal is "to make sure that when they leave that they're equipped for society". Also evident within **Susan's** central goals was an emphasis of involving pupils in their communities in various "service-like" roles. Goals of social critique and change were not very pronounced.

Larissa and **Pat's** articulated 'goal sets', on the other hand, tended to be illustrative of the less evident blended transactional/transformational orientation. **Larissa**, one of the Canadian teachers interviewed, tended to emphasise skill development and academic understanding. For **Larissa**, this goal emphasis could provide students with the required capacities to critique and improve society,

I suppose the ultimate goal for me is that students should be able to look, to have wisdom and humanity and independent minds in order to look critically and determine what needs changing...I absolutely don't think that social acceptance should be what we're promoting, but we should be able to encourage students to look at society and either accept because they believe in or work to bring about change.

Larissa put a heightened emphasis on understanding contemporary issues, becoming involved in social justice work, and nurturing global perspectives. While **Larissa**

included an academic dimension in her intentions, she appeared to forefront the goal of encouraging students to think critically about the sort of society that they might want to live in,

the kind of rights that you and others are entitled to, how does one go about creating that kind of world. Our mandate at this school is, I'm going to paraphrase loosely, but it's about shaping creative and reflective leaders who are engaged with their communities and there is a notion of service built into that.

Pat, one of the English teachers interviewed, also communicated tendencies towards this transactional/transformational orientation. **Pat's** 'goal set' tended to integrate a sense of identity, social justice, and skills required to function as a responsible member of society, from the local to the global. **Pat** commented in one of her interviews that,

in so far as I don't see any point in teaching students facts. . . facts. . . facts, in three hours, and that's it, shove them out into the world, I see absolutely no point in educating kids, unless you're educating them to be more human...as I see it, it's very scary if you have educators, people who have no sense or morals and values, no sense of responsibilities. I think there are some very obvious and some very, very scary examples.

Within this orientation, **Pat** appeared to put a heightened emphasis on nurturing understandings of diversity and global responsibility. In each of the these cases, attention to personal skill development, social critique and improvement, an awareness of the political, cultural, historical, and social aspects of their society, and to themselves as active participants were reflected.

Analyses of respondents' personal 'goal sets' revealed differing goal emphases.

While a multifaceted set of goals was clearly evident, dominant tendencies were discernable as were disjunctions across the curriculum perspectives. Teachers' personal 'goal sets' appeared to blend transmission, transactional, and

transformational curriculum perspectives in both eclectic and distinctive ways. Most respondents, across the sample, appeared to convey a blended transmission/transactional orientation while a fewer number of teachers across the sample appeared to express a blended transactional/transformational orientation. Interestingly, the transactional orientation had a strong presence in both blended profiles, signalling tendencies towards the development of personal competencies, in particular the cognitive dimension. It was evident that teachers' 'goal sets' reflected different emphases, raising issues about what goals of learning are given priority, what practices might be experienced in the classroom and school, and what elements of official curricula and /or broader theoretical frameworks might – or might not – be addressed.

4.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred learning goals

Literature suggests that a teacher's learning goals and pedagogical practices relate to a variety of overlapping factors (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Mortimore, 1999; Shulman, 1986; Turner-Bisset, 2001). Shulman (1986) identified seven categories of knowledge that he believed ought to inform teaching. These included content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical/content knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends. Turner-Bisset (2001) expanded upon this list and heightened attention to how these knowledge bases might interact. In this section, it is argued that teachers' preferred learning goals appeared to relate to a mixture of factors across the sample. Four main factors (in no particular order) appeared to be highlighted: personal understandings of citizenship education, learner characteristics and teachers' personal views of learning, personal background

experiences, and contextual factors (e.g. official curricula). These factors, however, appeared to receive more or less attention, depending on the specific teacher responding.

Personal understandings of citizenship education. Fourteen Canadian teachers and eleven English teachers indicated that their preferred learning goals were linked to contemporary characterisations of citizenship education. One respondent wrote,

I don't believe that our only responsibilities as citizens is to cast our vote...for this reason when I educate for citizenship I focus on the rights and particularly the responsibilities of citizens...I think it is very important for students to broaden their understanding of citizenship outside the legal sense and to understand their place as global citizens.

Another respondent indicated that her goals were linked to a personal understanding of citizenship acquired through academic study as an historian, current events, her own sense of responsible involvement, and a belief that students need the tools. She commented,

as a historian, one has an understanding of lack of civic responsibility, so it's part of when you teach history, you have an opportunity to show students where people could have made different decisions, and maybe have a different outcome of events.

She added, "I always try and bring in something that's happening. The Iraq's situation, for example, just makes it more relevant and engaging". And, "I think just my own social conscience and responsibility, I do volunteer work and those kinds of things, and make it a personal philosophy of teaching as well, so a combination". Not one teacher espoused, or even referenced however, a specific theoretical conception of citizenship education.

Learner characteristics and teachers' personal views of learning. The vast majority of respondents across the sample also identified learner characteristics and personal views of learning in their questionnaire and interview responses as important factors. Prior knowledge, different learning styles, developmental stage, mixed abilities, and cultural diversity were most commonly cited student characteristics. "Active engagement in learning", "small group learning" and "practical and authentic applications" were understandings of learning commonly cited by the respondents. Detailed explanations of how students learn and their relationship to learning goals, however, were modest across the sample. **Susan**, one of the interviewees, was more explicit than most. Goals for citizenship, according to **Susan**, need to address her sense of pupils' development levels and interests,

the program is designed for these children in mind, so if I look at racism, it's because I know the judgement the we're dealing with. You have to be very real, and it has to be very practical. If they can't see the relevance, they won't talk to you...

Personal background experiences. Personal background experiences were also viewed as being an important factor. About half of the respondents in each of the national groupings cited personal background experiences (e.g. work experiences, family background, and professional learning experiences) in the questionnaire responses. One respondent wrote,

my international teaching experience allows me to make links for my students between their daily lives and those of students in other countries...it allows me to bring personal experience of development issues to the classroom.

Other teachers described how various background experiences informed their goal preferences. Among the Canadian teachers interviewed, for example, **David** tended to highlight his own personal experiences in the political process as the primary

factor influencing his preference for particular goals of citizenship education. He talked about this sense of citizenship beginning with his family's involvement in local politics and later evolving through his political experiences at university and his actions in his adult life,

it started with my parents. I mean, I grew up in a small town where you had about 4500 people in a small village and everybody knew one another. I mean you knew the mayor and you had contact with him on a regular basis...if they had some problem with something I mean it was going to that person and saying, this is my problem...this person supposedly would fix the problem or deal with it ...I was always the type to show up to the town hall meetings and participate actively in the community...so I felt that was something I wanted to give back to my kids when I started to teach...

Contextual factors. Most respondents agreed that contextual factors informed what learning goals were given priority. A variety of contextual factors were identified. Educational policies and official curricula were cited most often as providing important guidance. Ontario teachers, for example, tended to highlight recent reforms in provincial educational policies. The new compulsory Civics course for grade 10 students was frequently cited as providing curricular direction. It was also viewed by some teachers as being somewhat constraining. "Too much information to cover and not enough time" was a common theme communicated by the Ontario respondents. Another respondent wrote, "we have to cover all of the expectations and yet still try to make our students critical citizens who analyse and evaluate issues and governments". English respondents cited contextual factors as well. Almost all of the English teachers highlighted changes in the National Curriculum and the introduction of Citizenship as a statutory component in their questionnaire responses. One respondent wrote, "obviously the fact that citizenship is compulsory has had an effect and has determined to a large extent what will be taught". Other contextual

factors such as curriculum overload, an exam culture, school ethos, lack of qualified teachers, and timetable restrictions were identified. Prevailing social, political, and economic contextual issues were mentioned sparingly and tended to focus on recent global incidents. Reflective of this was a written response by one of the Canadian teachers,

I have a student here I'm teaching this year whose father was incarcerated pre-September 11th, but is still in jail more than a year later...he's Muslim and you know like he's in the paper all the time...he has no rights...there are concerns about a fair trial...and he's not a Canadian citizen but he's certainly been here for a long time and two of his children are Canadian citizens. So I mean just as an example of how you know, outside events can take away some of our rights. If they can do it once, they can do it again.

Blended factors. Most respondents discussed these factors in a blended manner with no clear patterns emerging. This was particularly apparent in the data collected through interviews. Three brief accounts are provided below. **Larissa** highlighted, for example, a sense of global injustice and personal responsibility as primary factors guiding her preference for particular goals of citizenship education. She lamented,

our world is in a fair bit of trouble...you see the level of suffering that exists in parts of the world, and you contrast that with some of the excesses around...there is just something that's out of whack on a human level...we're looking at a degree of global crisis that we ignore at our own peril. It's my own worry about the kind of society that we live in, and the magnitude of the problems we're facing, that I think that it's urgent that we start engaging students in some type of thinking about how do we respond...I do believe that we do have some sort of obligation to our fellow human beings. I think that's at the heart of it.

She also indicated that her goals were guided by curriculum guidelines and her belief in the potential of youth for leadership and responsible contributions. **Morgan's** responses also typified a blend of factors. She highlighted the curriculum context and

personal values related to equality and social justice as primary factors guiding her preference for particular goals of citizenship education,

I think at 38 you are formed largely as a political person by what your experience has been...you've grown up to devise your sense of social justice and by my age, they influence the way you view citizenship education...but I have to do what I'm told to do... we are here to deliver National Curriculum, we have to do that...we have exams, league tables...I follow the curriculum but I also think that personality, my personality, or what I personally believe in terms of something like anti-sexism, or anti-racism something like that, is a massive factor.

To a lesser extent, **Morgan** pointed to school ethos, the insularity of the local context and the relative lack of academic and pedagogical preparation as important factors.

Pat also identified a blend of factors. She forefronted personal values related to Quakerism as the primary force informing her preference for particular goals,

Well, I suppose its having been brought up in a broadly Christian tradition myself, I've ended up as a Quaker, and I do...I suppose I feel is very happy, so basically Quaker values inspire me, in which I actually do as an educator. Quaker values have been very much of what I've been talking about really...I am influenced by the various testimonies in Quakerism, by the peace testimony, and the testimony towards the environment, yeah.

Pat was quick to acknowledge, however, that other factors such as teacher training, an interest in history, school ethos, and global issues informed her goals. Visits to battlefield sites and other experiences during her teaching training, for example, were identified as important experiences that helped her to “really think about citizenship education and its goals”. She also commented on the insularity of the school in which she worked and the challenge of investigating global issues and developing global perspectives,

I'm a woman on a mission really. I feel responsible about my role as a global educator and I try to keep it as an educator not an indoctrinator. I have my own prejudices...my excuse is sometimes that I'm only just countering the right...but yes, I have to laugh at myself occasionally.

CHAPTER 5: SHAPING THE CLASSROOM LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Literature (Adams, Bell, and Griffin, 1997; Apple and Beane, 1995; Beyer, 1996; Gibbs, 2000; Johnson and Johnson, 1998; Pike, 2000) suggests that attention to nurturing an effective classroom learning environment can facilitate and support healthy interaction among learners, safe zones for the discussion of controversial public issues, a sense of feeling included and valued, and opportunities to practise democratic and participatory forms of learning. It also suggests, however, an environment of this type requires careful preparation and guidance. According to Sorensen (1996: 89),

Contrary to misunderstandings about the nature of a democratic classroom – one that promotes freedom, decision-making, risk-taking, and group participation – a classroom of this sort is not without structure. In fact, the teacher has a vital if difficult role in guiding the development of a democratic classroom. Without a teacher's vision and experience, a democratic classroom cannot be created.

This chapter considers teachers' preferred practices in shaping the classroom learning environment when educating for citizenship. A look at these practices provides another lens for understanding how teachers' characterise citizenship education pedagogy. Furthermore, these practices can either expose or mask what teachers believe has meaning. This chapter considers three dimensions:

- teachers' preferred practices in shaping the classroom learning environment across the sample;
- personal orientations to shaping the classroom environment in relation to curriculum perspectives; and
- factors relating to teachers' preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment.

Three arguments shall be made in this chapter. One, that most respondents across the sample shape aspects of the classroom learning environment to facilitate student learning, and to a lesser extent, nurture certain democratic understandings. Preferred practices appear to take different forms and vary across the sample and between national groupings. Some of these practices include: nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom; using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship; providing resource access and support; and teacher modelling. Two, it is argued that teachers' personal orientations to shaping the classroom learning environment appear to blend various curriculum perspectives (e.g. transmission, transactional, and transformational) in rather disconnected ways. A case is made that teachers' practices in this area appear to be rather modest and underdeveloped in contrast to other areas of pedagogical practice (e.g. teaching practices, assessment practices) explored in this study. And three, it is contended that teachers' preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment appear to relate to a mixture of factors. Personal views of learning, learner characteristics, and understandings of citizenship are factors identified most often across the sample, while other factors receive less attention.

This chapter is organised into four sections:

5.1) Shaping the classroom learning environment

5.1.1) Nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion

5.1.2) Using classroom space

5.1.3) Resource access and support

5.1.4) Teacher modelling

5.2) Shaping the classroom learning environment and curriculum perspectives

- 5.2.1) Personal orientations: Transmission, transactional, and transformative
- 5.3) Factors relating to teachers' practices for shaping the classroom learning environment
- 5.4) Shaping the classroom learning environment: Teachers characterisations

Data are presented from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations in an integrated manner to support the three central arguments of the chapter. In most cases, general findings in each of the following sections begin with a consideration of what respondents said in the questionnaires. These findings are subsequently considered within the context of what respondents said in interviews and what they were observed doing in their classrooms. In most cases, specific references are made to the source of the data.

5.1) Shaping the classroom learning environment

Fourteen Canadian and fourteen English teachers indicated in their questionnaire responses that they used a range of practices to shape the classroom learning environment in ways that facilitated learning and, to a lesser extent, modelled democratic understandings. Creating a classroom environment that nurtured democratic citizenship was not, however, considered to be a primary goal. Practices identified were highly variant from respondent to respondent and tended to be discussed on four levels: one, nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom; two, using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship; three, resource access and support; and four, teacher modelling democratic practices. Issues revealed in the data are interwoven throughout this

section, with particular attention to levels of teacher authority, student empowerment, and classroom boundaries.

5.1.1) Nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion

Questionnaire, interview, and observation data revealed the use of a range of specific practices to shape conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom, supporting notions that the classroom environment ought to be non-threatening, interactive, and community oriented (Sorensen, 1996; Blair and Jones, 1998). About a third of the Canadian respondents indicated providing opportunities for student input into classroom decisions, students' rights and responsibilities, and rules and expectations (e.g. choosing seats, wearing hats, not to talk when someone else is talking). One respondent wrote,

I begin the year with a lesson on decision-making and then we use the different models of decision-making throughout the year...where appropriate there is discussion and debate about classroom decisions before changes are made.

A few teachers talked about ways in which they provide opportunities for their students to have input "in designing (and delivering) certain aspects of the course" or "choosing research topics of personal interest". Underpinning many of these practices, there appeared to be an interest in building a sense of community in the classroom that encouraged a democratic tone. One respondent recorded that she used "the TRIBES (Gibbs, 2000) program to increase democratic decision making within groups" in the classroom. Through these experiences in the classroom, "students experience the burden of freedom and responsibility".

About half of the English teachers indicated nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom in the questionnaire data. These included classroom agreements, seating plans that encouraged more open discussion, voting on certain issues, student choice on projects, and encouraging pupil voice through student school councils. Most of these respondents also viewed the classroom as a context to encourage an understanding of multiple perspectives that exist when considering various issues. One respondent suggested that, “wherever possible, I believe in letting students put their views across”. Another wrote, “everybody is allowed to make comments...it can also show that although there are disagreements in some cases an answer has to be found and so the majority viewpoint needs to be taken on”. One respondent specifically referred to the importance of inclusivity in her approach, “all of my activities are open to all students and I don’t encourage anything that targets one particular group”. English respondents tended to indicate greater attention to teacher direction in their practices in comparison to their Canadian counterpart. This was not particularly noticeable, however, in my observations of the various classes in either Canada or England. In both contexts, practices of this sort were mostly teacher-led. Two respondents from England, however, were quick to point out in subsequent interviews that schools can never be democratic.

A few examples of teachers’ intent to nurture conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom are illustrative. **Larissa**, one of the Canadian teachers interviewed and observed, appeared to give considerable attention to building a sense of community in her classroom. She indicated that she viewed her classroom as “a microcosm of society at large” and that she tried to build a sense of community in her

classroom that encouraged students to get to know each other better, to share ideas, and to foster a sense of mutual responsibility. In one interview, she stated,

Well, I mean, we're talking about our relationships to our fellow citizens. You know, what common values we share, what common experiences we share. What binds us one to another. Because if you don't foster a sense of connection to other human beings then you don't have a citizen, you just have a person living in a bubble with no sense of being connected to the larger society. And so I think using the classroom as a little microcosm of society at large, is important in getting them to listen to individual experiences, different points of view, to participate in simulated town meetings or debates, or just to have the experience. It'll be an artificial one in some ways, but to have the experience of civic dialogue is important.

She pointed out that she incorporated a variety of learning activities throughout the year - but particularly at the beginning of a course - that encouraged a sense of interconnectedness and collaboration. She added that she tried to establish a relaxed atmosphere that encouraged a sense of informality in the classroom,

We have a pretty relaxed atmosphere. Kids have fairly informal relationships with the teacher and so you know, I go around and sit with them a lot and chat and joke. But I do have to give them little reminders, sometimes I do a lot of this informally and how they relate to one another and perhaps this is something to think about for the future actually coming up with a code of ethics for the class.

Observations of her classes revealed a facilitative teaching orientation, in her words, "a lot of handing over the reins".

Heather, another one of the Canadian teachers, also appeared to nurture a sense of community and inclusion. Observational data revealed that she used a range of cooperative learning structures to promote learning but also to encourage a sense of mutual responsibility and belonging. Questionnaire and interview responses indicated a similar preference. In one interview she commented,

I believe in the cooperative model, as a starting place, and I seldom diverge from that as my beginning model, because everything I do

revolves around the sense of community, and that's my starting place. By June they know each other very well.

She added,

I had a student who came from Africa, a French speaking country speaking in Africa, which I forget the name of, and he was in OAC French and getting 70% but he was failing grade 10 History because of his English. But when we did a role play, they gave him the part of a French speaking person and then had an English translation. And it was so empowering for him to actually stand up and actually have a voice in the class for the first time, where his French was an asset, not a disadvantage. And that was in May, but it took us that long to get there, and you could see the sense of accomplishment that he had actually participated in the class, and in school.

Morgan, one of the English teachers interviewed and observed, appeared to give considerable attention to establishing conditions in her classroom that promoted a "safe attitude environment". She indicated that she tried to create an environment where all voices could be heard, where confidence could be nurtured, and where put-downs and/or racist comments were not tolerated. **Morgan** talked about encouraging an understanding of varying beliefs and values that emerged from group situations when pupils have an opportunity to discuss particular historical themes and issues and their own personal opinions. She stressed the importance of establishing a "tone" in the classroom that allows pupils not to be afraid to say what they feel and think,

I think that's a kind of technique or trick of the trade...the tone you set. You've given them a degree of trust, they've seen you in a vulnerable situation where you're telling the truth about your feelings and this isn't just an academic subject.

Morgan's approach to establishing these conditions, however, sometimes seemed to be at odds with her general intent. Her approach was most often 'top down' with considerable teacher direction. When asked about this level of teacher direction following an observation of one of her classes, she commented,

I like a lot of control. I won't deny that. I do like the thought that they will do some things on their own but it will be very staged and stepped. I may not be turning them into independent learners enough but I'm probably afraid of no work taking place, its just human nature.

In her interactions with her classes, the phrase 'shut up' was heard being used no fewer than six times in any one class, significantly more than any other classes observed, raising questions about respectful interactions. In subsequent interviews, **Morgan** talked about her use of the phrase "shut up" and how she viewed it as a technique to get people paying attention and listening (not simply a technique that encourages compliance), hence enhancing opportunities for learning. She explained that "common sense" was fundamental to her approach,

they need to shut up if I need to explain something or to set up some work. They need to listen to me, to listen to each other, and logistically, they may need to share things and work with each other in paired work...rules and regulations are part school but part just general common sense, respect for each other's views and opinions, listen to each others views and opinions.

She also made it very clear that she felt strongly about implementing and monitoring school rules (e.g. orderly entry into a classroom). She commented,

I personally follow strictly some of the pettier school rules because I think they actually help in the real world. I'm all against the school uniform that they wear, but while we've got the uniform, everything is easier if we don't wear the jewelry, don't fasten the top button, tuck your shirt in and the petty bits, because they're there (the rules) to show that you are part of this greater school entity.

There was little evidence that **Morgan** invited student input into rule making.

Rather, there was a sense from **Morgan** that students were introduced to these rules at an early age and that they generally understood their value in the learning process,

I don't know if I ever sit down and say, what do you think are the common sense rules? I think I probably train them into thinking, into acknowledging, what's best for learning?...I don't think we consciously do that...I work much more from the position of the teacher saying 'what is'...

Susan, one of the English teachers, also emphasised the importance of establishing an appropriate tone in the classroom. She indicated that by encouraging respectful interactions among pupils and by providing opportunities for pupils to communicate their views on different themes and issues, a more effective tone for learning would be established in the class. **Susan** appeared to support a certain level pupil input into class decisions and she indicated “rules need to be clearly spelled out”. She, like **Morgan**, appeared to be very directive in the establishment of classroom rules and expectations,

I only have one rule, it's I talk, you listen; you talk, I listen...I think it's down to you know, you want to create an atmosphere which is still, you've still got the control, you've still got the discipline. I mean the idea that they are all equal and you know I wouldn't rank pupils around the circle...I try to split up the friendship groups around the circle and I am, I will play an ice-breaker game to jumble them up and make sure that they're not just sitting with their friends and can sit on their own.

Pat appeared to give significant attention to classroom practices that encouraged respectful relationships, inclusivity, and a sense of informality. **Pat** indicated that while she tended to encourage more independence and responsibility with older students, her general intent was the same,

you simply want them to treat each other like civilized human beings...I'm quite happy to have a relatively casual approach...making them feel as though it's okay to take control of some of that...it's not always easy, but I do try to speak to them as equals.

There was also a sense of a more casual approach in her interactions with her students. On a number of occasions, I observed students move straight on their tasks whether it was project work or an Internet search. There was not the expectation that each class, as she stated, began with “some arbitrary need to sit down and have them

all in rows, before they can start again”. While she did not explicitly talk about a sense of student rights or responsibilities in the classroom, she did indicate that it was important to her that her students learn that “it’s okay to take control”. She added, I do try, it’s not always easy, to speak to them as equals, but I do try to lay clear boundaries.

It was also evident that **Pat** modelled what she considered to be good citizenship in her interactions with students. She welcomed them at the door upon arrival and treated them with respect. As she mentioned at a subsequent interview, “you can’t simply want them to treat each other like civilised human beings, and then bark at them at the time”. Unlike many of the other classrooms I visited in England, I never heard the word ‘shut up’ in her classroom although she confided to me that she was not above the use of that phrase in extreme situations.

Pat stated, however, that establishing boundaries for students is important for effective learning in the classroom and that students need to be clear about what those boundaries are,

It’s important to lay the boundaries, but at the same time not to go completely overboard on the scale of things. Generally, they know when they are out of line, and they’ll play the game, but I do try to set a field boundary, if you like, and then they can run around within the field wherever they like...some colleagues don’t tend to let the kids know where the boundaries are and run into problems...

She was careful to point out that she felt responsible for establishing boundaries and tried to act within reason and emphasise the positive, “I always try and look for a kid who is doing something positive and value it”. **Pat** added that these boundaries were also the result of broader departmental and school expectations. She indicated

limited use of “voting” in some class decisions (e.g. student council) but “these are very rare occasions, when I actually find it comforting to vote about what we’re going to do in history, because more or less what we’re going to do is fairly defined by the curriculum”.

5.1.2) Using classroom space

Approximately sixteen of the teachers from across the sample commented in the questionnaire data how they used classroom space to nurture a sense of citizenship.

Comments from Canadian respondents ranged from using walls and ceilings to display students’ work, to highlighting current issues from magazines and daily newspapers on bulleting boards, to organising desks in particular ways to facilitate discussion. **David**, one of the Canadian teachers, gave special attention to the organisation of classroom space to encourage awareness of civic issues and themes and to create a sense of community. When I first observed **David’s** teaching, I was struck by the use of wall and ceiling space to create a political atmosphere.

Students’ work, political posters, and political mobiles filled the room with colour and a range of diverse political messages. **David**, in fact, referred to his classroom, in a subsequent interview, as a “living artifact”,

I’ve tried to make it a living artifact with the mobiles and the signs from the different elections...I mean one of things I started two years ago was having moments that have happened over my teaching career. So I’ve got the death of Trudeau and I’ve got the year that Clinton was almost impeached and the next one is going to be the twin towers. These are things that I try to create in my classroom so the kids are looking around and saying, I’m in the politics class. I’m not in math class, I’m not in English class.

Desks were organised in what he referred to as a “double horseshoe” or in small groups to facilitate learning,

I mean this is great when you facilitate a discussion because this will be like my stage. I walk around all the time and I'm constantly asking questions. For me, it works. I mean even seasoned teachers ask me, why do you do that, and this is reason...it facilitates discussion, and there's more, you know, I can get out to a student. I can make eye contact with a person, with a student in my class without even telling them to be quiet. The student knows where I'm looking. So for me, this works...

The atmosphere appeared to be relaxed and casual. During one of his senior classes, for example, students were observed just getting up and leaving the class to go to the washroom without permission being requested. With the younger classes, more rules were apparent and permission to leave the classroom was required.

Larissa described ways in which she preferred to use classroom space to foster a climate of learning. Desks, for example, were organised in ways that fostered collaboration. In one interview she commented,

you know, I usually have them in little pods if you will of four or five of them together. Sometimes they work in groups of threes, but in small groups where they have enough space to sort of do individual work but can also collaborate, share ideas, reflections and I do a lot of one, three, twenty, you know. Especially in Civics, the human relations are so important.

The sharing of individual experiences, different points to view, and reflections around the topic focus was witnessed in my observations of her classes. In one role-playing activity that I observed, Larissa had students working in pairs. One played the role of a journalist, the other a recent immigrant or refugee. Students were encouraged to research their role, construct their anticipated questions and responses based on their research, and then present the role-play. Student work was not displayed to the same extent as other teachers. When asked in a later interview why this was the case, **Larissa** simply indicated that she taught in a variety of classrooms

and, to her chagrin, did not have jurisdiction over the use of wall space or bulletin boards.

Heather also discussed ways she organised her desks and organised classroom space to facilitate learning,

Well as you saw in my classroom, they're set up in groups because I want them to be a community within our classroom. And the other way I foster that is by every month, they change seats, so they get to know other people in their community classroom, so they feel connected. So this way they get to know each other and they learn that you have to work with people, you don't always get to choose who you work with. As in life, that's a life skill. But also, by the end and I've been doing this for many years, this strategy of building a community, of building a community within the classroom, that by the end of the year they're a very close-knit group, connected. And at the year end, I do a year end student feedback and frequently students will say this is the only class that you felt really part of the class, because people knew your name and you knew their names and they got a chance to talk and share and feel connected.

In **Heather's** classroom, desks were set up in groups of 5 or 6. In each of the classes that I observed, time was set-aside for students to hear each other's views, to work together on assigned tasks, and to provide support for each other. I also noticed that groups were structured in a heterogeneous manner. A mix of gender and cultures was noticeable in each group confirming a point that she had made in an earlier interview that she was "very conscious in terms of a balance of gender and race and ability skills".

In terms of classroom space, **Heather** pointed out that she used bulletin boards and chalkboards to display both student work and inspirational kinds of things, "as well as inclusive stuff, like black History month or whatever happens to be the focus".

Themes displayed, according to **Heather** usually focused on,

taking action, being responsible, that you can make a difference, all those kinds of things, from Gandhi to Oprah or Malcolm X, an eclectic combination of messages and speakers. Sometimes there are controversial people as well, just to kind of get them thinking, and challenging and agreeing or disagreeing. But it has a lot to do with making a difference...

Observations of Heather's class revealed walls, bulletin boards, and chalkboards full with student work, posters, and political messages. It was also evident that inclusivity was an important consideration. Work from all students and political messages derived from a range of perspectives were evident.

English teachers discussed the use of classroom space to a lesser extent in their questionnaire responses. Seven of the respondents identified ways in which classroom space was used to support learning. Most of these highlighted the use of classroom space as places for students to represent their work. Interviews and visits to their classrooms, however, revealed more attention to this practice than one might have imagined from the questionnaire data. **Morgan**, for example, indicated that she organised classroom space to set the tone and to encourage more effective communications,

I spend a lot of time making them look like history classrooms...posters, children's work, key words, we have a lot of equipment so that we can have easy access to a lot of types of learning in the class...people notice and remark on the quality of the wall displays. They are very good, there is a lot of information and ideas; it's a very pleasant room to be in.

She also commented on her attention to the arrangement of desks to facilitate discussion,

The desks always start out in rows, there are 3 rows, but we do a lot of group work so I train the class to do it as quickly and quietly in an organised way as possible and you do get them quite well trained and especially if it's like the subject you saw, where it's an ongoing project.

Susan talked mostly about setting up her class in small groups and a large group “circle” configuration to promote opportunities for structured talk and debate about various themes and issues occurring at the school and local levels,

I think they do get a feeling that they are going to be listened to in that circle...I try to get them away from behind the desks as much as possible. I think you get to know the children more easily in that they're looking at you and looking at each other and you can pass things around the circle and you can kind of engage them the way that you can't if they're looking down at they're desks or whatever.

While **Susan** mentioned the use of the circle activity on numerous occasions in her questionnaire responses and interviews, this type of activity was rarely observed in any of her classes that I visited.

Pat discussed ways in which she organised classroom space to display students' work and to make them feel that their work is valued,

I try to maintain a display of their work. I try to make sure that it's colourful, and that those kids' work is on the wall, that includes outside in the corridor. I take responsibility for that display work as well. Because I think that not only to have a colourful interesting environment, as opposed to something rather stark, but also if their work is on the walls, then they'll feel a bit more valued. So, I try to do quite a lot about that.

It was evident from my observations of **Pat's** classroom that there was a deliberate attempt to establish an inviting sort of learning environment. A number of pieces of students' work was displayed on the walls of the classroom and in the corridor cabinet, close to the classroom. It provided both a colourful and interesting backdrop to what was being considered in her lessons. As discussed in subsequent interviews, **Pat** thought that students felt their work was valued and that it added a sense of community to the classroom context. **Pat's** desks were also organised in ways that

fostered collaboration. In different visits to her classes, students were observed moving in and out of large and small group settings to work on associated tasks (e.g. bulletin board display discussed earlier). The primary intent of these small groups tasks appeared to be to share of individual experiences perspectives and to complete tasks in a cooperative manner.

5.1.3) Resource access and support

Questionnaire data revealed that newspapers, textbooks, magazines, and videos were the 'generally preferred' learning resources identified by Canadian and English teachers. Interview and observational data confirmed the use of these identified resources. The use of newspaper articles was common in the classrooms that I visited. The newspaper, in particular, was viewed as a critical source of information for citizenship education. The newspaper was typically viewed as providing "both content and opinion", opportunities for "analysis" about real issues, and "readily available". One respondent wrote,

they (newspapers) are current and readily accessible, it makes the course more dynamic, and organic...the changes can be immediate and usually a newspaper helps in understanding those changes...its organic because the students can get involved with an event that is most recent.

The use of the textbook was also common in many classes and was viewed as an important source of information. As one respondent wrote, they "provide a framework for a course, a pegboard on which to hang various attitudes, values, and ideas". Other resources texts were often made available. **Morgan**, for example, remarked that she preferred to used a range of textual materials to support her learning goals,

books around; we do a lot of work where we don't use a set text, usually, we have lots of texts, we buy lots of one-off copies. We do a lot of work where we dip into crates of books and we're well resourced in terms of newspapers...

Other sources of information were valued but less evident. Magazine articles were viewed as providing "more in-depth coverage" and "a chance to explore multiple perspectives". Videos were also identified as an important source of information and of "interest to the students". In some instances, visuals (e.g. picture of a line up at a refugee camp, clips from documentaries) connected to a particular contemporary global theme were observed being analysed in different classrooms visited. The use of guest speakers and teaching packages tended to be given more attention by English teachers. Guest speakers, for these respondents, provided "real life expertise" and were viewed as having stronger impact (e.g. holocaust survivor) than print resources. Three English respondents talked about the high instructional quality of the "photocopiable resources, notes and worksheets" available from organisations like the Citizenship Foundation.

A few teachers pointed out that it was important that resources be selected in ways that are more inclusive and responsive to the diversity of the school community.

Heather, for example, commented that her choice of resources, whether textual or visual, was often selected with a sense of community and inclusion in mind,

textbooks are never perfect shall we say. So I always use newspaper articles or other sources, you know journals, magazines wherever I can...I've had students ask, well, why don't we do something for Black history month...I argue that we should be doing something all year, not just in February for black history month, and not just in October for women's history. You know those kinds of things, I try to bring them in throughout the whole year to make a really relevant curriculum...

Newspaper articles, journals, and magazines from mainstream and non-mainstream sources were evident during my observations of her classes. The study of a black WW1 soldier Jeremiah Jones was one example in which a variety of articles was provided as background reading. Subsequent interviews revealed that this was true of guest speakers invited to class as well. Speakers from the Holocaust Centre, the Seniors Community Centre, community workers, recent immigrants from various geographical locations and backgrounds, and others made up the long list of those contributing to discussions in **Heather's** classroom.

Beyond these preferences, community resources (e.g. political parties pamphlets, field trips to courts, newscasts, NGO literature, guest speakers) were identified as important sources of information by a small number of respondents in both groups primarily because of their authenticity and because students often found them more interesting. Surprisingly, there were only two Canadian and two English respondents that mentioned the use of ICT (Information Communication Technologies) or CD ROMS. Those few who did cite the use of ICT emphasised the value of Internet, mostly as a provider of information. Two of these respondents further suggested that Internet provided additional opportunities for students to direct their own learning and to conduct electronic conversations with students in other parts of the world, and with others involved in civic life.

5.1.4) Teacher modelling

Five teachers in the questionnaire responses indicated modelling democratic behaviours.

Larissa and **Pat**, two of the teachers interviewed and observed, talked most about this aspect of their practice. **Larissa**, for example, highlighted her interactions with students and how she attempted to model certain democratic practices,

Especially in Civics, the human relations are so important and we're talking about things that people have sometimes very strong feelings about and very different feelings about and so modelling is very important. You know I'm always aware, the way I respond to them sends a powerful message and so really listening carefully and responding thoughtfully and trying to pull out what's interesting even if...you know I think the hallmark of a good teacher is to be able to seize on something in what the student is saying and take them a little further in their thinking. So you know, it's partly modelling and showing that respect and that interest.

Pat also talked about modelling,

I try and give them something of myself, as well. So, I'd much rather be able to show humour in the class, than standing there berating them. I'm just trying to make the environment human really, both physically and the relationships.

In observations of **Pat's** classes, she modelled democratic practices in her classroom.

On more than one occasion, I witnessed her mediating controversial discussions about school rules (e.g.

school uniforms), facilitating a vote on school-wide issues, and ensuring that her students were represented on school councils.

In summary, it appears from the questionnaire, interview, and observational data that teachers use a range of practices to shape the classroom learning environment in ways that facilitate learning and, to a lesser extent, model democratic practices.

Creating a classroom environment that nurtures democratic citizenship was not, however, considered to be a primary goal. Practices identified were highly variant from respondent to respondent and tended to be discussed on four levels: one, nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom; two,

using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship; three, resource access and support; and four, teacher modelling democratic practices.

5.2) Shaping the classroom learning environment and curriculum perspectives

This section considers ways in which teachers' shape the classroom learning environment in relation to curriculum perspectives. It examines how teachers personally integrate their preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment (vertical analysis), a shift in focus from looking at these practices across the sample and between national groupings (horizontal analysis). It is argued in this section that teachers' personal orientations in shaping the classroom learning environment appeared to blend aspects of curriculum perspectives in rather disconnected ways. Further, it should be stated that data collected from, and reported by, teachers in this particular pedagogical area were minimal, and that the subsequent analysis provides, at best, a rather tentative look at teachers' practices in relation to Miller's (1996) curriculum perspectives continuum. Perhaps the most important message to emerge from the data was that teachers' practices in this pedagogical area appear to be rather modest and underdeveloped in comparison to other areas (e.g. teaching practices, assessment practices) explored in this study.

5.2.1) Personal orientations: Transmission, transactional, and transformative

Teachers' practices in shaping the classroom learning environment appeared to blend transmission and transactional curriculum perspectives in rather disconnected ways. It appeared that classroom learning environments were viewed primarily as locations where important content and/or skills could be transmitted from the teacher to the student or where course-related themes could be investigated under the direction of

the teacher. Classroom resources were selected primarily by the teacher to convey information to students and to support independent and collaborative student investigations. Rules for classroom behaviour were usually top-down but sometimes worked out between the teacher and students. Desks were organised mostly in small groups to ensure that the teacher could either address students directly and/or to allow direction of small group tasks. Classroom space (e.g. bulletin boards) was organised predominantly by the teacher and a range of student work was often on display. In a few instances, more transformative tendencies were noticeable. In these instances, student and teacher engagement in collaborative investigations was evident. The classroom was viewed primarily as a location to meet and discuss ongoing enquiries. Students directed their own resource selection, with minimal assistance from the teacher. Class norms tended to be worked out mutually and desks were often organised in small groups in order that students could learn cooperatively with each other. Moving beyond the classroom walls into the broader school and local community was encouraged and the teacher's role appeared to be largely one of guide and facilitator.

Personal orientations to shaping the classroom environment were evident in the questionnaire data but became even more clearly delineated through the interviews and observations of classes. **David**, for example, tended to blend aspects of the three curriculum perspectives. He considered his classroom to be a "living artifact". Walls and ceiling space were used to create a political atmosphere. Student work, political posters, political mobiles filled the room with colour and a range of diverse political messages. Textbooks and supplementary resources were evident. Desks were organised in a "double horseshoe" or in small groups for classroom discussion and

classroom management. There was little evidence, however, of involving students in decision-making or rule-making in the classroom. Moving beyond the classroom walls into the broader school and local community was mentioned but never observed.

Larissa appeared to exhibit a more transactional personal orientation. She gave particular attention to building a sense of community in her classroom. She viewed her classroom as “a microcosm of society at large” and used different practices to build a sense of community and that encouraged students to get to know each other better, to share ideas, and to foster a sense of mutual responsibility. She fostered a climate of learning by arranging students’ desks in pods and selecting learning activities that supported her academic and collaborative learning goals. **Larissa** also made the point that modelling certain practices and was observed encouraging her students to move their investigations into the broader school and local community.

Heather, unlike most of the other respondents, provided more detailed accounts of how she shaped the classroom learning environment. Central to her approach was building a sense of community and inclusion among her students. She tended to blend different curriculum perspectives although a transactional orientation appeared to be prominent. In interviews with Heather, she continually stressed the use of a range of cooperative learning structures to promote learning but also to nurture a sense of mutual responsibility and belonging. **Heather** also discussed ways in which she organised desks in her classroom in groups and used classroom space to facilitate learning. Bulletin boards and chalkboards displayed both student work and curriculum themes (e.g. youth participation, human rights issues). In particular,

Heather's choice of resources was very diverse, reflecting her attention to the inclusion of multiple perspectives. These practices were confirmed in my visits to and observations of her classes.

Morgan, like **Heather**, appeared to give considerable attention to the classroom learning environment. **Morgan's** orientation tended to be more teacher-directed, with the intent of establishing an environment where all voices could be heard, where confidence could be nurtured, and where put-downs and/or racist comments were not tolerated. A range of resources was available for student use and desks were organised in ways that facilitated small group discussion. **Morgan's** orientation appeared to suggest a transmission/transactional blend. She talked about encouraging an understanding of varying beliefs and values, within the context of particular historical themes and issues, and stressed the importance of establishing a "tone" in the classroom that allowed pupils not to be afraid to say what they felt or thought. Surprisingly, practices at times appeared to be in stark contrast to her stated intent. The tone was often established in a way that was very much top-down and at times seemingly disrespectful (e.g. shut up). **Morgan** indicated that she was very strict about implementing and monitoring school rules and that there was little sense for student input into classroom decision-making. Anyone interfering with the process of learning in her class was sternly dealt with.

The importance of establishing an appropriate tone in the classroom was evident in Susan's questionnaire and interview responses. In observations of her classes, she encouraged respectful interactions among pupils and provided opportunities for pupils to communicate with each other. While **Susan** appeared to support pupil

involvement in her classes, like **Morgan**, she indicated “rules need to be clearly spelled out” and she appeared to be very directive in establishing and monitoring these rules. **Susan** talked about setting up her class in small groups and a large group ‘circle’ to promote opportunities for structured talk and debate, but these were rarely evident in my observations of her classes. **Susan** was also less clear about the types of resources that she used. Observations of her classes revealed extensive use of worksheets. Attention to wall displays or to other spaces to display student work was not evident, perhaps due to the different classrooms in which she taught her classes.

Pat gave priority to encouraging respectful relationships in her classroom. She indicated encouraging independence and responsibility, particularly with the older students, and this was evident in my observations of her classes. She did, like **Morgan** and **Susan**, emphasise the importance of establishing clear boundaries for students. She pointed out that she felt responsible for establishing those boundaries but tried to act within reason. There was little sense that pupils had much input into this aspect of classroom life and this was confirmed in my visits to her classes. **Pat** also discussed ways in which she organised classroom space to enhance classroom learning and modelling expected behaviours. **Pat’s** orientation, like many of the other teachers, tended to reflect a blend of curriculum perspectives, however, there appeared to be a closer alignment with transactional and transformative tendencies.

In summary, analyses of teachers’ personal practices for shaping the classroom learning environment appeared to blend aspects of the various curriculum perspectives (e.g. transmission, transactional, and transformational) in rather disconnected ways. Teachers’ practices appeared to be rather modest and

underdeveloped in contrast with other areas of pedagogy (e.g. teaching practices, assessment practices) explored in this study. A strong blend of transmission and transactional tendencies was apparent but not consistently so. Furthermore, it was evident that teachers' practices in this area reflected a general sense of ambiguity and communicated mixed messages.

5.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment

Various studies (Apple and Beane, 1995; Blair and Jones, 1996; Roche, 1998; Sorensen, 1998) have suggested that the "ride" to the democratic classroom is a "bumpy" one, and is either supported or hindered by a variety of factors. It is contended in this section that a mixture of factors appeared to relate to teachers' preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment. Personal views of learning, learner characteristics, and understandings of citizenship were factors identified most often across the sample, while other factors received less attention.

Teachers' personal views of learning and learner characteristics. Teachers' views of learning and learner characteristics were prominent in the questionnaire data collected. Notions such as "active learning", "positive reinforcement and high standards", "student interaction", "classroom management", and "inclusivity" appeared to underpin teachers' rather eclectic range of practices used to shape classroom learning environments. These notions were evident in teachers' comments about such things as input into classroom rules, seating plans, student choice on projects, student voice in discussions, and how student work would be exhibited on classroom walls.

Interview and observational data revealed more deepened insights. **Morgan**, for example, talked about “active learning”, “child-centered approaches”, and “making learning fun” as factors that related to her preferred practices for shaping an effective classroom environment,

I think having a good time is massively important, but obviously some people don't understand that. You have happy learners, feeling they can trust you, it's part of that safe environment, it's part of feeling good about what you're doing, it's motivating, you feel good about yourself, you feel somebody likes you and recognises you, so that is a big force within...so that influences me, having those kids having a good time. And there can be really serious learning. There's purpose to it, there's direction, there's interest and activity, there's going to be a variety of activities, there's going to be some confidence-building activities, they're going to end up with a good piece of work.

She was quick to point out, however, that it was her responsibility to direct and create the appropriate environment,

If I can't get them to work with me, and that means sometimes, sit down, shut up, listen to each other, if I can't do those fundamentals, I'm completely stuck as a teacher...tighter controls are sometimes needed depending on the students I'm working with...sometimes I think you just have to have it a bit tighter and a bit more structured, so people can feel even safer and can make the steps that you want them to take.

Heather, on the other hand, indicated that “positive reinforcement”, “setting high standards”, and “concerns about being sensitive to student diversity” were factors that tended to relate to her preferred practices for shaping an effective classroom environment,

I really think kids need positive reinforcement. And you have to set it up so they can be successful, that generates more positive approaches such as risk taking. I always have very high expectations of the student. I always kid them that I'm the meanest, coldest, hardest person in the school, and they won't agree with me, but I'm that way because I expect them to do their best...I also like to set a scaffolding...you need to start off with little steps so they think, ahhh,

I did that and then try another bigger step and say that wasn't so hard. So when you get to the big stuff that counts for lots of marks, they go ah, I can do this, and set it up.

Being "sensitive to student diversity" also appeared to be an important factor,

After 17 years of teaching, I do find that kids are pretty consistent. I mean, whether in the inner city, or here, or northern Ontario, they all want to learn, they all want to be there for the most part. And even though there are behavioural issues sometimes, most students come and want to learn, they want to do better, and they want to do well, and all those kinds of things. So, the nature of the student population doesn't change that basic reality about adolescents and so on. The composition of the class, males versus females, race or religion, sometimes determines this a little bit...I was aware that I was doing something that had a very Christian-centered focus the other day...we were doing Martin Luther in my history class, and we're supposed to deal with history, but I thought wow, and I have Muslim students in my class, how is this playing out. Just trying to be sensitive to what I'm asking them to do with the information, is maybe how I've adapted that method.

In each of the examples provided above, it was evident that teachers' views of learning and learner characteristics were variant yet important factors in relation to the respondents' consideration of preferred practices.

Understandings of citizenship. For many of the teachers, understandings of citizenship appeared to relate to their preferred practices as well. Personally held understandings of citizenship were often identified as contributing factors. Typical was one of the English teacher's questionnaire responses. He indicated that his approach was to treat the classroom as a community and to establish conditions in which awareness of community themes and issues (mostly local) were addressed and represented throughout the classroom. Opportunities were provided to take on various classroom and school-wide responsibilities. Similarly, a Canadian teacher wrote about infusing certain dimensions of citizenship (tolerance for different

perspectives, cooperation, and participation) into the day-to-day interactions in her classroom. She emphasised dimensions of social interaction and involvement,

it has to do with citizenship, it has to do with getting along, cause by nature, they are a social unit, and they need to connect with each other. That's part of why they come to school, to have friends and fit in. So nobody is excluded. That is why my classroom environment is cooperative.

She added,

it also has to do with taking action, not sitting back and just letting something go by, whatever it is...a bottle on the floor, a bully, a stupid government decision, whatever it is...its about letting them think about it, decide how they can get involved, and where they can to do something about it.

For a few others, personal understandings of citizenship appeared to receive little explicit attention. In these instances, notions of being a 'good person' tended to override personal understandings of citizenship and became a key factor in considering what conditions ought to be nurtured in shaping the classroom learning environment. One Canadian teacher reported,

you want the best from people, you want responsible sharing, communicative, listening, supportive behaviour, all of those, but you also want somebody having an opinion, having a view, backing it up, which all of that would tie into... Today I'm saying it's just good human behaviour.

One English teacher, in her questionnaire responses commented that her preferred practices were similar for most of the courses that she taught and not informed by any understanding of citizenship,

when I was teaching languages, it was a lot about communication and getting students to participate. I mean in that situation, students feel a little shy about trying out a different language and so again its about building trust and respect and a friendship within the classroom...you know its a lot of exchange of ideas.

Contextual factors. A range of contextual factors were identified in the questionnaire data. Those factors mentioned most often across the data tended to focus on school ethos and local community considerations. These factors were further reinforced in interview responses. **Larissa**, for example, discussed how the school ethos related to her she approach to shaping the classroom environment,

there is a certain culture that predominates at this school, it is quite informal. Students are used to a lot of discussion, a lot dialogue, a lot of joking around. You know its sort of casual, not disrespectful, but quite a casual relationship and I think you sense that when you walk into the building, when you see them in the halls, you see them chatting with other teachers. So that's part of, you sort of get the feeling, ok, so this is how this place works a little bit and you run with that...I think that's definitely a big influence, just seeing how your colleagues are operating. Now having said that, I mean this is a style that I'm very comfortable with. I'm just thinking, what would I do if I went into a school where it was much more formal, or you know, I don't know.

She commented on how contextual factors can also interfere sometimes,

you want to create a home and give the students a sense of ownership...so I try to do this...for instance, right now they're engaged in role-plays and they've got photographs documented on their activities and it would be wonderful to have a scrapbook or presentation on the wall of all the things they've been up to...but we can't do that because they're going to take them down because it's not really our room. So you know there's that limitation.

Morgan remarked on how school ethos and parental expectations related to her approach,

if we didn't have a strong pastoral system and structured system, I'm sure I wouldn't be able to do things that I like doing with them...I work in a school where probably a huge percentage of families expect their kids to have learned something useful during your hour and we have a huge number of people who will complain if I don't have them do work or I don't send homework home or they go home and say there's been a riot in this lesson. You know they are the first parents to complain. So that does have an influence in the sense that the parental expectation is there.

An English teacher added that media often prevented her from establishing the type of attitudes and tone she hoped for,

you know we do try and create positive attitudes and listening, but listening I think is one of the hardest things because the children do live in a culture where the TV is on all the time, the radio is on all the time and they actually find it very difficult, find silence quite threatening.

Other contextual factors, such as one's initial teacher education programs and one's personal experiences as an immigrant student, were also mentioned.

Only a handful of respondents across the sample indicated in questionnaire and interview responses that contextual factors were not significantly restrictive. One Canadian teacher maintained that he often acted somewhat independently in terms of establishing his preferred classroom environment,

I break rules all the time. For me, for example, there are situations where the kids are coming in late on a regular basis, so they are sporadic attenders. But I have a working relationship with them. They understand, at the end of every month, we have two or three days that are called catch up days, or that you'd ask, this is what you going to do for the next two or three days. They'll come in and they'll work hard for that. There are different sorts of problems in their lives. It's almost like I have a flex time within a time within the school day. I'm willing to look the other way, I get a lot of work out of these guys.

In each of the above examples, different contextual factors appeared to relate to one's consideration of preferred practices. What was particularly noticeable, however, was the general lack of common agreement among between specifically identified factors and teachers' preferred practices.

5.4) Shaping the classroom learning environment: Teachers'

characterisations

In summary, a range of practices used by fourteen Canadian and fourteen English teachers to shape the classroom learning environment in ways that facilitated learning and, to a lesser extent, nurtured democratic understandings was outlined. Preferred practices appeared to take different forms (e.g. nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom, using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship, resource access and support, and teacher modelling) and emphases varied from respondent to respondent. Teachers' personal orientations appeared to blend aspects of various curriculum perspectives (e.g. transmission, transactional, and transformational) in rather disconnected ways. Probably, one of the more important messages emerging from the data was that teachers' practices in this area appeared to be rather modest and underdeveloped, in contrast with other areas of pedagogy (e.g. goals, teaching practices, assessment practices) explored in this study. Lastly, it was apparent that teachers' preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment appeared to relate to a mixture of factors. Personal views of learning, learner characteristics, understandings of citizenship, and contextual factors were highlighted across the sample whereas other factors received minimal attention.

CHAPTER 6: CHARACTERISING TEACHING PRACTICES

Teachers design and use a repertoire of teaching practices in their interactions with students. This chapter, building on the two previous chapters, focuses on teachers' preferred teaching practices when educating for citizenship. A focus on teaching practices illuminates how learning goals are translated into learning experiences in classroom, school, and community contexts and makes known what goals teachers believe have meaning. This chapter considers teachers' teaching practices across three dimensions:

- teachers' preferred teaching practices across the sample;
- personal orientations to teaching in relation to curriculum perspectives; and
- factors appearing to relate to teachers' preferred teaching practices.

Three arguments shall be made in this chapter. One, that teachers in this sample prefer to use an array of practices that range from specific and discrete activities to reasonably complex interactive and performance-based strategies when educating for citizenship. These practices tend to target specific learning goals (in terms of content and/or skills) and connect with the four goal strands identified in Chapter 4. Teaching practices, as in the other pedagogical areas explored, reveal variations both across the sample and between national groupings. Two, that teachers' expressed and exhibited teaching practices reveal personal orientations which, like their articulated 'goal sets', appear to blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curricular perspectives in both eclectic and distinctive ways. It is argued, however, that unlike teachers' 'goal sets', a stronger blend of transmission and transactional tendencies is apparent, suggesting a certain level of incongruity between teaching practices and stated learning goals. And three, that a variety of factors appear to relate to teachers'

preference for certain teaching practices. Among these factors, learner characteristics and views of teaching and learning appeared to be cited most often whereas understandings of citizenship were less evident, suggesting an important shift from those factors that appeared to relate to respondents' goal preferences.

The chapter is organised into four sections:

6.1) Teaching practices

6.1.1) Teaching practices: Discrete activities

6.1.1.1) Knowledge

6.1.1.2) Skills

6.1.1.3) Beliefs, values, and notions of social justice

6.1.1.4) Participation in civic life

6.1.2) Teaching practices: Performance-based strategies

6.1.2.1) Issue analysis and debate

6.1.2.2) Researching young people's impact on change:

The Citizen's Lab

6.1.2.3) Simulating 'World history of racism'

6.1.2.4) Teacher-guided enquiry

6.1.2.5) A mock school-wide general election

6.1.2.6) Using case studies: What it means to be a good citizen?

6.2) Teaching practices and curriculum perspectives

6.2.1) Personal orientations: Transmission, transactional, and transformative

6.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred teaching practices

6.4) Characterising teachers' teaching practices

Explaining teachers' teaching practices presents what has been referred to as a "paradigm problem". There exists, according to Turner-Bisset (2001: 2), "a multiplicity of paradigms which lay claim to being good ways of conceptualising teaching...paradigms that do not always manifest themselves in pure or discrete form". It should be noted at the outset that teachers in this study explained their teaching practices in a variety of ways. These ranged from descriptions of very discrete and distinctive tactics (e.g. a questioning sequence, think/pair/share, mini-lecture) to more intricate and sequenced strategies (e.g. direct instruction, concept attainment, group investigation). They reflected, as Joyce and Weil (2000: 13) have observed, both "broad applications" and activities "designed for specific purposes", "they range from simple, direct procedures that get immediate results to complex strategies that students acquire gradually from patient and skilful instruction".

For the purposes of analysis in this chapter, I have chosen to explain teaching practices within the context of the literature base outlined in Chapter 2 and the learning goal strands identified in Chapter 4 to provide both a level of coherence and continuity across the analysis. Furthermore, I have attempted to use pedagogical terms identified in Rolheiser and Bennett's (2001: 15) "Framework for talking and thinking about pedagogy", described in Chapter 2 to help clarify my own use of these terms and to provide a common basis for exploring respondents' usage. Data are presented from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations in an integrated manner around key themes and issues to support the three central arguments identified above. In most cases, general findings in the sections of this chapter begin with a consideration of what respondents say in the questionnaires. These findings are subsequently considered within the context of what respondents

say in interviews and what they do in their classrooms. In most cases, specific references are made to the source of the data.

6.1) Teaching practices

In this first section it is argued that teachers prefer to use an array of practices that range from specific and discrete activities to reasonably complex interactive and performance-based strategies when educating for citizenship. These practices tend to target specific learning goals (in terms of content and/or skills) and suggest strong connections with the four goal strands identified in Chapter 4. Teaching practices, as in the other pedagogical areas explored however, reveal variations both across the sample and between national groupings. Issues revealed in the data are interwoven throughout with particular attention to the kinds of learning experiences ‘included’ and ‘excluded’, varying levels of pedagogical sophistication and the challenge of congruence, and professional learning support needed to develop the appropriate instructional expertise.

All respondents across the sample appeared to make use of a wide variety of teaching practices when educating for citizenship according to the various forms of questionnaire and interview data collected. Reading and viewing activities, source analysis, worksheet completion exercises, higher order questioning sequences, discussion and mini-lecture approaches, mind mapping, role-playing activities, cooperative learning structures, direct instruction, concept attainment, issue analysis, drama tableaux, enquiry-based investigations, case studies, moral dilemmas, simulations, conflict resolution, community service, and direct political action were illustrative of the variety of practices acknowledged in the data. This attention to

variety might be summed up in one respondent's questionnaire comments, "no one teaching practice can really be most effective in isolation...there is much overlap between some of these and they are used in various combinations and sequences for maximum effect". Many of these practices were either advocated and/or identified in the literature and/or in the respective curriculum policy documents (Bennett and Rolheiser, 2001; Case and Daniels, 2003; Davies, 2003; Evans and Saxe, 1996; Fogelman and Edwards, 2000; Hahn, 1998; Joyce and Weil, 2000; Kerr, 2000, 2003; Marzano, 1992; Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, *The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10, Canadian and World Studies* 1999; Pike and Selby, 2000; Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, (England) (QCA) *Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4: Initial guidance for schools* 2000; Samuelowicz and Bain, 1992).

Teaching practices tended to report using both specific and discrete activities and reasonably complex, interactive, and performance-based strategies, with certain similarities and contrasts evident across the sample and between national groupings. Canadian respondents, in their questionnaire responses, tended to identify specifically focused activities (e.g. such as case study analysis of 'Charter of Rights' cases, current events issue analysis, locating information about an NGO on internet) to achieve more focused learning goals in the areas of knowledge acquisition, skill development, and/or concept attainment. Likewise, English respondents talked about the use of targeted activities like teacher-led discussions and source analysis activities for similar focused purposes. Discussions, for example, were viewed as an opportunity to "discuss a provocative subject", to explore "values" related to various issues, and/or to consider what it means to be a "good" citizen. Source analysis

activities, on the other hand, were viewed as opportunities to nurture pupils' knowledge acquisition and analytical skills.

Almost all of the respondents also referred to the use of rather intricate performance-based strategies in their questionnaire responses. A municipal model government, a videotaped citizenship mock court, an election simulation, creating a new political party (with names, slogans, symbols, platforms on various issues), preparing a student charter for the school, public issue decision-making research/role-plays were some of the performance strategies cited by Canadian teachers. A simulation of the electoral process, school-based displays of ways to combat racism, researching women's rights and international development issues, preparing a radio show for a local issues (building a motorway in a green field area) and role playing and videotaping a League of Nations conference were some of the favourites identified by English teachers. There was a sense that these more complex strategies addressed multiple learning goals. That is, these strategies simultaneously assisted students acquire important knowledge about civic themes and issues and develop their research, analysis, and collaborative skills. Observation data suggested a slightly different picture. Teacher-directed, whole class teaching practices tended to predominate classroom practices observed both in the Canadian and English classrooms. Examples of teacher-facilitated and/or student-directed classroom practices were less evident. This tended to confirm the recent findings of the *Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study* (2003: vii), which reported "teacher-led approaches to citizenship-related topics were predominant in the classroom, with more participatory, active approaches much less commonly used".

Questionnaire, interview, and observation data also revealed that the classroom context was the primary location in which formal teaching for citizenship education was experienced. School-wide and/or community-based practices were notably less evident. Canadian teachers tended to talk about practices that they used largely within the context of the compulsory grade 10 Civics course or through its infusion in other parts of the History or Social Science curriculum. English respondents reported the use of teaching practices mostly in Key Stage 3 History, Religious Education, and PSHE courses. In the 24-plus classes that I observed, explicit teaching of citizenship was indeed evident in these curriculum areas, and in particular, the History courses. As stated earlier, only a few respondents talked about teaching practices used on a school-wide basis. Examples of these practices included the “tutorial programme” in England, “students work for charitable causes”, and “theme-based school assemblies”.

6.1.1) Teaching practices: Discrete activities

6.1.1.1) Knowledge

All respondents emphasised teaching practices that assisted their students to become knowledgeable about various aspects of civic life in the questionnaire data. Both Canadian and English teachers outlined teacher-directed activities that they used to encourage content acquisition and conceptual understanding. The content tended to focus on such themes as rights, responsibilities, democratic processes, forms of political participation, and current events. There was much less attention to themes (e.g. parliamentary processes, structures of government, constitutional matters) often found in traditional Civics courses. A range of practices to achieve these goals was evident. The majority of teachers wrote about having students read “engaging”

excerpts from newspapers and magazines or view TV news for “pertinent content”. Many also referred to teacher-led class “chalk and talk” discussions as “a starting point for knowledge and understanding”. About half of the teachers indicated the use of worksheets for students to write down definitions and other relevant information gleaned from various information sources.

Interview data tended to reinforce this attention to knowledge acquisition. **David**, for example, appeared to put a particular emphasis on developing students’ awareness of current events. Current newspaper articles and clips from TV news were viewed as important sources of information and, according to **David**, were used regularly in his classes to encourage awareness of current events, from the local to the global. In each of his classes that I observed, **David** began with a reading or video clip of a current news story (e.g. municipal election, chaos in Argentina elections, federal Cabinet shuffle). In one class, this activity extended over the entire 70-minute timeframe. The format usually followed a similar staging. **David** began with a source of information and students were directed to read and/or view it. This was often followed up with a teacher-led discussion that probed students’ understandings of the source’s content and their reactions to it. News sources were by and large taken from mainstream newspapers.

Morgan, on the other hand, talked quite explicitly about the use of a rather complex ‘direct instruction’ approach that she preferred to use to develop concepts. This approach was apparent in one of the classes that I observed. In this class, **Morgan** was helping students build their understanding of the concept, ‘crime’. She began with a starter activity in which she gave the

students the word 'crime' and asked the class, working in pairs, to write down on little white boards their understanding of this concept. This activity was followed up with a large class discussion in which she probed for different layers of interpretation because, as she stated, "you want them to get beyond car theft, burglary, attacks and then I want them to get into those punishment issues that they did basically grasp, didn't they?". In the next part of the class, a more academic case study was circulated and students were expected to take notes on questions provided related to causes of crime, consequences of crime, etc. There was a clear intent to encourage students to build and deepen their understanding of the concept and to alert students to some of the broader issues of social responsibility. Lastly, students were requested to clip articles about crime in local and national newspapers for homework. What struck me throughout this sequence was her attention not only to conceptual understanding and collaborative skills but also to analysis and critique.

Fewer teachers identified practices that were student-directed in the questionnaire data. One teacher, for example, mentioned the use of a cooperative learning tactic that he referred to as "mind mapping" to introduce the concept of democracy. A few others indicated using graphic organisers and case studies to acquire foundational information. One respondent claimed that the use of case studies was important because "these types activities engage the students emotions as well as their intellects, students find them interesting and fun". **Heather**, for example, indicated a particular preference for case studies and news stories from a variety of sources other than mainstream ones because they were authentic and provided more opportunities

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for students to explore differing beliefs and perspectives. She commented in the following way,

case studies or newspaper articles or something like that brings in real people... students can actually see people, whether it's from a video clip or whether it's from a newspaper article or a textbook, I find this is probably one of the best things to do...I think for teenagers it needs to be more believable to them, you know, like they can actually see it...I mean in some ways Craig Kielberger (a young Canadian activist, author's words) is a pain in neck, but at least he is a teenager, who is actually doing something, a real Toronto kid who is actually doing something, taking action on something. And I think that is a very powerful message...

In another lesson that I observed, **Pat** was focusing on the preparation of a bulletin board for an upcoming election. She began by stating to her students that the intent of the lesson was to prepare a bulletin board that would assist them in understanding the “structural stuff of elections and how they work” and that would also inform other students in the school about the issues of the upcoming election. In small groups, students considered what information ought to be included and began to mock up displays. Different groups then discussed their ideas and **Pat** recorded them on the blackboard in a whole group class setting. Students were then divided up again to work on different sections of the bulletin board. Party platforms, party websites, newspaper accounts of important issues, etc. were gathered and prepared for display. Under **Pat's** guidance, groups moved the desks into a large square and prepared a final mock up of the bulletin board. All students were invited and three volunteered to work on the final display for the class. There was a sense among the respondents who advocated for more student involvement that “learning by doing” encouraged “interest and motivation” and allowed pupils to “retain knowledge more effectively”. “Being informed” or “being up-to-date on issues” was viewed as an important first step to active participation.

Lastly, it should be noted that there was a general sense across the sample, gleaned from the questionnaire data, that a good deal of knowledge could also be acquired implicitly through other, more intricate teaching strategies (e.g. research projects, simulations like youth parliaments, field trips and seminars) that integrated multiple learning goals. One respondent, in particular, indicated that she tended to integrate knowledge acquisition through the broader learning strategies that she incorporated into her teaching rather than through discrete activities to develop specific understandings or concepts. She explained her more integrated orientation in the following way,

I try not to differentiate my teaching practices...I suppose because I see a large proportion of what I'm doing is teaching meaning, meanings of citizenship, I don't see a lot of point in teaching students content or critical thinking as an object.

6.1.1.2) Skills

All teachers across the sample emphasised teaching practices that encouraged students to think critically and/or to enquire into various aspects of civic life in their questionnaire responses. Again, rather discrete and particularistic activities were identified to develop specific skills, or combinations of skills, respectively. All seventeen of the Canadian teachers commented in the questionnaire data about discrete teacher-directed tactics like modelling of a specific skill applications (e.g. reading for the main idea, locating evidence, identifying point of view) or document analysis activities (e.g. cartoon analysis, analysing excerpts from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights). Interview data tended to reinforce this skills emphasis, albeit with personal variations.

David referred to recognising point of view, detecting bias, developing a coherent and substantiated argument, and being able to voice one's opinion on a particular public issue as skill areas that he preferred to address. Below, **David** describes one discrete activity that he uses to encourage students to detect bias,

I teach them to look at things through a much more critical eye. Hopefully they'll do that, not only when they watch videos but when they do other things. When I hand a document out, sometimes I'll re-write something to have a bias, and so what I'm trying to do is, I'm trying to get them to understand how to detect the bias. What is the bias? Even when I cut a piece out of a newspaper and it's totally biased, you know, I try to point that out or have them detect that. These are all the little things that you know are always in the lesson.

Larissa provided a slightly different approach,

I always try to have a pro and con article, and we make notes on the board, we have pros and cons. We debate the issue. So, it's really just giving them as much information from a variety of sources as we can fit in the lesson, and not getting into an argument with them.

A focus on skills was also evident in **Heather's** classes. Prior to one of her classes, she had explained to me that the class had been studying why Canada had gone to war during WWI and was looking at connections to the emerging situation in Iraq,

we talked a lot about the current situation with Iraq and the United States pressuring Canada to commit and those things. So we talked about that issue, should Canada help the US or not...you know, trying to get them to look at the different views, you know whether we should do the Laurier approach or the Borden approach. You know, getting them to think like that and then apply history to today, cause there are many lessons and parallels.

In one of her classes that I observed, **Heather** began the class with a mystery.

Students, working in groups of four or five, were provided with envelopes with eighteen different clues related to why Canada had gone to war. Students in groups pieced the various clues together and came up with key reasons as to why Canada had entered the war effort. **Heather** debriefed their hypotheses in a whole group

setting and then instructed students to read excerpts from their History text that provided different points of view to test their hypotheses. Students were asked to bring their findings to the next class.

Similarly, all English teachers in their questionnaire responses commented on the use of discrete activities to achieve learning goals related to skill development.

Encouraging critical thinking through such focused activities as document analysis and/or debates was particularly popular. **Morgan**, again, provided an example of a very structured 'direct instruction' strategy that was much more detailed than other strategies described,

I model how to read that cartoon and I go through, and I would be writing all over the OHP and I would be encourage them to copy my technique of writing down and with them, so we would move through the first layer of what we would see and then we would move to the 2nd, and what would that mean? This first step is followed by others in a carefully sequenced manner that provides opportunities to ask questions about the skill, apply the skill to new information, and then debriefing the process. And then, you would reinforce that by sending home the clean copy, and they would do another one, not quite the same, but linked to the topic. And they would do that and then, you would introduce some questions, so again, like that template we used today, I would use that a lot...

Another example of this teacher-led, sequenced approach was observed in one of her classes. **Morgan** had prepared a mystery about a suffragette (Emily) throwing herself under the king's horse. Working in pairs, students were then given about 30 separate pieces of information and asked to solve the mystery based on evidence provided on these assorted pieces of information. Students sifted and sorted through the various pieces of information and generated and discussed different theories based on the evidence provided. Students were then asked to prepare a journal entry from Emily's perspective, dated July 1913. In the journal entry, students were

expected to explain the historical circumstances leading up to her death. Discussion followed in which hypotheses offered in the earlier activity were reviewed and critiqued, given the new information acquired. In both classes that I observed on this topic, **Morgan** had given particular attention to the skills of enquiry and collaboration, very much consistent with what she had indicated in her questionnaire responses. Although I did not see her subsequent lessons on this theme, she did indicate to me in a later interview that a culminating class newspaper emerged from the enquiry on the theme of women's rights. Some volunteered to edit the paper while the remaining students submitted their journal articles. This sequenced approach in many ways mirrored Hunter's Directive Teaching model (Joyce and Weil with Calhoun, 2000).

Some teachers tended to use a less structured approach to develop thinking skills.

Susan, for example, referred to her use of the circle activity to help students a personal point of view. In one of the interviews, she remarked,

we're discussing a local issue, you've got them in a circle or you've got them doing your sort of, I agree, I disagree, I'm neutral... Oh yeah. I mean depending on the subject, I'll throw things at them and you know these made the headlines and I like, I always say to children, I don't mind what your opinion is, if you can justify it, but as long as you have an opinion and that's where I'm trying to get to...

She further elaborated an examples of a local issue related to a theme park in which she had students take on roles and different points of view,

We did some work on a theme park that's going to built in your local area and you have to have an opinion and I actually gave the children characters and one was local shop keeper and you know so that they had role plays within the circle and then they moved, whether they were swayed within the circle. I tend to go around as well and say, they express their opinion and before everyone moves, they tend to say, I think that or I don't know.

There was also a notable interest amongst the respondents across the sample to explore current events and contemporary public issues as a basis for developing discrete thinking skills. Twelve Canadian teachers and nine English teachers indicated in the questionnaire responses that learning the skill of analysis through the study of current events and contemporary public issues provided opportunities to practise issues analysis skills and added a level of authenticity. Many teachers also indicated the value of using various media sources when working with students to develop these skills. One Canadian teacher wrote that the media “addresses current issues that are not addressed in the textbooks, it develops critical thinking skills, and it focuses on both the local and the global”. An English teacher wrote, “by interacting with the wider community as much as possible, the classroom boundaries are expanded exponentially and students come to see the world of issues in more manageable terms...”.

Discrete teaching activities used to develop collaborative skills were mentioned across the sample, but to a lesser extent. Eleven Canadian teachers and six English teachers commented in the questionnaires about their use of various cooperative learning structures (e.g. diamond ranking, setting priorities) to encourage the development of social skills. Again, discrete activities and more sequenced and planned ‘direct instruction’ strategies were apparent. **Heather**, for example, talked in an interview about her approach to skill development. Her following comments draw attention to her emphasis on modelling and, what she referred to as “guided practice”,

I always try and do something, I always do something first in terms of what I expect of them and I'm becoming better at it, this is something I'm working on, more use of exemplars and peer assessments.

A focus on what might be considered citizenship-specific skills (e.g. negotiation skills, chairing a meeting, etc.) was less evident.

Questionnaire data also indicated that teachers across the sample used complex strategies like enquiry-based research assignments and issue-based investigations (both independent and collaborative) to support not only the development of foundational knowledge but also the development of skills related to analysis and enquiry. Special attention appeared to be given to historical and current issues happening in school, community, national, or international contexts. One respondent provided detailed descriptions about how she attempted to develop skills through the use of very elaborate strategies throughout a particular course. In one example, a respondent traced how a few core enquiry skills were developed throughout a Politics course culminating in a research paper and presentation performance. Leading up to the actual submission and presentation performance, time was set aside for very discrete teaching activities to assist students with the development of their particular skills, all set within the context of an enquiry process. Another respondent wrote in a questionnaire response,

researching issues has been very effective, they (pupils) respond positively and have a greater sense of ownership over their work, it also has a greater dynamism and integrity, a means to develop pupils critical thinking both inside and outside the classroom, these approaches should be built into the normal life of the school.

Larissa, for example, talked about her attempts to develop students' skills through intricate enquiry-based research investigations that focused on global issues or

themes of social justice in one of the interviews. In my observations of her classes, there were many examples of students working through the research process, both independently and collaboratively, around an assortment of issues. Prior to visiting one of **Larissa's** classes, she indicated to me that her Civics class had been focusing on issues surrounding globalisation. In particular, she indicated that a fair bit of time had focused on the media, corporate concentration, and corporate encroachment into the public sphere. She had showed clips from Maude Barlow's 'Council of Canadians' and Chomsky's 'Manufacturing Dissent' and had discussed with her class examples of media coverage, media ownership, and generally the role of media in a democratic society. In the class that I observed on this topic, **Larissa** began by discussing ways in which they might analyse the article for pros and cons and ways to discuss various views on current issues. She then provided students with two articles to read about the pros and cons of globalisation and its impact on the media, M. Chihara's 'Naomi Klein Gets Global' and D. T. Griswold's 'The Blessings of Globalisation'. Based on the video clips and readings, students were asked to develop broad arguments for and against globalisation for the following class. In the following class, **Larissa** reviewed students' findings and identified key arguments for and against globalisation. She also introduced the idea that students would be involved in a summit meeting 'The World We Want: Global Society Summit'. Additional articles were then distributed to "same article groups" to read, discuss, and further build their arguments, based on the new evidence. Students then moved into "mixed article groups" and students shared what they had learned and added new arguments and evidence to their notes. Students were then asked to take on possible roles of individuals or groups with vested interests in the globalisation debate (e.g. spokesperson for the anti-globalisation movement, Director General of the World

Trade Organisation, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Canada). **Larissa** indicated in a subsequent interview that this lesson was largely preparatory and would lead into an imagined international summit meeting that would discuss globalisation. In addition, students were expected to do a little additional independent research and construct their arguments around the perspectives of a particular real life character or interest group. In my visit to the next class, I had the opportunity to observe students performances in the Summit meeting. Students took turns identifying their arguments and debating different issues. Some students had taken on the role of journalists and were required to produce newspaper articles about the summit.

Larissa in conclusion debriefed the Summit meeting, with particular attention to questions of social justice and possibilities for future action. **Larissa** often took time, as the lesson unfolded, to focus on critical thinking skills (e.g. identifying points of view, recognising evidence, detecting bias) quite explicitly when she felt students needed assistance.

In some instances, teachers' rhetoric appeared to be more ambitious than what was observed in reality. **Susan**, one of the English teachers interviewed, identified enquiry skills as an important learning goal area and talked about the use of more intricate teaching strategies to encourage the development of enquiry skills.

Observations of **Susan's** lessons, however, revealed less attention to these goals. In one instance, for example, I observed a lesson that focused on government structures and decision-making (Year seven class). Students were introduced to the structure of national government, some of the key players (e.g. cabinet ministers), and decision-making processes. The intended goals of the lesson appeared to diverge from her questionnaire and earlier interview responses. Rather than a lively discussion about

local civic themes and issues, the lesson tended to be reflective of a more traditional civics classes in which that teacher stands and delivers as the class listens and takes notes. In most activities in this lesson, for example, students were observed filling in blanks on a worksheet about how a bill becomes law. When I asked **Susan** about this in a subsequent interview, she responded by saying that children need “to get the knowledge, they don’t have the knowledge, so they have to get the knowledge somewhere and somehow. It can be very dry but I think it’s important to that all the children get a concept of how the government works”. She acknowledged herself that what I had observed seemed “a little bit away from what we talked about initially around local membership”. In the next class that I observed, a similar pattern was evident. Students were involved in searching data on Internet. While I had assumed that I would be observing students gathering data around some broad enquiry theme or issue, students were, by and large, searching for the names of political parties and the names of Members of Parliament.

In summary, it was apparent from the questionnaire, interview, and observation data that most teachers across the sample emphasised teaching practices that encouraged students to think critically and/or to enquire into various about aspects of civic life. Again, rather discrete and particularistic activities were identified to develop specific skills (e.g. reading for the main idea, locating evidence, identifying point of view), or combinations of skills, respectively. There was a general impression gleaned from the data that respondents also preferred to use intricate teaching strategies to build a broader range of skills in a more integrated manner. As with goal preferences, however, variations were evident across the sample and between national groupings.

In a few instances, as explained above, teachers' rhetoric appeared to be more ambitious than what was noted in classroom observations.

6.1.1.3) Beliefs, values, and notions of social justice

Most respondents across the sample talked about the importance of exploring beliefs, values, and notions of social justice as an important goal of citizenship education.

Questionnaire data revealed, however, that less than half of the teachers from either Canada or England identified actual teaching practices to address this goal area.

Teachers who provided examples tended to highlight practices that explored personal beliefs and values underpinning civic issues. Moral dilemmas, sample scenarios, cooperative learning structures, circle activity, and case studies reflected the eclectic range of practices used.

This variant range of practices was further evidenced in the interview data. **Heather**, for example, identified the use of diverse source material to provide a broader representation of Canadian diversity, cooperative learning activities to allow students from diverse backgrounds to share perspectives and experiences, and guest speakers from various underrepresented groups and organisations. For **Heather**, teaching practices like these helped students to get a better sense of the personal beliefs and values underpinning civic issues and the challenges of making decisions in socially diverse contexts,

we haven't always been this wonderfully inclusive, welcoming, Charter of Rights and Freedoms kind of country. And to understand where we came from and how we got to the state where we are, that it was about people taking action, you know, challenging the inequities.

In observations of her classes, **Heather** explicitly encouraged students to explore their personally diverse values and heritages in a lesson on Canadian history in which they were considering what it means to be a 'Canadian' citizen. Interestingly, **Heather**, in an interview, also talked about the importance of encouraging social cohesion in reference to the playing of the anthem 'O Canada' at school each morning, suggesting another, possibly conflicting, layer of values related to citizenship that she was aiming to nurture,

One thing I did think about is how hot under the collar I get about O Canada in the morning...I have period one off and I'm always in the hall...if a student doesn't stop, I mean I get very angry at that lack of respect. It's only a minute of their day that they're expected to stop...and I did kind of ream out a kid the other day for not standing. I don't expect them to salute, I just ask them to stop, you know just for that one minute and sort of reflect on the fact that they live in Canada, and all Canada asks us to do five days a week is to stand for one minute. Like it's not a huge request. That's my one pet peeve.

In another example, a teacher from England indicated in the questionnaire data the "use of moral dilemmas or stories/parables with a moral context or message" because "these allow students to explore a range of moral responses to situations and perhaps come to understand the notion of moral hierarchies". Another teacher commented about how she used moral dilemmas to assist pupils to make connections between personal values and particular government decisions and policies "as I teach biology, I give a great deal of attention to bio-ethics and the dilemmas arising from genetic engineering and cloning".

Most attention to teaching practices related to beliefs, values, and notions of social justice

appeared to come from teachers in England examining citizenship themes and issues in Religious Education (RE) classes. As one person suggested,

they allow students to understand how religious sources of authority can be effective guides for appropriate behaviour in community situations, because experiential learning affects learners at deeper levels than simple cognitive learning.

A few respondents across both national groupings talked about practices that were infused through historical and contemporary examples and themes. In these instances, students were asked mostly to recognise and comment on differing beliefs and values existing in various situations. **Morgan**, for example, identified practices such as focused classroom discussions and analyses of particular texts or videos. Pupils in her class were asked to recognise and comment on differing beliefs and values existing in various historical situations. Further, pupils were often asked to comment on the fairness or just-ness of various outcomes of decisions or events, “does this actually make you angry or does this make you sad or move you? That comes through when you’re teaching something like the Luddites, child workers”.

Teaching practices identified amongst the Canadian respondents in the questionnaire data tended to infuse a considerable emphasis on cultural diversity. Teachers’ practices used to explore diverse beliefs and values underpinning civic issues often highlighted the multicultural character of their schools and communities. **Larissa**, for example, talked about the use of visuals, documentaries, and field trips that provided more realistic representations of diversity in varying contexts,

I bring in a lot of pictures, documentaries...objects from the world outside. For example, this is a picture of a line-up at a refugee camp that I use. And last year, I took the students to the exhibit at Nathan Phillips Square, on a field trip, provided by Doctor’s Without Borders.

She also reinforced the use and value of cooperative learning structures, particularly in research and discussion activities. **Larissa** emphasised the need to “foster a sense

of connection to other human beings” to “develop a sense of connection to the larger society”.

Respondents tended to comment sparingly in their questionnaire or interview responses about teaching practices used to encourage an understanding of beliefs, values, and notions of social justice. Observations of 27 classes revealed minimal attention to issues of social justice. In separate instances (in particular, **Larissa** and **Pat’s** classes), students were observed being encouraged to think about the sort of society that they wanted to live in, the kinds of rights that they thought that they and others should be entitled to, and ways one can go about creating that kind of world. A few mentioned the valued curriculum resource work of Don Rowe and the Citizenship Foundation in this area. While respondents talked about the importance of nurturing understandings of social justice in the questionnaire or interview data, respondents tended to comment sparingly in the questionnaire or interview data about teaching practices used to encourage these understandings. Nor did observation data show how they did this.

6.1.1.4) Participation in civic life

A majority of Canadian and English respondents reported in their questionnaire responses that they used various teaching practices to nurture understandings of participation in civic life. Teaching practices identified by respondents included both discrete activities and intricate strategies used both within and outside the classroom. Both types tended to vary in terms of teacher direction and the content (from the historical to the current) and the context foci (from the local to the global).

Most respondents indicated that they preferred to use discrete activities in the classroom to nurture specific learning goals such as a deepened understanding of the concept of civic involvement and/or the skills required for that involvement. **David**, for example, talked about “full class teacher-led discussions” and “independent student research” activities to introduce students to the ways in which citizens and groups participate in decision-making processes around current civic issues. In the English sample, **Morgan’s** practices were largely teacher-directed and classroom oriented. Students usually worked through, with the teacher’s guidance, a set of sequenced activities in which they were given opportunities to study individuals and/or groups who had been actively involved in significant historical events to bring about societal change. Questionnaire and interview responses revealed that **Susan** also preferred to use discrete classroom-based activities to achieve her specific learning goals in this area. Activities identified usually involved the classroom-based discussions of school-wide or local issues in ‘circle’. Unlike **David** and **Morgan**, however, observations of **Susan’s** classes exposed a slightly different picture. The types of learning goals and teaching activities espoused in her questionnaire and interview responses (i.e. analysis of such issues as school uniforms and school rules, peer mediation, community agency involvement) were not readily apparent in my visits. Like the others, **Pat** stressed pedagogical practices used within the context of the classroom to “build some sort of capacity for political participation”. Making students aware of the various organisations that are available was of particular importance to **Pat**,

one of the vehicles I found doing this, that’s really helped, is Comic Relief organisation... Comic Relief in this country not only do a big splash in public, they also spend time publishing educational materials which link really well with others...when you get their stuff, it’s packed full of other organisations, etc. They do quite a lot of work

with students to make them aware of the organisations. They use the web to track things down, to trace information. There are school issues in there for students too and there is this government summit meeting...

Respondents across the sample noted in questionnaire and interview responses the use of more elaborate strategies like model parliaments, mock elections, designing political campaign materials, making videos on various political issues, and debates to introduce students to understandings and skills of participation. **Larissa** talked about the use of classroom-based research assignments to investigate what individuals and other groups were doing to respond to particular issues. Enquiries were most often independently directed, but sometimes collaborative, with teacher guidance when necessary. The intent of her approach was to uncover what other members of society were doing to contribute to a solution and to encourage students to think about what they (the students) might do,

We see what the problems are, they do their own research, we see what others are trying to do, so what can we do and my job is to try to give them opportunities, ideas, but without being too prescriptive so that there is room for creative initiative from them. It's ongoing throughout the year and in many instances, students get involved in different ways to express what they believe to be effective and manageable contributions. Some examples have included working with different student groups in Kenya and in Pakistan on important issues.

Observations of Larissa's classes confirmed that nurturing a sense of civic involvement occurred largely through classroom-based enquiries. Assignments were sometimes independently directed, sometimes collaboratively directed, and varied in terms of breadth and depth. Central to each investigation, however, was an uncovering of ways in which members of society contribute to improvement and a consideration of the things they (as students) might do. **Heather's** approach, on the

other hand, tended to encourage direct action activities at the classroom and school level. In addition to introducing her students to various examples of civic involvement through the unfolding of the curriculum on a day-to-day basis, **Heather** stressed classroom activities that provided opportunities for her students to be directly involved,

The other thing is about taking action. It's showing students that by taking action, things do happen. They have a responsibility on whatever the issue might be. So that's a big part of what I'm trying to get the students to do. And seeing something wrong and doing something about it. Initiative and all of those kinds of things. And the issues around bullying in the school and all those kinds of things, I mean these are serious, everyday issues....

Heather used the classroom to discuss, plan, and assess aspects of their involvement in community themes and issues. This was evident in two classes that I observed in which students were preparing to support a school wide charity to support Sick Kids' Hospital. **Heather** emphasised student direction and making choices, with some teacher support. She also used small cooperative groupings to provide mutual support. As I observed, it was interesting to watch students discuss, negotiate, and move closer together as a group as they tried to work through the issue. Most students engaged in the discussion and specific responsibilities were taken on (e.g. taking notes). Interestingly, they developed a schedule for who was doing what and when. The following excerpt, taken from a subsequent interview, illustrates aspects of her approach,

all the money raised this year is going to Sick Kids Hospital. Each class will take some kind of initiative and do something to raise money... I'm trying to get my class to take some leadership and responsibility and initiative in this task. They had different ideas and things and then they divided up the tasks and now we're into reality this week, we'll see how today proceeds. So they have to set up a little schedule, who's going to be there at what time, who's going to do what, you know all those kinds of things.

Five of her students were also observed signing up to attend a District wide conference to hear Craig Kielberger talk about his work with Free The Children and to attend workshops provided by local NGOs (e.g. War Child Canada, Civil Liberties Association).

Nine Canadian and nine English teachers talked about activities used ‘outside the classroom’ (e.g. direct action, involving students in their communities through voluntary community service, developing public exhibits) to encourage an understanding of participation. In the questionnaire responses, Canadian teachers tended to talk about connections with local governments through such activities as “discussions with local politicians” and “students writing letters to various politicians regarding issues” and “field trips to the Legislature”. Some referred to getting students involved in student council, “smaller projects such as running for school council are initiated and carried through in my classes”. One teacher described creating “a club at school called Helping Hands which does volunteer work in the community”. Another reported having students “research an NGO of their own choosing in order that students learn about non-profit community based agencies and volunteerism”. In most examples provided, cooperative learning activities were integrated because as one respondent wrote “these model the types of citizenship skills I want to teach”...“the pace is a ‘little’ slower but the retention and demonstration of learning superior”. Two teachers discussed developing learning activities that encouraged senior students to be directly involved in some form of political action (e.g. writing letters for amnesty international, direct action in civil society organisations, working for a political party) of their own choice. One example is illustrative. **Heather**, in one of the interviews, talked about different opportunities

that she provided for her students to be directly involved in civic issues. These ranged from raising money for charities (e.g. local children's hospital) to direct action (e.g. for renovations to an inner city school). One example that she discussed involved a culminating performance community issue project,

They actually have to take action on a community issue. I had one student who took on gangs as her issue...it terrified me as a concept but she had the support of her mother and she brought in the police, like she did the right thing. And she was successful in getting rid of gangs in her back alley, what more could you want. And then other students took on people who don't 'stoop and scoop' in their local park, and stuff like that, and those are community things, and they had posters, and they researched the by-laws, and they did all the kinds of things, and they actually felt quite proud themselves, and actually they had made a little dent in a bigger problem.

In slight contrast to the Canadian respondents, the nine teachers from England tended to indicate a preference for community volunteerism (e.g. support for community events and services, raising money for a charity that helps new immigrants) and charity work in their questionnaire responses. Various reasons were cited. One respondent commented,

it allows the students to actually get involved in the issue and raises questions about the subject 'why are we raising money?'...it shows students that they can make a difference if they are willing to get involved.

Another wrote,

nothing beats hands-on personal experience for true transformative learning - the insights gained are more profound and longer lasting than classroom-based learning and have more relevance to one's later life.

Interviews provided deeper understandings of these varied approaches. **Morgan**, for example, indicated the use of school-wide and community activities to nurture a sense of civic involvement, largely through service and charity-based initiatives. Pedagogical practices appeared to be largely teacher-led, without a great deal of

attention to specific teaching strategies. She ran the school's Amnesty International Club,

we do assemblies, do the cards around about the winter time, and we used to do an autumn fair, which I know doesn't sound like much, but, I think I really tried to fight against losing that because it was a day when we were open to the community and it was not about formal education. It was about a different kind of teaching and learning. And it was about connection with the community, about fun and working together.

Susan reported various activities that she used to involve students in local charities and community service work. Again, there appeared to be little attention to a detailed structuring of these types of activities. She talked about a particular approach that she referred to as "the power of three - power, pleasure and poverty" and how she used these themes to assess issues and particular charities to support.

Pat cited community links through ASDA Gold Award Scheme and Duke of Edinburgh Scheme. These types of activities were viewed as being pupil-friendly and less alienating for pupils. Direct political action was much less evident.

6.1.2) Teaching practices: Performance-based strategies

About three-quarters of the respondents referred to the use of teaching strategies in their questionnaire responses that directly engaged students in research and discussions about real civic themes and issues. Most were quick to point out, however, that these types of practices were not always feasible due to contextual circumstances (e.g. length of class, curriculum coverage) and were used sparingly to complement the variety of discrete activities discussed in Section 6.1.1. Municipal model government, videotaped citizenship mock court, an election simulation, creating a new political party (with names, slogans, symbols, platforms on various issues), preparing a student charter for the school, public issue decision-making

research/role-plays, school-based displays of ways to combat racism, preparing a radio show on local issues (e.g. building a motorway in a green field area), and role playing and videotaping a League of Nations conference were some of the examples identified. A sampling of these more sophisticated strategies is provided below. They are based on data collected from the questionnaires, interviews, and observations of those six teachers selected for further enquiry, three from schools in Canada (Ontario) and three from schools in England.

6.1.2.1) Issue analysis and debate

One of **David's** favourite strategies, identified in his questionnaire responses, appeared to be teacher-directed debates about various public issues (e.g. free speech in Canada, Parliamentary vs. Republican forms of decision-making, role of the monarchy). Interviews with **David** revealed that in this strategy, various steps were incorporated, to achieve a range of particular learning outcomes. The steps of the strategy and its teacher-directed nature were evident in his description of the strategy,

I begin by giving groups of students a topic to debate. Part of the assignment is to have students understand what it means to do research and how to locate it. I give them some articles and web sites that I have taken a look at and so they were valid web sites, ones that were a connection to the information. They do some research and lay a sort of foundation for their debate. I use a formal debate format because it gives them a form to express what they've researched. I've taken a look already at their writing and so I understand how well they're writing and now I want to take a look at how they could verbally express themselves. So they debate too. The way I've set it up is important. In this case, I wanted everybody to understand the role of the monarchy. Everybody listens to the arguments and I make sure accurate notes are taken. So I think hopefully there is some learning of content going on as well.

In one of **David's** classes, I observed him assisting students prepare for a debate on Senate reform. In this strategy, a sequence of learning activities was used to assist

students develop their research and debating skills. Time was set aside for very discrete teaching activities to assist students with the development of these particular skills. Attention was directed towards what it means to do research and how to locate pertinent information. The intent was to establish a foundation of knowledge about the topic (Senate Reform in this case) although **David** indicated that he had provided some background information in an earlier lesson. The central intent, as **David** acknowledged in a later interview, was to help students develop the skills to learn the content.

6.1.2.2) Researching young people's impact on change: The Citizen's Lab

Larissa in her questionnaire responses described a strategy which she referred to as a 'Citizen's Lab'. This strategy, according to **Larissa** in a later interview, was adapted from an idea that had originated amongst students at a nearby university and designed for high school students. The intent was to have students investigate what sort of impact young people can have on society. In one of the lessons that I observed, **Larissa** provided a brief overview of the project and began with a few examples of what other young people had done to bring about changes locally, nationally, and internationally. In the next step of the lesson, students began to do some initial research into what other teens were doing to respond to issues of personal interest. Working in groups, students chose an issue of interest (e.g. human rights, peace and conflict) to investigate. Students started out by doing a bit of research into what various groups (e.g. Amnesty International, Human Rights Watch, Canadian Peace Alliance) were doing to respond to an issue. Students shared what they had learned with other students, and then groups selected one particular campaign to support. For homework, groups were asked to draft a letter of commitment that explained the

group's rationale for this commitment and some initial ideas how they might contribute to a solution, supported by some references. **Larissa** explained subsequent stages of the strategy in follow up interviews. This initial stage was followed up by a research stage where students deepened their understanding of the issue, followed by some type of awareness campaign (e.g. letter to a newspaper, presentation at a school assembly, youth-focused radio show) about the issue. In the following excerpt, **Larissa** discussed her sense of some of the learning goals achieved through this type of enquiry process, including some that were unexpected,

one group of students today came in very excited because they just got their thousand dollars for their project from a corporate sponsor (name of sponsor) to help young students do what I've encouraged them to do, and that is, to make a difference in their communities. I've encouraged them to go through that application process and get some support for some of the things that they're trying to do.

6.1.2.3) Simulating 'World history of racism'

Heather, in her questionnaire responses, identified the use of a simulation strategy referred to 'World history of racism', developed by Tim McGaskill in Toronto. In this strategy, as **Heather** explained in one of the later interviews, students were brought together in a gym from four Politics and World History classes to enact the simulation. The simulation focused on ways in which power has been distributed in groups, societies, and cultures over time to meet human needs and on ways conflict may be resolved. She explained that preliminary preparation is provided in the home classes through readings provided by the teacher. In the day-long simulation, students explore issues of cultural identity throughout history. They move through a variety of steps from identifying geographical locations and migration patterns to completing informational worksheets about forms of prejudice and discrimination to creating drama tableaux. According to **Heather**, the simulation is followed up with

de-briefing sessions back in their home classes where issues of diversity and identity are considered within the context of civic life.

6.1.2.4) Teacher-guided enquiry

Morgan described a variety of history-related projects that she had done with her students to promote goals of citizenship education. Some of the themes that she identified in her questionnaire responses included the suffragette movement, slavery and the abolition movement, and equality in medieval life. In interviews with **Morgan**, she outlined very detailed pedagogical plans for each example and explained how she guided students through the various stages of the enquiry (e.g. choosing a topic, analysing appropriate source materials, communicating one's findings). Central to each project were learning goals associated with conceptual understanding, the skills of enquiry and critical thinking, and values such as equality and social justice. **Morgan** emphasized that her approach moved away from knowledge-based enquiries "that focused on medieval shoes and dresses" and "that were no damn use whatsoever except the skill of precision copying" to enquiries that would allow for discussion related to the issue at hand. Observations of **Morgan's** classes, as mentioned earlier, revealed that she had spent a great deal of time and effort putting together teaching strategies that were interesting for the students and that also addressed varied learning goals. Examples described earlier (e.g. crime, suffragettes and women's rights) were reflective of her preference for a more teacher-directed strategy that sequenced a range of activities to achieve multiple learning goals.

6.1.2.5) A mock school-wide general election

Susan identified the design and implementation of a relative high profile school-wide mock general election that she held at the school in her interview responses. In this example, **Susan** described a very elaborately structured and detailed series of pre-election, election-day, and post-election day lessons for the entire school. An introduction to the various steps of the mock election, the provision of pre-election newspaper and political party readings, an election process booklet providing key definitions, choosing candidates, staging a campaign (e.g. Candidates' materials, press releases, preparing speeches, press involvement), how to research issues, the actual process of voting, assessment samples (e.g. quizzes, word searches), and involving the press were some of the components considered in the planning. Reflection activities following the election were also provided in the planning materials in order that pupils could consider why they voted in a certain way. On one of my visits to the school, I had the opportunity to observe the school wide national election simulation in action. In contrast to what I had witnessed in **Susan's** other classes, I observed students preparing what appeared to be a lively school-wide student candidate debate and election newspaper. A detailed enquiry-oriented framework appeared to underpin the overall teaching and learning strategy with particular attention to conceptual understanding, the development of enquiry and decision-making skills, and opportunities to perform various roles that take place in an election process. The fact that it took place during a national general election in England, and was reported in the local newspaper, provided a level of authenticity for students.

6.1.2.6) Using case studies: What it means to be a good citizen?

Pat, in her questionnaire responses, indicated frequent use of a variety of performance-based teaching strategies. These ranged from a reenactment of the parliamentary debate about the abolition of slavery to researching and role-playing how various persons chose to participate in Germany during the Holocaust to a colloquium on child labour. One particular strategy that I observed **Pat** implement was an enquiry into “what it means to be a good citizen” within the context of Germany during the Nazi era. This was a culminating activity that followed a series of lessons on the Holocaust. This final lesson, according to **Pat**, was meant to “help students realise that the concept of a good citizenship is more complex and deeper than perhaps they first think”, to “challenge their thinking”, and to “lay foundations for which they (the students) may think about citizenship in the future. **Pat** began with a five-minute small group brainstorming activity in which Year 9 students were asked to consider the characteristics of good citizenship. This was followed by a brief whole class discussion about what it means to be a good citizen. **Pat** invited responses from the groups and recorded them on the board. Probes were made for deepened explanations and possible contradictions. Students were then asked to read, independently, case studies of two well-known characters during the era (one of Schindler and one of Stamgl). Students were neither aware of whom they were reading about nor how history had judged them. Students were simply asked to analyse the cases within the context of the characteristics of good citizenship that they had generated in their previous group discussions. Once students had completed their independent analysis, they were asked to move back into their small groups to discuss the cases. **Pat** continued to remind them that they were to use their definition of the characteristics of good citizenship. It quickly became apparent that students

were feeling somewhat uncomfortable with some of their characteristics of good citizenship in consideration of some of the actions described in the cases. **Pat** then debriefed this activity in the full class discussion. In the debriefing, a graphic organiser was used to illustrate similarities and differences found in the two cases. Earlier identified characteristics of good citizenship were discussed, questioned, and reconsidered within the context of the cases. What appeared to be simple criteria for assessing good citizenship became more complex when applied to real life cases. Students were then asked to further develop their own definition of good citizenship for homework, with attention to the complexities that emerged in the reading of the cases and subsequent discussions.

Throughout the lesson, students were very much on task and they responded to the different stages. Lots of focused conversation was evident. This activity appeared to be congruent with her attention to contrasting notions of citizenship, skills of analysis, social justice, and active engagement in the learning process. As she commented in a follow up discussion,

I thought there was absolutely no point in me standing up and saying what a good citizen is, cause they'd just go eh...there is no way that they would understand the complexity if it was coming just from me, so they had to arrive at the concept themselves...it's a word full of complexity. I felt they (the students) had to arrive at an understanding of the concept that they could articulate as 14 and 15 year olds. We touched on some fairly fundamental ideas there.

Common features appeared to underpin these examples of performance-based strategies. These included: attention to conceptual understanding in context; consideration of substantive civic issues and themes (from the historical to the

current and from the local to the global); skills of critical judgement and communication; personal and interpersonal understanding; provision for a sense of participation in civic matters; and a valuing of authenticity (real life themes and performances). There were also some distinct differences. In particular, there was variation in terms of how the strategy was framed. In some instances, teacher-led direct instruction predominated, while in other instances, more attention was given to student-directed enquiries, signifying different learning emphases. In the former, information was largely transmitted to the students, under the direction of the teacher, and with some skill development infused. In the latter, more attention was given to students constructing knowledge based on their investigations and discussions of the various issues. Respondents indicated their preference for these types of practices whatever form the strategy took. There was a general sense among these teachers that students learned better and multiple learning goals were achieved.

6.2) Teaching practices and curriculum perspectives

This section considers teachers' 'teaching practices' in relation to curriculum perspectives. It examines how individual teachers personally integrate specific and discrete activities and rather intricate performance-based strategies (vertical analysis), a shift in focus from looking at preferred teaching practices across the sample and between national groupings (horizontal analysis). It is argued in this section that teachers' 'teaching practices', like their integrated 'goal sets', tend to blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curriculum perspectives in both eclectic and distinctive ways when analysed within the context of Miller's (1996) curriculum perspectives continuum. Further, it is argued, that unlike teachers' 'goal

sets', teachers' teaching practices appear to be more strongly dominated by transmission and transactional tendencies while transformative tendencies are minimal, suggesting a certain level of incongruity with stated learning goals. In particular, practices used to encourage learning goals associated with understandings of identity and diversity, social critique and improvement, and civic involvement were less evident than suggested in teachers' stated 'goals sets'.

6.2.1) Personal orientations: Transmission, transactional, and transformative

Data collected from questionnaires, interviews, and observations suggested that teachers preferred to use teaching practices in eclectic and distinctive ways.

Transmission, transactional, and transformative elements were evident in each teacher's teaching practices when analysed within the context of Miller's (1996) curriculum perspectives continuum. The majority of respondents' personal teaching practices, however, appeared to align with and blend transmission and transactional tendencies. Transmission or 'content-driven' tendencies were clearly evident. There was a strong emphasis on teaching practices (e.g. mini-lectures, reading or viewing for content, copying notes, practice and drill/skill activities) that aimed at transmitting relevant information and skills for the purposes of reproducing existing patterns (Ross, 2001: 5). Teaching practices were largely located within particular subject-based disciplines and always delivered by the teacher (with the requisite expert knowledge) to the student. Transactional or 'skills driven' tendencies which stress individual development, within the context of social and economic need, were also noticeably apparent. As such, there was a strong emphasis on those teaching practices associated with this curriculum perspective (e.g. independent and group research projects, case studies, moral dilemmas) that aimed at developing problem-

solving, decision-making, and/or enquiry skills. Only a handful of respondents' appeared to integrate teaching practices with strong transformative tendencies. In these cases, teaching practices often associated with more reform and liberative perspectives (e.g. creative thinking activities, community change projects, personal reflection and evaluation) that aim at encouraging students to critically enquire into various social and political issues and to use their findings to bring about personal and/or social change, were apparent.

Interview and observational data helped to illuminate these personal orientations further. **David's** teaching practices, for example, appeared to be more aligned with the transmission end of the continuum. His preferred teaching practices tended to reflect a variety of sequenced discrete activities aimed at enhancing students' knowledge (particularly of one's local community) and basic analytical and research skills. Specific and discrete activities (e.g. teacher-led discussions, questioning sequences, viewing video clips for information, skill-specific research activities, cooperative learning structures) appeared to be used to encourage awareness of current events and to encourage skill development. **David** also talked about the use of teaching strategies that he used when building a concept or carrying out an investigation of a public particular issue. In one class that I observed, typical of **David's** approach, he began with a brief lecture in which he outlined on overheads the structure and key functions of the Canadian federal government. This was followed up by some seat work in which students were requested to do some background reading on electoral reform and take notes about terminology and content-oriented questions. This focus on foundational content appeared to be a regular practice of **David's** and, as he reiterated in one of the interviews,

“fundamental to what I teach...you’ve got to create base line, to know all about this, even a dictionary of words”. While **David** referred to himself as “a constructivist in my teaching patterns”, interviews, a reading of his curriculum materials, and observation of his classes suggested a more didactic orientation, characterised by students receiving and accumulating knowledge and skills. Attention to teaching practices that encouraged the exploration of beliefs and values and/or notions of social justice was much less evident.

Susan, like other respondents, indicated using a variety of discrete activities and more complex strategies to help students to become ‘good’ persons and to contribute to their communities. Like **David**, she described in her questionnaire and interview responses a preference for discrete activities to develop pupils’ thinking and collaborative skills that tended to align with transmission and transactional curriculum perspectives. She also talked about the use of more complex strategies such as the election simulation and teacher-led investigations into current, real-life issues (e.g. teenage pregnancy, alcoholism, drunk driving, and homelessness). **Susan**, in different interviews, talked explicitly about her emphasis on developing pupils’ skills and on integrating a range of experiential activities to involve students in community service activities (e.g. assisting seniors in the community). **Susan** cautioned against “stand-and-deliver” practices because of her general underlying belief that people learn by doing, “people learn through working through ideas”. In contrast to her questionnaire and interview responses, observations of **Susan’s** lessons tended to reveal less attention to these types of practices. Rather than witnessing a range of experiential activities focusing on local civic themes and issues, lessons tended to be reflective of a more traditional civics classes in which the

teacher stood and delivered while the class listens and takes notes. Learning the skills of social critique was not evident in classes that I observed. Nor did there appear to be much attention to structured teaching and learning approaches. **Susan's** teaching practices appeared to be geared to the central goal of introducing pupils to knowledge, skills, and values that would help them to become 'good' persons and to be able to later contribute to the communities in which they lived.

Morgan's practices, as expressed through her questionnaire and interviews responses, tended to reflect a transmission/transactional blend, with particular attention to knowledge acquisition and individual development. She put a strong emphasis on teacher-directed discrete activities and more complex strategies that foregrounded knowledge acquisition and personal skill development, in particular critical thinking and enquiry. Specific and discrete activities often took the form of teacher-led discussions, skill development applications, and cooperative learning activities. **Morgan's** preference for, and attention to, skill development was apparent in the range of discrete activities that she described and in the classes that were observed. Her following comments are indicative,

I do a massive amount of skills' work...it starts in Year 7. We do a skills package in the first 6 weeks because they could have been fed in here from about 25 different primaries...we do a skills package to sort of, because we're teaching mixed-ability groups, to get them up to speed...we look at things like: what is a source, concept work, and these are all very active, we've got a word game, we've got the archeological boxes, we've got a sorting game all those words and pictures, and we teach them that you can read pictures, and then you can question...

Morgan, as outlined earlier, also referred to her use of rather complex 'direct instruction' strategies in the form of teacher-structured investigations and projects to

develop conceptual understanding and skills and these types of strategies were apparent in different classes observed.

Goals related to social justice and to civic involvement were less evident in her teaching practices than described in her stated goals. She also acknowledged a hesitancy to address controversial issues in her classes,

it's dangerous stuff, I don't want to be going into that...there's so many other things they (pupils) have to do, and because it's contentious, you're opening up such danger zones that kids, with parents, with the school, with the governors, so I would come across contentious issues much more in more role as a form tutor when I'm asked to do things like some human rights work, some race work, some bullying work, some gender issues, drink, drugs, very contentious issues there.

Morgan's teaching practices appeared to focus on the development of students' conceptual understanding and thinking skills. A very strong teacher-directed approach was evident which appeared to be linked to a view of her students as sometimes being "too young and too distracted or sometimes even too lazy" to actually know what they're doing or what they need to know to be good.

Heather's teaching practices tended to reveal more of a balance of transmission, transactional, and transformative tendencies. A wide variety of both discrete activities (e.g. analysis skill development, cooperative structures) and complex teaching strategies (e.g. History of Racism simulation, enquiry) appeared to be used to nurture basic content and skills, develop students' decision-making, problem-solving, enquiry, and collaborative skills, and develop personal and social awareness and responsibility. Teaching practices, described in interviews, reflected particular attention to understandings of identity within socially diverse contexts more so than other respondents across the sample. **Heather's** use of cooperative learning activities, for example, was viewed as a way of helping students to get a better sense of

personal beliefs and values underpinning civic issues and the challenges of making decisions in socially diverse contexts. In observations of her classes, these types of practices were evident as **Heather** encouraged her students to explore their personally diverse values and heritages within the context of Canadian history. Her choice of resources (case studies, newspaper articles, video clips) often reflected attention to diverse perspectives (beyond the mainstream) and real life experiences. **Heather's** teaching practices foregrounded attention to inclusivity and diversity, critique and collaboration, voicing one's views, and taking personal responsibility in the school and local contexts. Practices that encouraged students to look beyond the local or Canadian contexts, however, were less evident.

Larissa's teaching practices tended to align with the transactional/transformational end of the continuum, signalling a strong linkage with her preferred learning 'goal set'. A blend of discrete activities and more intricate teaching strategies were used to nurture an understanding of contemporary issues, enquiry skills, and a sense of human interconnectedness and involvement in social justice work. In interviews with **Larissa**, she described a wide range of discrete teaching activities (e.g. opposing viewpoint articles, small group discussions, cooperative learning structures, role-plays, documentaries, guest speakers) and rather sophisticated enquiry-oriented and interactive teaching and learning strategies (e.g. global issue enquiry project, Citizens' Lab) to achieve these goals. **Larissa** also appeared to treat her classroom as a context for exploring aspects of civic life,

I think using the classroom as a little microcosm of society at large, is important in getting them to listen to individual experiences, different points to view, to participate in simulated town meetings or debates, or just to have the experience. It'll be an artificial one in some ways, but to have the experience of civic dialogue is important.

It was rare to observe **Larissa** working on the development of a specific skills or developing a specific concept with her students outside of the context of the broader study. In a variety of examples discussed and observed, themes of social justice and global importance were always close to the surface. For **Larissa**, educating for citizenship meant encouraging youth to think about the sort of world that they wanted to live in,

the kind of rights that you and others are entitled to, how does one go about creating that kind of world. Our mandate at this school is, I'm going to paraphrase loosely, but it's about shaping creative and reflective leaders who are engaged with their communities and there is a notion of service built into that.

There also appeared to be a range of opportunities for students to direct their own learning in Larissa's classes. Observations of **Larissa's** classes suggested that she viewed her role as facilitative, and in her words, "a lot of handing over the reins". It was apparent that she put a great deal of emphasis on students constructing their own voices for discussions or role-plays or debates, based on their research.

Teaching practices that **Pat** described also tended to blend transactional and transformative tendencies. Her preference for particular types of teaching practices appeared to be guided largely by her learning goals that highlighted personal skill development, social change, and a sense of social justice (particularly within the global context). While she indicated the use of a range of discrete activities, there appeared to be a clear preference for the use teaching strategies such as case histories or issue-based learning strategies (e.g. reenactment of parliamentary debates, colloquium on child labour), similar to those used by **Larissa**. For **Pat**, these types of strategies fulfilled multiple learning goals and moved beyond the transmission of

basic information, “I don’t see much point in textbooks, but then I don’t do much of that anyway...I don’t tend to do much of the just telling, or just reading and answering questions”. **Pat** was quite firm that her choice of teaching strategies was not about just telling or reading and answering questions but rather about enquiry, pupil involvement, consideration of different views, and, generally, about a deepened understanding of the various dimensions of citizenship and social justice. Her classroom approach was very much facilitative. In the different lessons that I observed, these qualities were evident. Whether it was having students assess “what it means to be a good citizen” within the context of Germany during the Nazi era or developing a bulletin board for the national election, **Pat’s** facilitative style and her attention to contrasting notions of citizenship, skills of analysis, social justice, and active engagement in the learning process were consistently evident. **Pat**, like **Morgan**, appeared to infuse most of her goals for citizenship through her History lessons primarily, her RE classes (in the past), as well as through her home form.

Data suggested that transmission, transactional, and transformative elements were evident in teachers’ personal orientations to teaching practice. It was apparent, however, that the majority of respondents’ personal orientations appeared to blend transmission and transactional tendencies. Teaching practices that aimed at transmitting relevant information and skills and at developing problem-solving, decision-making, and/or enquiry skills were persuasively represented. It should be noted, however, that in some instances teachers’ rhetoric tended to be rather enthusiastic and, at times, incongruous with the teaching practices observed. Personal orientations that reflected strong transformative tendencies were much less evident.

6.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred teaching practices

All respondents identified various factors that guided their thinking about and choice of teaching practices. Learner characteristics and teachers' personal views of teaching and learning were cited most often in their questionnaire and interview responses, a slight shift from those factors that appeared to relate to respondents preferences for learning goals and other types of pedagogical practices. Other factors cited (in no particular order) included personal background experiences, contextual factors, and to a lesser extent, views of citizenship.

Learner characteristics. Questionnaire and interview data identified learner characteristics as a key factor. Comments like the following were typical, “my learning aims remain the same but how I reach these aims may be different depending on the characteristics of my students” or “sometimes it takes me some time to understand (the learning style) each student but this is important in nurturing an atmosphere that meets the needs of as many of my students as possible”. Prior knowledge, learning styles, developmental stage, ability, cultural background, and personal interests were characteristics often cited. About half of the Canadian teachers highlighted cultural background and diversity characteristics. As one Canadian respondent wrote “a lot of my students come from outside of Canada, language and culture influences their involvement, I have to convince them that it is ‘safe’ to get involved, to look beyond just family”. **Heather**, for example, commented,

I guess I'm sensitive to, students' cultural backgrounds. I organise my groups so there's a balance, like it's not a random...I'm very conscious in terms of a balance of gender and race and ability skills, so

everybody's in every group, and then I move them around so they're with someone new the next time. So that's part of my focus to try to make it, of course every group is different. A couple of my classes have a larger number of boys than girls. In fact grade ten has more boy than girl, so it's harder to balance those girls when you only have a few of them. So I'm trying to be conscious of that.

Most teachers in the English sample tended to put more emphasis on characteristics such as prior knowledge, learning styles, and developmental stage of their pupils. Comments such as “prior learning of students should always be considered whatever the subject”, “learning styles need to be considered and it is a good starting point, all students can learn but this happens in different ways” and “some concepts and issues are too much for 12 yr olds (e.g. Holocaust)” are illustrative. Three respondents in the English example identified cultural background as a significant factor in guiding their teaching practices in relation to citizenship education.

Teachers' personal views of learning. The majority of respondents also indicated in the questionnaire responses that their particular views of how students learn related to their choice of teaching practices. “Active engagement in learning”, “enquiry approaches”, “small group learning” and “practical and authentic applications” were understandings of learning commonly shared by both Canadian and English teachers. Canadian respondents tended to emphasise notions of “active engagement” and ‘multiple intelligences’. Similarly, English teachers emphasised “active learning” and “approaches that accommodated a range of learning preferences”. Comments from Canadian teachers like “I believe active engagement is a better form of learning especially in such areas as citizenship ed.” or “people learn by doing and I use role plays, debates, and

simulations” were typical. Reinforcing this emphasis was a comment made by

David in one of the interviews,

I try to make it interesting for each and every student everyday. You may be able to sit there and watch a video every single day, but not everybody can do that. So in making it varied, I hopefully am attracting all the students and hopefully they’re taking a look at the different ways that they learn ... I’m not all focused on literary hard facts that they hand in. It’s different, it’s like the mobiles you see, that’s very artsy. I mean that’s a whole different meaning.

Five Canadian teachers referred directly to notions of multiple intelligences, “I’m very much an advocate of Gardner’s multiple intelligences and Goleman’s emotional intelligence...the students are given ample opportunity in each of the intelligences so that each of their strengths are met”. Comments from English teachers like “learning by participation in an interpretive group situation prepares pupils better for real/later life than pure paper exercises” and “we hold youth parliaments because they help pupils quickly learn and retain teaching about democracy” were illustrative. **Susan** remarked in one of the interviews,

some children prefer to learn in a concrete way, some children prefer to learn in a logical way, some children need the interpersonal or intrapersonal relationships and that’s what I’m trying to stress in the lesson plans I give, different elements” ... “I also know that children like to keep changing so I try and use many different approaches, you know if there’s a video then I’ll try and put the video in, if there’s a song a piece of music that they could use, I try and put that in. So it’s just a wide range...

Some talked more specifically about views of teaching. Some teachers talked about “direct instruction” activities, for example, a “discussion based around a worksheet for exploring values” followed by “discussion following relevant video” followed by “a quiz/test on knowledge”. One respondent talked a little about Bruner’s notion of the “spiral curriculum”. **Morgan**, for example, referred

to specific teaching strategies that she believed would achieve the intended results,

I would say that some of the techniques that I hope I use are empowering people to become thinking, questioning, communicators. Direct instruction, Bloom's taxonomy, and cooperative learning are approaches that I think are particularly helpful.

Contextual factors. Questionnaire data appeared to suggest that contextual factors tended to inform 'what' learning goals got highlighted more than the teaching and learning practices used to achieve these goals. Nonetheless, a variety of contextual factors were identified as relating to one's preference for teaching practices. Factors related to the school context (e.g. school ethos/culture, exam culture, status of citizenship education, qualified teachers, curriculum overload, workplace conditions, timetable restrictions) received considerable attention by Canadian and English teachers as being potential opportunities or constraints. A handful of English and Canadian teachers also raised concerns that the operation of schools is often incongruous with the learning intentions of citizenship education.

About half of the English teachers commented specifically on school ethos,

The school vision is very important - it underpins the ethos. School aims that encourage and involve pupils in discussion and decision-making, support the broader goals of citizenship education.

A few of the English teachers talked about the improved time allocation as a double-edged sword. On the one hand, additional time (e.g. one hour/week per pupil) from the 15 minute tutorial would be an improvement. On the other hand, "a 40 minute time slot in the timetable once a week means that active learning often takes place in the classroom rather than outside it" expressing a limitation.

Another teacher was concerned about the extent to which its integration across the curriculum might interfere with other subject areas. He wrote, “it may be parasitic on my RE lessons and integrated with them”. Many, however, indicated a fair amount of flexibility in the choice of teaching practices, in comparison to their choice of learning goals. **Susan** acknowledged in an interview, for example, that while certain citizenship themes needed to be covered, there was a sense that she had the flexibility in the PSHE course that she taught to infuse a variety of teaching and learning strategies because she was “not preparing children for an exam”. She appreciated the flexibility of the new Citizenship guideline to select what she believed to be the best teaching and learning strategies for her students. The following excerpt from an interview was revealing,

the guideline itself doesn't say much about teaching and learning practices. I see that as positive because I think of, wow, we can do whatever we like” ... “hopefully some money will wing our way to set this up and we can do something really, really good with the kids.

Additional contextual factors were identified. One respondent indicated that prevailing social, political, and economic issues and events, for example, “affected exactly what issues come to the fore - like racism, violent crime, rate of teenage pregnancy, extent of family breakdown”. One teacher wrote, “issues that I focus on in class vary based on the social, political, and economic trends”. Another commented, “community has a big impact. I mean, their parents, the baggage they bring into the classroom, the community they live in, these are huge pressures”.

Five respondents from across the sample referred explicitly to working against certain contextual barriers. **Heather**, for example, talked about ways that she

moved forward when she believed the goals were worthy. In particular, she commented on her attention to issues like discrimination and homophobia and some of the contextual challenges that she faced,

at (name of school), it was a big problem, it was very controversial, but I was brave and I went through and did it. And (name of school) went from being a very homophobic school (next to the triangle school, where we had to have in-service all the time, because of the problems in the street) to being a gay-positive school.

Respondents talked about various roadblocks that restricted opportunities for student involvement. Eight Canadian respondents referred to difficulties that they had experienced when trying to involve students in some form of civic participation. One respondent wrote, “I’ve avoided encouraging ‘political involvement’ because of the current political situation in Ontario”. Another referred to the difficulty of having students involved in community affairs because students have less and less time due to other responsibilities (e.g. family, work). English teachers cited lack of time to develop community links, exam pressures, reluctant attitudes of pupils, and early stages of curriculum implementation as roadblocks. One respondent, in particular, commented, “I try but fail miserably because of the poor attitudes of pupils”. Another wrote, “this course is just starting for us and the knowledge and skills of communication are my priority...when I have established my contacts and revised my curriculum, then I’ll have time to develop greater community links”. **Morgan** remarked in an interview,

Having pupils and teachers encouraging civic involvement outside of the school is too challenging given the present curriculum climate of British schools and the overload that teachers face in their day-to-day work. Doing things that are participatory for the students is the best way of learning but it calls for an extra ounce of that which I think we are reaching a limit in this country in this moment in time. And I’m

saying that I'm still trying to massively juggle what I can do, but I'm looking around me and I think the government needs to get a clear message that something like citizenship education could be brilliant but you're squeezing it into and out of people and a situation that is already at some spilling over point.

Personal background experiences. Various personal background experiences (e.g. work experiences, family background, and professional learning experiences) were cited. As one Canadian respondent wrote “my international teaching experience allows me to make links for students between their daily lives and those of students in other countries...it allows me to bring personal experience of development issues to the classroom”. English teachers, too, described in their questionnaire responses various background experiences that influenced their understandings of possible citizenship-related classroom practices, “I have a strong political background and I believe it is important to make pupils aware of the importance of having that knowledge”. Another commented, “I have been involved in local politics in the past and, as a history teacher, aim to promote research and debate”. In one interview, one respondent raised personal concerns about personal biases and was very quick to point out that she was intentionally very careful not to design teaching practices that imposed one particular perspective,

there are no subjects that I have felt I need to shy away from, but an activity which imposes or suggests that this is how you should think about this, or this is what you should believe, or this is what you should do, although I may be sorely tempted, I would shy away from anything which I felt was really irresponsible of me, as a teacher...

Personal understandings of citizenship education. Questionnaire data appeared to suggest that personal understandings of citizenship education were

varied and extended beyond more traditional 'civics' perspectives. As one respondent wrote,

I don't believe that our only responsibilities as citizens is to cast our vote...for this reason when I educate for citizenship I focus on the rights and particularly the responsibilities of citizens...also I think it is very important for students to broaden their understanding of citizenship outside the legal sense and do understand their place as global citizens.

As mentioned earlier, the participatory dimension of citizenship was cited by many of the respondents across the sample. Comments like, "I try to get my students to be active participants rather than passive observers...its reflected in my teaching methodologies as well as in personal lifestyles and values" and "my view of citizens as active participants in social change influences me to discourage the notion of mere rule-following as the basis of good citizenship" were illustrative. **Pat** commented, "I want them to be quite directly involved in this. I'm quite an active person myself, I take action, and I want them to be actively involved, rather than just receiving it, hearing it, responding". For a few respondents, however, there appeared to be an implicit assumption that teachers were all working with a commonly held view of citizenship.

Blended factors. Canadian and English teachers discussed these factors in a blended manner, with no clear patterns emerging. Two brief accounts are provided below. **Heather**, for example, highlighted learner characteristics, personal views of teaching and learning, personal understandings about citizenship, and contextual factors in her questionnaire and interview responses. She tended to highlight learner characteristics as the main factor relating to her

choice of particular teaching practices. Students' varying abilities, special needs, and cultural backgrounds appeared to be important factors,

You have to give quite a different approach to the students who in the applied level to do a lot more in class structures, scaffolding their support and things like that...differences are very clear... I have done lots of accommodation for special need students and for the ESL students, but it's a different kind of approach, obviously.

Personal priorities connected to her notions of teaching and learning and citizenship (e.g. nurturing responsibility, initiative taking, skill development, identity formation in diverse contexts) were also blended into the mix.

I want them to think and take action when something is wrong, whatever it is that's wrong. Whether it's a can on the floor or a stupid politician who's taking away our rights. Whatever it is or in between.

Susan also highlighted learner characteristics and LEA/DfES (Local Education Authority/Department for Education) policies and directives as significant factors relating to her preference for and use of particular teaching practices. She referred to her views of teaching and learning, contextual influences, and understandings of citizenship as subsidiary factors. **Susan** cited a number of characteristics about the learners. In particular, she indicated paying particular attention to learning styles and multiple intelligences,

some children prefer to learn in a concrete way, some children prefer to learn in a logical way, some children need the interpersonal or intrapersonal relationships and that's what I'm trying to stress in the lesson plans I give, different elements...I also know that children like to keep changing so I try and use many different approaches, you know if there's a video then I'll try and put the video in, if there's a song or piece of music, I try and put that in.

Official curriculum policies and directives also appeared to be an important to **Susan**, reflecting a certain level of ambiguity. On the one hand, there was a sense that her teaching practices were guided by what she referred to as her 'line managers'. On the other hand, she appreciated the flexibility provided by the

new Citizenship guideline in choosing appropriate teaching strategies for her students.

6.4) Characterising teachers' teaching practices

In summary, three arguments were made in this chapter. First, that this sample of teachers made use of an array of teaching practices that ranged from specific and discrete activities to more intricate and interactive, performance-based strategies when educating for citizenship. These practices appeared to be connected to the four distinctive goal strands identified in Chapter 4. Practices, like in the other pedagogical areas, revealed variations both across the sample and between national groupings. For example, there was clear evidence of a preference for teaching practices that nurtured knowledge acquisition and skill development. Second, teachers' expressed teaching practices revealed personal orientations that, like their 'goal sets', appeared to blend transmission, transactional, and transformational tendencies in both eclectic and distinctive ways. Unlike teachers' 'goal sets', however, a blend of transmission and transactional tendencies appeared to be dominant, suggesting a certain level of incongruity with stated learning goals and further reinforcing issues about the kinds of learning is likely to be experienced in the classroom and school. Lastly, a variety of factors that appeared to relate to teachers' preference for certain teaching practices were discussed. Learner characteristics and views of teaching and learning were cited most often in the data, a slight shift from those factors that appeared to relate to respondents' preferences for particular learning goals and other aspects of pedagogical practice.

CHAPTER 7: CHARACTERISING TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT PRACTICES

Assessment practices are an integral part of a teacher's pedagogical repertoire. They serve many purposes such as diagnosing student learning, reporting personal achievement, enhancing students' self-concept, and providing feedback about the success of a course or program. If "inadequately conceived or conducted" according to Pratt (1994: 101), assessment practices "can be damaging to learning and teaching". Assessment practices provide another lens for understanding how teachers' characterise citizenship education pedagogy and what they believe has meaning. As Ross (2000: 12) has remarked, assessment often reveals

as much about the motivations and ideologies of the educationally powerful as they do about the efficacy of the learning that has taken place. Decisions about what to assess, about why the assessment is to take place, and about how to conduct assessment are usually framed within the language of maintaining and improving standards, but this very often masks ways in which power is selectively transmitted to the next generation.

This chapter moves from a focus on teaching practices, discussed in the previous chapter, to a focus on teachers' characterisations of assessment practices. This chapter considers teachers' assessment practices across three dimensions:

- teachers' preferred assessment practices across the sample;
- personal orientations to assessment in relation to curriculum perspectives; and
- factors appearing to relate to teachers' preferred assessment practices.

Three arguments shall be made in this chapter. One, that teachers communicate and exhibit a preference for two main types of assessment: paper-and-pencil short answer and essay answer types; and, performance-based types. Paper-and-pencil short

answer and essay answer types of assessment, aimed at assessing knowledge acquisition and basic skills, appeared to be pervasive across the sample.

Performance-based types of assessment were less evident but appeared to be gaining attention, valued for their capacity to capture the broader learning goals associated with contemporary notions of citizenship education. Two, it is argued that teachers' personally preferred assessment practices appeared to blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curriculum perspectives in distinctive ways.

Further, a case is made that these personal orientations signal strong tendencies towards a deepening of transmission and transactional curricular perspectives, raising additional issues about what kinds of learning will be experienced and assessed.

Lastly, it is contended that teachers' preferred assessment practices appeared to relate to a mixture of factors, each receiving more or less attention, depending on the specific teacher responding. Across the sample, however, learner characteristics, views of learning, and contextual factors (in particular, official guideline considerations) appeared to be the more prevalent factors.

This chapter is organised into four sections:

7.1) Assessment practices

7.1.1) Short answer and essay 'paper-and-pencil' assessments

7.1.2) Performance-based assessments

7.1.3) Additional assessment practices

7.2) Assessment practices and curriculum perspectives

7.2.1) Personal orientations: A blended transmission/transactional emphasis

7.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred assessment practices

7.4) Characterising teachers' assessment practices

Data are presented from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations in an integrated manner to support these three central arguments made in this chapter. In most cases, general findings in the sections of this chapter begin with a consideration of what respondents say in the questionnaires. These findings are subsequently considered within the context of what respondents say in interviews and what they do in their classrooms.

7.1) Assessment practices

As learning goals have changed and become more complex, teachers have been under additional pressure to consider the use of new forms of assessment, often with little formal preparation (Earl and Cousins, 1996; Stiggins, 1991; Linn and Gronlund, 2000). Little optimism has been forthcoming about assessment practices for citizenship education. Davies, Gregory, and Riley (1999: 104) have lamented that “there are remarkably few positive developments” in this area. “Assessment practices of teachers are understood only superficially. This is a tremendously difficult area and we have no straightforward answers to give” (1999: 119). This perspective was reinforced in Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, and Blenkinson’s (2003: vii) recent report *Citizenship Education First Longitudinal Study* that indicated that teachers have,

little or no experience of assessing student outcomes. Just over four-fifths of teachers (83%) and just under four fifths of college tutors (79%) said that they did not assess students in citizenship education.

While similar studies on citizenship education assessment in the Canadian context are not available, similar concerns were noted in the data collected and the literature more generally.

Respondents across this sample indicated in their questionnaire responses a preference for a variety of types of assessment. All thirty-three respondents reported using paper-and-pencil short answer and essay answer types of assessment. Paper-and-pencil short answer types (e.g. quizzes, fill-in-the-blank tests, true-false tests) were preferred for the purpose of assessing students' acquisition of knowledge. Paper-and-pencil essay answer types (e.g. analytical paragraphs, short essays) were preferred to complement short answer approaches and to assess students' thinking (e.g. analysis skills, use of evidence). Thirteen of the Canadian teachers and nine of the English teachers indicated in their questionnaire responses a preference for performance-based types of assessment (e.g. anecdotal, checklists, rating scales, assessment rubrics) to assess student performances in tasks such as a municipal government simulation, preparing a student charter for the school, or preparing a radio show on local issues. Preference for more performance-based types of assessment appeared to be linked to a belief among these teachers that the growing attention to participatory types of learning goals (associated with citizenship education) require assessment practices that extend beyond the standard paper-and-pencil short answer and essay types. Performance assessment allows teachers to assess students' demonstrations of particular learning tasks. Such tasks, according to Myers (1997: 373),

involve - in addition to writing – computing, constructing, speaking, the presentation of ideas and issues, and the demonstration of skills in products and performances. These are done individually and in small groups, in accordance with what people do in the world beyond school. Such tasks are authentic in that, unlike formal academic essays and multiple check-offs, they represent what people do as professionals and citizens when they actually have to use the knowledge, skills, and behaviours acquired in our classrooms.

Assessments of this type that were reviewed tended to forefront knowledge and skills strands of learning. Attention to the beliefs, values, and notions of social justice or participation learning strands was less evident.

Not surprisingly, teachers from Canada and England tended to talk about their assessment practices within the context of their own classrooms, specific courses that they were teaching (e.g. Civics, History, PHSE, Politics), and in terms of past practices used in other subject areas. More than half of the teachers indicated the need for more guidance with types of assessment that explicitly dealt with some of the broader participatory goals associated with citizenship education. One English teacher's comments was illustrative, the "traditional test to me would not be appropriate, citizenship is not quite a subject like others, though there us still a very important body of knowledge and skills to learn".

There was no acknowledgement of any assessment practices used to assess citizenship as a whole school theme or as a cross-curricular and extra-curricular activity. Variations between Canadian and English teachers were also noticeable with respect to the relative level of jurisdiction that teachers perceived over their assessment practices. Generally speaking, teachers in the Canadian sample perceived themselves to have considerable jurisdiction over their choice of assessment practices. There appeared to be less certainty across the English sample. A majority of the questionnaire responses indicated that English teachers appeared to think about assessment for citizenship within the context of the subject in which it was being integrated (e.g. History, PSHE). This uncertainty was further evidenced in a recent news report (The Citizenship Foundation, 29 June 2004) issued to school-based

Citizenship Coordinators from the School Record Form that had been wrongly asked for their “8-level citizenship assessment”.

The School Record Form, it transpires, has wrongly asked schools to report on citizenship using the standard 8-level scale. In fact there is no 8-level assessment scale for Citizenship. An incorrect version of the form was sent to schools in error. Schools returning the hard copy of the form should simply leave the citizenship section blank...It seems there are some colleagues still under the impression that the request for an 8-level assessment is correct, so do pass the message on by whatever means you have available. You could save someone a great deal of unnecessary work.

Various issues arose in the data and are interwoven throughout the chapter. Particular attention is given to the types of assessment emphasised and the implications for the kinds of learning reported, questions of congruence between curriculum goals and classroom practices (e.g. content and process), and varying levels of professional assessment literacy (and related factors).

7.1.1) Short answer and essay ‘paper-and-pencil’ assessments

Questionnaire responses revealed that all thirty-three teachers across the sample preferred to use paper-and-pencil short answer (e.g. quizzes, fill-in-the-blank tests, true-false tests) and essay answer (e.g. analytical paragraphs, short essays) types of assessment. Observations of classes and the curriculum materials of those interviewed revealed consistent use of these types of assessment. Paper-and-pencil assessments were valued because they were perceived to be able to assess two central learning strands introduced earlier, the acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills (in particular, thinking skills). According to respondents, these types of assessment provided “quick reference to knowledge”, “relatively quick feedback for pupils on an individual basis”, and “coverage of a substantial amount of

the course content”, arguments similar to those found in the literature (Earl and Cousins, 1996; Linn and Gronlund, 2000).

Short paragraph or essay types of assessment were given special attention. This type of assessment was viewed as providing opportunities for students to demonstrate aspects of their “thinking” around different civic themes and issues. Furthermore, it was generally believed by respondents that this type of assessment provided insights into pupil’s abilities “to develop reasoned arguments and, for some, explain personal values”. **David**, for example, indicated in one of the interviews, a preference for paper-and-pencil assessments that demonstrated how well students understood certain course-related concepts and how well they were able to apply particular thinking skills. His following comments are illustrative,

There are different approaches of evaluating the kids, and getting to know what they know...I’m not obsessed with them knowing every little fact. With me, it’s that skill of understanding how to write an essay, how to take notes, prepare arguments, how to develop a good strong thesis. If you take a look at some of my tests, that’s where the focus is, analysing...that’s what you would see in my tests and exams.

Observations of **David’s** classes did reveal his use of short paragraph or essay types of assessment that focused conceptual understanding and skill applications.

Similarly, **Susan** indicated, in an interview, a preference for paper-and-pencil quizzes, written assignments, and oral presentations to capture information about her principal learning targets, knowledge acquisition and skills. She commented, “sometimes its just a simple question and answer. Sometimes it’s a written test, a one-word test. Sometimes it’s a longer essay type test and sometimes it’s where they ask each other the questions”. In one of my visits to **Susan’s** classes, I observed a fill-in-the-blank test was being administered on the theme of ‘how a bill becomes a

law'. **Morgan** also stressed the use of paper-and-pencil assessments, whether they were quizzes or written assignments. She appeared to prefer assessments that emphasised subject knowledge acquisition and the application of particular types of thinking skills, both of which were evident in the assessments reviewed in her curriculum planning binders and in her students' notebooks. These types of assessments, for **Morgan**, captured a sense of students' growth with respect to important course content, concepts, and the application of specific thinking skills,

planning the curriculum means that you know that you do certain activities, so you're going to do some source activities, you might do some interpretation, evaluation, reliability, that kind of scheme will run through but there will be opportunities for speaking and listening, for essay writing, for extended paragraphs, so that way that the curriculum is written is so that assessment can take place and the mark can build up.

Morgan also referred to the strong influence of an exam culture in England and the types of assessment used,

its so exam geared , we're doing a massive amount, for instance, we're doing these concepts tests at the end of each unit and a source test, so you're building up knowledge in concepts and you're building up skills and the application of the knowledge to the skills so they're at the end of each unit and then do practice questions.

7.1.2) Performance-based assessments

Thirteen of the Canadian teachers and nine of the English teachers indicated in their questionnaire responses a preference for performance-based types of assessment (e.g. checklists, rating scales, assessment rubrics). These appeared to range from brief oral presentation to simulation role-playing and, in a few cases, to service work assessments. Performance types of assessment could, according to different teachers, capture a broader range of learning goals associated with citizenship in an integrated manner. Reflective of this view, one Canadian teacher wrote,

this type of assessment moves beyond the black and white, right and wrong assessment and is more reflective of the critical analysis I expect of each of my students when they assessing current issues.

An English teacher added that this type of assessment provides “a window to observe pupils’ thinking and valuing in action” and “behavioural and attitudinal considerations” unlike the types of evidence usually gathered through paper-and-pencil types of assessment.

A growing attention to performance assessment was particularly evident in the interviews but to a lesser extent in my classroom observations. **Pat, Larissa, and Heather**, for example, indicated a preference for large assignments and assessments in which a variety of learning goals could be assessed with the use of performance rubrics in specific subject areas (e.g. History). These assessments considered different stages of the process (e.g. research, written and oral components, visual display, etc.) and multiple criteria (e.g. students’ understandings of concepts, ability to research, think critically, collaborate with peers, civic involvement). **Pat**, for example, outlined a range of learning goals that could be assessed in a major project and that included process and product elements. Referring to a mock trial that she was running in her class, she remarked,

sometimes it is the actual process of doing it that I’m assessing as much as the end result. For example, some kids I know, actually, would use an essay or something the end, but they may actually have made some significant steps forward in the process, in their ability to link ideas together, to look at different views, and be able to put forward various sorts of different reasons in their court-like review...I’m not just assessing their academic work, but also their effort, their motivation, their teamwork, which are all important things.

In reference to one of her assignments, **Larissa** commented,

Yeah, one of the interesting things is the big project that they're tackling in Civics on activism, and that's a lot to ask of young students, with differing levels of maturity. So I try to create different kinds of opportunities for assessment within that project, that some of, if they're gifted visually, like if they've got some artistic gift, they can raise awareness by creating a powerful visual message. Or if they're talented writers, they can put together the little brochure. So there's a lot of flexibility within that one big assignment as to how they choose to raise awareness and evoke a response. There are certain things that they all must do. They all must complete a research log, and they all must do the reflective exercise at the end, but you know, I guess I hesitate to ask them all to be out there on the streets, talking to people, stand up in front of groups, and those kinds of things.

Larissa explained that she was trying to involve her students in more authentic forms of learning and that this required types of assessment that captured the multidimensional nature of learning taking place. In observations of **Larissa's** classes, for example, a performance assessment rubric and research log were provided in her overview of the Citizen's Lab project. In a subsequent interview, she explained her increasing use of performance rubrics. She talked about a world issues assignment in which her students completed three interconnected tasks – research on an issue, a Summit Meeting role-play (based on the research), and a position paper. Assessment criteria were delineated for each task of the assignment and a clear sense of expected levels of performance for each task were provided.

Heather also discussed her use of performance-based assessments. In one example, **Heather** referred to a political convention simulation. In this simulation, students took on the role of different delegates at the convention, researched that delegate's position on three core issues, debated the issues, and made recommendations in terms of policy directions. Assessment of focused on students' research, knowledge of the issues, verbal performance in the debate, and written reflections. In one class, I

observed Heather using a performance rubric to assess students' performance on specific stages of the enquiry process. Criteria were established for the various stages of the enquiry as well as the product, in this case an oral presentation in role. Criteria for the performance included such things as demonstration of knowledge and ideas, some demonstration of in-role performance, quality of arguments used in the debate, and then criteria around enthusiastic approach to the issue under examination. Four levels of performance existed for each criteria. In each of the above examples, assessment of a broader range of learning goals - that went beyond those goals assessed in standard paper-and-pencil types of assessment - was evident.

7.1.3) Additional assessment practices

Only six Canadian teachers and five English teachers indicated a preference for types of assessment that involved students more directly in the process of assessment (e.g. self and peer assessment, student portfolios). There was certainly not the attention to self-assessment advocated in either of the official programmes of study. (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, *The Ontario Curriculum Grades 9 and 10, Canadian and World Studies*, 1999 or the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, (England) (QCA) *Citizenship at key stages 3 and 4: Initial guidance for schools*, 2000). Preference for these alternative types of assessment (e.g. portfolios) appeared to rest on a perceived congruence with the broader learning goals connected with citizenship education, the flexibility that these types of assessment provided to show evidence of ongoing learning, and their emphasis on self reflection. Only three respondents indicated a preference for students to do self and peer assessment as a way of taking responsibility for their own learning and for encouraging accountability. One teacher wrote,

Sometimes I do self and peer assessments. I did that with the grade 10s last week. I gave them a little quiz and then let them mark themselves. It's not essential that I know what they got, it's essential that they know what they got so they can figure out what they have to do next...I actually came to this approach very slowly. I taught this lesson and then I had them self assess and then compared to what I would have given them, and for the most part, they were pretty dead on. It was pretty close to what I would have given them individually. So I thought that was interesting feedback for me...

Types of assessment like reflective journals or exams were rarely mentioned as preferred assessment practices (although the exam culture in England were recognised as an important consideration). Some respondents indicated making accommodations for students in response the diversity of interests, abilities, and backgrounds.

7.2) Assessment practices and curriculum perspectives

The intent of this section is to consider teachers' expressed assessment practices in relation to curriculum perspectives discussed earlier: transmission, transactional, and transformational. That is, to move from looking at teachers' specific assessment practices across the sample (horizontal analysis), to examining how individual teachers personally integrate these practices (vertical analysis). It is argued in this section that while teacher' personal orientations to assessment blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curriculum perspectives in distinctive ways, transmission and transactional tendencies appeared to govern most personal orientations.

Certain assessment practices are associated with particular curriculum perspectives. The transmission or content-driven perspective, as outlined in Chapter 2, is often associated with a functionalist orientation that involves developing or reproducing a

reflection of existing societal patterns. Core knowledge and skills are seen to be “fixed rather than as a process” (Miller, 1996: 6) and to be passed on from one generation to the next, often within the context of subject-based disciplines.

Assessment practices in this perspective aim to assess knowledge acquisition and /or skill development primarily. Content quizzes and other types of paper-and-pencil assessments are advocated in order that students can demonstrate their understanding of basic content and skills.

The transactional perspective stresses a more instrumentalist orientation. Unlike the transmission perspective, the transactional perspective views knowledge as something that is changing and can be manipulated (Miller, 1996). Learning goals can be achieved through dialogue, cognitive interaction, problem-solving activities, and/or other forms of enquiry. Assessment practices in this perspective aim to assess the application of cognitive skill processes (e.g. processes involved in carrying out an investigation, resolving a conflict) primarily. Assessment of students’ work usually considers various steps applied in the investigative process as well as elements of the actual product. Criteria-referenced essay answer and performance-based assessments (e.g. checklists, rating-scales, rubrics) are illustrative of practices linked to this perspective.

The transformative perspective, often associated with more reform and liberative perspectives, focuses on the development of the whole person and emphasises personal and social meaning. Learning in this perspective, according to Miller (1996: 4), integrates “skills that promote personal and social transformation” and “a vision of social change”. Assessment practices in this perspective aim to assess personal

growth and social awareness. Opportunities for self-evaluation and reflective journals and portfolios are advocated.

7.2.1) Personal orientations: A blended transmission/transactional emphasis

Questionnaire data suggested that teachers' tended to think about assessment practices in ways that aligned with their preferred learning goals. In most instances, however, interview and observational data tended to reveal a much stronger tendency towards a blending of transmission and transactional curriculum perspectives.

Transmission tendencies were strongly evident in **David's**, **Susan's**, and **Morgan's** practices. "Accumulating knowledge and skills" (Miller, 1996: 6) was given priority and knowledge assessed tended to be that which had been transmitted to the student, usually from the teacher. **David**, for example, indicated a clear preference for paper-and-pencil assessments that demonstrated how well students understood certain knowledge, course-related concepts, and the application of certain basic skills.

Underpinning his approach, there appeared to be a general belief that assessment practices ought to encourage a "mastery of the learning goals and that students should have opportunities to repeat assignments until they are able to demonstrate the learning expectations". In addition, he referred to the use of criteria-based performance assessments in which students demonstrated the application of knowledge and skills in other, more authentic, tasks. **Susan's** preferred practices tended to highlight a similar orientation. She indicated a preference for paper-and-pencil quizzes, short written assignments, and oral presentations to capture information about her learning targets. **Susan** also indicated a preference for checklists to assess students' contributions in small group situations, "I carry checklists so that I can be aware of how competent children are becoming and how

well they do relate to their peers and things like that which are more a woollier areas". **Morgan**, too, appeared to prefer assessments that focused on subject-based knowledge acquisition and the application of particular thinking skills. She focused heavily on the skills of enquiry and critique, as evidenced in the assessment practices reviewed in her curriculum planning binders and when observed teaching.

Pat, Heather, and Larissa's assessment practices suggested a more balanced blend of transmission and transactional tendencies, and in a few cases, some transformative ones. While each claimed considerable use of paper-and-pencil assessment approaches that focused on how well students understood certain knowledge and could apply certain basic skills, each offered more detailed accounts about the use of varying types of performance assessment to address those dimensions of learning (elements of the process of enquiry, problem solving, moral reasoning) difficult to assess through more traditional paper-and-pencil means. Underpinning these assessment practices were what Miller (1996: 6, 7) referred to as transactional tendencies, assessment practices that attended to skills and processes of enquiry, thinking, and an understanding that knowledge is constructed and ever changing. **Pat**, in an interview, indicated a preference for assessment practices that integrated paper-and-pencil assessments with performance-based types of assessment,

I tend to use a range. I'll assess the kids actually while they're doing a task, and I'll assess the outcome, but I don't have a preferred assessment. Marking of books, marking of teamwork, observation of the kids as they're actually doing the task, I'm assessing their effort and assessing their personal skills.

Her comments tended to suggest a personal belief that performance-based assessments are a better way to get at some of the goals infused through citizenship, particularly those related to thinking, communicating, and participating.

Heather, on the other hand, noted as well that she used paper-and-pencil types of assessment to assess factual understanding but had grown to prefer more multidimensional and performance-based approaches. **Heather** commented that she tried to involve her students in more authentic types of learning and this required types of assessment that captured the multidimensional nature of learning taking place. Her focus on student involvement, discussed in the earlier example (e.g. political convention simulation) was illustrative. In an interview, she discussed a preference for rubrics to assess the multidimensional nature of learning implied. An observation of the rubric for the political convention strategy revealed clearly delineated criteria and levels of performance. Her emphasis on equity was never far from the surface of her assessment approaches. She indicated that she attempted to ensure that multiple voices were exposed in the study of issues and that these multiple voices were also considered in the various types of assessment. One example involving the study of labour history in Canada was illuminating,

I'm working on the role of labour in Canadian History at the moment, and their importance. Even things around the Auto pact, which having growing up in Windsor, I am intimately familiar with. And so I try to find ways of getting students to think about those issues, from the point of view of the work around the line, and what this means to him or her. The implications of it are still not gone, and that goes with globalisation, and those issues, and you can really connect all these things really together and it can become a rather important thing. Whether the students are doing an assessment orally or in writing, it's one of the expectations that I put up and find as one of the things I want them to do, as opposed to just say, well we have Labour Unions in Canada and be done with it. I actually expect students to do something more with it, whether it's research or write or defend.

Like the **Pat** and **Heather**, **Larissa** paid particular attention to a variety of types of assessment that assessed knowledge acquisition and a variety of thinking and

communication skills. Probably more than any of the others, however, she appeared to infuse certain assessment practices that suggested transformative tendencies. As mentioned earlier, **Larissa** appeared to have a clear preference for large-scale assignments and assessments that assessed a variety of learning goals in a more integrated way through criteria-based assessment rubrics. It was also apparent that **Larissa's** was able to infuse particular content goals (e.g. global issues) into her assessments. These assessments often included a combination of components (e.g. research, written and oral components, visual display, etc.) and assessment often had a multiple focus (e.g. students' understandings of concepts, ability to research, think critically, collaborate with peers, civic involvement). Again, assessment rubrics appeared to be used as a way to address multiple learning goals and to provide some consistency across her assessment process. **Larissa** also indicated involving students in the construction of assessment rubrics,

I do involve them in the process, of generating the rubric, so I ask them, what do you think would make a really compelling individual or an exciting, or what's involved in engaging an audience. Because I think it's good to spell it out for them, but it's even better to get them to think about it themselves. I think it just makes them that much more aware.

She also indicated building in a certain level of flexibility and negotiation in terms of how students choose to meet the requirements of a project and it appeared that both self and peer assessments were interwoven in different examples reviewed.

Heather indicated a preference for students to do self and peer assessment as a way of taking responsibility for their own learning and for encouraging accountability, suggesting some transformative tendencies. It should be emphasised, however, that assessment approaches, often associated with a transformational orientation (e.g.

journal, portfolios, self and peer assessment), were largely absent from the discussion across the sample, suggesting inconsistencies with stated goals and practices.

7.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred assessment practices

Similar to other areas of teachers' pedagogy explored in this study, it is contended in this section that a mixture of factors appeared to relate to teachers' preferred assessment practices. Teachers' personal views of learning, learner characteristics, and contextual factors (in particular, statutory curriculum guidelines) appeared to be the most prevalent factors according to questionnaire and interview data, while other factors received less attention.

Learner characteristics and teachers' personal views of learning. A majority of teachers, across the sample, identified learner characteristics and personal views of learning as important factors relating to their preferred assessment practices. Student characteristics such as prior knowledge, different learning styles, developmental stage, mixed abilities, and cultural diversity were factors most commonly cited.

David, in one of the interviews, cited student circumstances and interests as factors relating to his approach to assessment. Knowing that students were headed for university or for the world of work or that they received little support at home revealed a rather adaptive approach to assessment. He commented,

I alter sometimes what the particular assignment can be for students. For example, I remember one grade 10 student who actually lived alone at home and had other responsibilities. He lived alone actually, his dad was a truck driver and was gone for two to three weeks at a time. And so he (the student) was responsible for himself. He didn't have the support at home to help him with an essay but he loved playing music, and he played the guitar very well. So I had him, instead of writing this essay, compose a song on the Regina Riot and play it in front of the class. So, I mean, I have to tailor it sometimes.

And this went on after we talked about what was going on in his life, and why he wasn't meeting my deadline. So, my evaluation won't be, everybody shall do this. If somebody's having a problem, I try to meet you half way.

Many commented in the questionnaire data about the relationship among their views of learning, their preferred learning goals, and their assessment practices. "Active engagement in learning", "enquiry", "small group learning" and "practical and authentic applications" were themes of learning most commonly cited by respondents. One respondent wrote,

Basically, all students learn in different ways. If I were to come in and say at the end of every unit, we're going to have a test, and that's going to be the major source of how I'm going to evaluate you, that would kill the course, because they're different styles of learners. So, I try to add as much variety as possible.

Heather commented in an interview that her beliefs about learning and what ought to be emphasised (e.g. the skills of enquiry, critical thinking, collaboration, a valuing of diverse perspectives, and active involvement) guided her choices of assessment targets and practices. Citing her study of the internment of Japanese Canadians, she explained explicitly how her assessment practices were designed to capture demonstrations of students' skills of critical thinking, cooperation, and an understanding of diverse perspectives. There were often irregularities, however, between personally stated views of learning (e.g. enquiry, active learning) and actual assessment practices used. More often than not, a broad range of preferred learning goals and teaching practices were practices in conjunction with assessment practices that were much more transmission oriented in nature.

Contextual factors. All respondents agreed that contextual factors informed their preference for particular assessment targets and practices. A variety of contextual factors were identified. Nine Canadian teachers and twelve English teachers explicitly cited educational policies and official curricula related to assessment in the questionnaire data. Amongst the Canadian teachers, there appeared to be a strong sense that curriculum guidelines played a key role in guiding assessment practices. Recommended practices and criteria for assessment outlined in the Achievement Charts were identified most often. **Heather**, in one of the interviews, noted an additional policy example. In addition to curricula guidelines, she identified the Ontario Ministry of Education's annual Education Quality and Accountability Office's (EQAO) Literacy test, written each fall by grade 10 students, as a related factor,

today's class will be less than ideal, cause I'm dealing with the reality of EQAO next week which is first and foremost on my grade ten students minds, so it's an issue. It determines whether or not I can't have a test before EQAO, although I should have a test, I can't because it's not fair to give them a test, so I have to work around EQAO and the timing of that in my unit. So today we're having this 'hodge-podge' lesson. We're going to the library on Friday because we're doing a library skills thing. So it's one of these help lessons. So yes, reality does impose, so today is going to be a mishmash of activities, definitely.

Teachers in the English sample highlighted National Curriculum and OFSTED expectations as a critical factor in the questionnaire data. Illustrative of this factor was a comment made by one of the respondents,

Exams and National Curriculum requirements play the biggest role, to try and make it suit what we, what we are teaching. Its about growing confidence and taking individuals forward but yes we are influenced by the fact that we have to come up with a level at the end, pupils are targets for levels...

They also appeared to connect assessment of citizenship with the subject area in which it was being integrated. No one mentioned, for example, that teachers are required to make a judgement about performance against the end of key stage description for students completing Year 9 rather than the typical 8 level scale (suggesting less assessment rigidity than is expected in other subject areas). Jerome (2004: 1) has commented,

Other national curriculum subjects have attainment targets divided into eight level descriptors. These levels provide 'best fit' descriptions of pupils' attainment at the end of each key stage. Citizenship teachers instead have to make a judgement about whether pupils' are working towards, at, or beyond the single attainment target for their key stage. This is a different way of working, and is unfamiliar to many teachers, but provides freedom to develop flexible and task specific assessment schemes.

Other factors. Questionnaire data suggested that a mixture of other factors related to a teacher's choice of assessment practices. Personal background experiences, for example, was cited as playing a significant role in one teacher's choice of assessment approaches. **Larissa**, for example, talked a little about how her professional working experiences provided a basis for her knowledge about what constitutes effective and fair assessment practices,

my general understanding of assessment and evaluation, some of it comes out of teacher's college, and I attended a conference from the Ministry four or five years ago, now that just sort of emphasised the golden rules for good assessment. We had our PD session earlier this year. The rubric thing is probably the result of sharing an office with the people who use them. So, it's just these messages being reinforced.

Pat, another interviewee, described her teacher training as an important factor,

Oh, principally university training. I mean that's where you get introduced to an actual curriculum levels assessment criteria. So yes, through teacher training in the university...but also through schools, actually doing that sort of thing in schools.

There was also little reference to understandings of citizenship as a significant factor in determining one's choice of assessment practices across the data collected.

Heather was an exception. **Heather's** understanding of citizenship and her expectation that "kids should be involved, participate in their own learning, be responsible, take initiative" was apparent in her assessment practices. In particular, individual responsibility and accountability appeared to be interwoven throughout her assessments. Few respondents, however, talked about any explicit connection they made between their personal understandings of citizenship and their choice of assessment practices. **Larissa**, for example, did not appear to make a direct connection between citizenship education and her approach to assessment and evaluation. When probed, she commented,

an interesting question. Certainly, I haven't sat down and thought about that. The courses that I'm teaching this year, I suppose that I emphasise collaboration more in the Civics class and they're doing different kinds of activities. But I think with assessment that I use the same similar things that I do in other courses...

Pat also indicated that she tended to use a similar approach to assessment in all of her courses and that only minor adjustments were made for the goals of citizenship education,

I tend to use the same method of assessment, as I've said something about having continuity across the classes, we have to prepare. So we do some assessment in the department as well. So we all try to adopt a similar approach in major areas.

Blended factors. It appeared from the data collected that factors relating to teachers' preferred assessment practices operated in a blended manner, as in other pedagogical areas. Two brief accounts are provided below. **Heather**, for example, tended to highlight her views of teaching and learning, Ministry of Education achievement targets, her sense of certain goals of citizenship education, and her valuing of equity

as critical factors relating to her preference for particular assessment practices.

Heather indicated that her views of teaching and learning, which emphasised skills of enquiry, critical thinking, collaboration, a valuing of diverse perspectives, and active involvement, played a large role in informing her choices of assessment targets and practices. **Heather** also mentioned Ministry Achievement Targets and her personal understanding of citizenship as key factors. She discussed ways in which contextual forces such as Achievement Targets in Ministry guidelines and other Ministry policies related to her assessment practices. She also commented on how her personal understandings of citizenship and her attention to individual responsibility and accountability were interwoven throughout assessments.

Pat's responses were also illustrative of this blending of factors. **Pat** highlighted her personal beliefs and values about how people ought to be treated and identified factors that appeared to be relate to her preference for particular assessment targets and practices. These included pupil characteristics, official expectations established within the context of the NC, and general understandings of effective assessment and evaluation practices. **Pat** tended to forefront student characteristics and fair treatment as key factors related to her thinking about assessment. Contextual realities, in terms of NC guidelines, were not far behind. She commented,

I do use the national curriculum levels. I find them somewhat repugnant, but at least it gives me a framework in which to catch some sort of ideas. And they've taken in the spirit of, rather than the letter of, the levels are quite useful, a useful route to start a progression...

Pat indicated that past practice was also an important factor and that she tended to use a similar approach to assessment in all of her courses. **Pat** also appeared to have

been influenced by a former History teacher who warned of the overuse of assessment,

I was shaped very much by my old History teacher when I was considering going into teaching, who told me to be beware of assessment, it takes away from good teaching and learning, and I think that thought has always been with me, I think. I'm on a one-woman campaign too, to combat the over-assessment that's going on in this country.

7.4) Characterising teachers' assessment practices

In summary, data revealed that teachers explained their assessment practices in a variety of ways. These ranged from descriptions of paper-and-pencil short answer (e.g. multiple choice tests, fill-in-the-blank tests, true-false tests) and essay answer (e.g. analytical paragraphs, short essays) types of assessment to more complex performance-based types of assessment (e.g. anecdotal, checklists, rating scales, assessment rubrics). While a preference for performance-based types of assessment was noted and appeared to signify a growing attention to assessment practices that attended to the broader learning goals associated with citizenship education, paper-and-pencil short answer/essay answer types of assessment aimed at assessing knowledge acquisition and basic skills appeared to be pervasive across the sample. Teachers' expressed assessment practices blended transmission, transactional, and transformational curriculum perspectives in distinctive ways. More specifically, data tended to reveal strong tendencies towards a blending of transmission and transactional perspectives, with the transmission perspective particularly evident in teachers' practices. These tendencies to forefront a transmission perspective suggested certain incongruities with the broad range of stated learning goals and teaching practices expressed by respondents, raising issues about what learning goals are actually being assessed in the classroom and school. Teachers' preferred

assessment practices appeared to relate to a mixture of factors, each receiving more or less attention, depending on the specific teacher responding. Across the sample, however, learner characteristics, teachers' personal views of learning, and contextual factors (in particular, official guideline considerations) appeared to be more prevalent. Understandings of citizenship did not appear to be a significant factor signalling an added layer of complexity in understanding how these teachers construct particular aspects of their pedagogical practices.

CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND FURTHER ANALYSIS

In the Abstract, it was asserted that this study aimed to enhance original research in three main ways: one, to contribute to an initial body of empirical evidence about teachers' goals and practices of citizenship education pedagogy; two, to deepen academic understanding of pedagogical practice in the field of citizenship education in particular, and curriculum in general; and three, to add to current theorising about those factors that appear to relate to teachers' citizenship education pedagogical practices. Further, it was stated that this study would be of value to teachers, teacher educators, educational policy-makers, and researchers in Canada, England, and elsewhere who are considering the opportunities and challenges associated with this relatively uncharted area of enquiry.

So far, this analysis has revealed a range of specific findings and issues related to various aspects of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy (i.e. learning goals, classroom learning environment, teaching practices, assessment).

Further analysis will now be provided which aims to see, as Miles and Huberman (1994: 307) suggest, the "qualitative analysis whole". A summary and discussion of teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy is now provided, integrating data discussed in the preceding four chapters with attention to the following three themes:

- learning goals and pedagogical practices across the sample;
- personal orientations to pedagogical goals and practices in relation to curriculum perspectives; and
- factors relating to teachers' preferred goals and pedagogical practices.

Three main organising frameworks are used in order to present the arguments. First, I present arguments based on a horizontal analysis of the data. This means that when taking the sample as a whole, and between national groupings, my analysis suggests certain arguments. Secondly, arguments are presented based on a vertical analysis of the data. Interpretations that emerged from specific pedagogical orientations displayed by individuals or small groups are also addressed. Thirdly, arguments arising from a consideration of the factors relating to teachers' preferred learning goals and pedagogical practices are considered.

A horizontal analysis of the questionnaire, interview, and observational data suggested that, in general, teachers tend to adopt a broad range of goals and practices that reflect a blend of certain liberal/civic republican tendencies similar to those represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education and in curriculum policy documents in both contexts. Teachers, within this broad range of goals and practices, tended to forefront knowledge acquisition and skill development, and to a lesser extent, beliefs and values, notions of social justice, and civic involvement as important dimensions of citizenship learning. These goals and practices were illuminated through the ways in which teachers shaped the classroom environment, made use of an array of discrete and performance-based teaching practices, and approached assessment. Teachers' characterisations of pedagogical practice, in relation to their stated learning goals, were seen to be more narrowly focused, both in rhetoric and in practice. It was also noted that teachers' preferences for particular goals and practices varied across the sample and between national samples.

A vertical analysis of the data suggested that teachers integrate their learning goals and pedagogical practices in eclectic and distinctive ways. While a blend of transmission, transactional, and transformative tendencies were evident in the array of learning goals and pedagogical practices communicated and exhibited by teachers, it was noted that most teachers' goal sets', for example, tended to forefront a blend of transmission, transactional, and to a lesser extent, transformative tendencies.

Teachers' preferred 'pedagogical practices' appeared to reflect more narrowly defined transmission and transactional tendencies. Teaching practices, for example, that aimed at transmitting relevant information and skills and at developing problem-solving, decision-making, and/or enquiry skills were well represented whereas transformative tendencies were less evident. It should be noted, however, that some teachers' rhetoric tended to be more ambitious than what was observed in classroom practice.

Lastly, arguments arising from a consideration of those factors relating to teachers' preferred learning goals and pedagogical practices suggested that a mixture of factors was at work. Certain combinations of factors appeared to be more evident in relation to particular learning goals and areas of pedagogical practice. Variant levels of understanding and emphasis complicated clear linkages, leaving a sense of ambiguity about the precise role that these factors play in informing a more comprehensive picture of citizenship education pedagogy.

This chapter is organised into four sections:

8.1) Learning goals and pedagogical practices

8.1.1) A broad array of goals and practices

8.1.2) A classroom focus

8.1.3) Knowledge acquisition and thinking skills prominent

8.1.4) Emergent attention to beliefs, values, notions of social justice, and civic involvement

8.2) Personal learning goals, pedagogical practices, and curriculum perspectives

8.2.1) Blends and incongruities

8.2.2) Distinctive and eclectic personal orientations

8.2.3) Rarely neutral

8.3) Factors relating to teachers' preferred goals and pedagogical practices

8.3.1) A range of factors evident

8.3.2) Some factors more evident

8.3.3) Varied emphases and uncertain gaps

8.4) Further comments

8.1) Learning goals and pedagogical practices

The section argues that in general, teachers adopt a broad range of goals and practices within which knowledge acquisition and thinking skills tend to be prominent. They do, within this broad range of goals and practices, also pay some attention to beliefs, values, notions of social justice and civic involvement, but these are normally seen as less significant in the rhetoric of teachers but even more so in their practices.

8.1.1) A broad array of goals and practices

Teachers articulated a variety of personally preferred learning goals when educating their students for citizenship. Questionnaire and interview data, in particular, suggested that teachers preferred learning goals extended well beyond more

traditional 'Civics' perspectives and were reflective of certain liberal/civic republican tendencies represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education and core learning strands associated with official curricula in both countries.

Teachers tended to talk about their preferred learning goals in four general areas.

These included: one, understanding core concepts and being informed about civic issues; two, developing skills required of citizenship; three, exploring diverse beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and four, becoming involved in civic life.

Questionnaire, interview, and observational data suggested that teachers tend to express their preferred pedagogical practices through the ways in which they shape their classroom environments, make use of an array of discrete and performance-based teaching practices, and approach assessment. Teachers' preferred practices for shaping the classroom learning environment, for example, took different forms.

These included: nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom; using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship learning; attending to resource support and availability; and, to a much lesser extent, teacher modelling. While it was difficult to discern specific connections to the four learning goal strands, it was apparent that there was attention to those conditions that might facilitate knowledge acquisition and collaboration and would provide opportunities for student voice and representations of their work in the classroom.

Preferred teaching practices, according to the different data sources, appeared to range from discrete activities (e.g. a questioning sequence in which students recall information from a reading on rights and responsibilities, think/pair/share activity in which students share their understanding of a concept like democracy, mini-lecture

on the passing of a bill through Parliament, locating information about an NGO on an Internet site) to more interactive, performance-based strategies (e.g. direct instruction of a skill like detecting bias, concept attainment lesson that develops the concept of human rights, group investigation into a current public issue, simulation of local government decision-making). Discrete activities were most evident and tended to focus on a specific learning goal like knowledge acquisition, skill development, or concept attainment. Interactive and performance-based strategies, on the other hand, were less evident and tended to focus on multiple learning goals. There was a sense amongst the respondents that these types of practices, as pedagogical theorists (Bennett and Rolheiser, 2001; Joyce and Weil, 2000; Marzano, 1992; Wiggins and McTighe, 1998) have suggested, would not only help students to acquire important knowledge and specific skills, but would also assist them to learn knowledge, skills, and beliefs and values in more integrated ways. Less than half of the teachers from either Canada or England reported using teaching practices to encourage the exploration of beliefs and values and/or notions of social justice.

Teachers articulated in the questionnaire and interview data a preference for two main types of assessment: paper-and-pencil short answer/essay answer and performance-based types of assessment. Paper-and-pencil short answer (e.g. quizzes, fill-in-the-blank) and essay answer types (e.g. analytical paragraphs, short essays) of assessment were cited most often. Paper-and-pencil types of assessment were valued because they were perceived to be able to provide useful data about student learning in two central learning goal areas introduced earlier, the acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills (in particular, 'thinking skills applications). There appeared to be increasing attention to, and use of, performance-based types of

assessment (e.g. criteria-based rating scales, assessment rubrics) to complement paper-and-pencil assessments and to assess such tasks as a videotaped citizenship mock court, preparing a student charter for the school, or preparing a radio show on local issues. It was believed that these types of assessment could capture a broader range of learning goals (e.g. knowledge, skills, and participatory dimensions) in an integrated manner. Limited attention to alternative types of assessment (e.g. self assessment, reflective journals, portfolios) was evident. Observation data further revealed considerable attention to the knowledge and skill strands of learning.

8.1.2) Knowledge acquisition and thinking skills prominent

Data consistently revealed an emphasis on pedagogical goals and practices that encouraged knowledge acquisition and skill development across the sample.

Nurturing an understanding of core concepts (e.g. governance, rights and duties, civic involvement), being informed about issues related to civic life is critical, and encouraging the development of thinking and enquiry skills (e.g. able to locate information, analyse various sources of information, interpretation) were broad areas of emphasis. All respondents emphasised how different areas of their pedagogical practice assisted their students to become more knowledgeable and more skilled in thinking about various aspects of civic life.

Data sources revealed that most classroom environments included a good range of newspapers, textbooks, magazine articles, and videos to support knowledge acquisition and skill development. Textbooks, in many cases, appeared to be used to underpin the course framework and provided core information about particular concepts and themes. Newspaper articles and videos, in particular, appeared to be

viewed as important sources to complement texts, to provide information about contemporary issues, and to support skill development (e.g. reading for the main idea, finding supporting evidence). It appeared that most resources were selected and organised by teachers for students. In some instances, where projects were more student-directed, a wider use of community resources (e.g. political parties pamphlets, NGO literature) and Internet was apparent. Guest speakers and ICT were evident but to a much lesser degree. Group learning activities were evident in most classrooms observed. In most cases, small group activities appeared to focus on knowledge acquisition and sharing information about different areas under study, rather than the development of particular collaborative skills. In a few instances, however, more sophisticated cooperative learning structures (Bennett and Rolheiser, 2001) were used to nurture social skills and support community building. While literature (Beyer, 1996; Hahn, 1998; Johnson and Johnson, 1998) suggests that attention to nurturing an effective classroom learning environment can facilitate and support democratic discourse among learners, 'safe zones' for the discussion of controversial public issues, efficacy, and opportunities to practise democratic and participatory forms of learning, classroom practices to support these conditions were patchy. Generally, attention the classroom environment was rather variant across the sample, suggesting the need for a more comprehensive understanding of effective practices that might be used to nurture an effective classroom learning environment for citizenship education.

Teaching practices tended to support knowledge acquisition and skill development. Both Canadian and English teachers outlined a range of teacher-directed activities that they used to encourage content acquisition, conceptual understanding, and

awareness of current events. In most cases, information was largely transmitted from the teacher to the student through different mediums. Data revealed varying emphases amongst teachers in relation to what core concepts and/or issues were forefronted, temporal (from the historical to the contemporary) and contextual (from the local to the global) considerations, and the relative importance of depth and/or breadth of understanding. Between Canadian and English teachers, for example, there appeared to be stronger tendencies across the Canadian sample of teachers to acknowledge contemporary issues and global themes whereas in the English sample, there appeared to be a stronger emphasis on deeper conceptual understanding and historical themes.

Teachers also identified and exhibited a number of teaching practices that were used to encourage skill development. Thinking skills and skills of enquiry (e.g. locating information, analysing sources) were broad areas of emphasis. Teachers tended to use discrete activities to develop specific skills. Teachers also reported using more intricate strategies such as enquiry-based research assignments and issue-based investigations (both independent and collaborative), to support skill development. Varying emphases, both across the sample and between national groupings, were again noted in relation to the importance given to particular skills. Canadian teachers, for example, tended to put an emphasis on the use of ‘cooperative learning’ structures to develop social skills whereas English teachers tended to put more of a focus on developing students’ thinking skills, suggesting a more academic emphasis. In some instances, as noted in earlier chapters, teachers’ rhetoric appeared to be more ambitious than what was observed in their classrooms. A few teachers talked about approaches that were more student-directed. In these instances, a shift in pedagogical

approach was evident in that there was more of an expectation that students would process information and construct meaning from it. One teacher, for example, talked about the use of a cooperative learning tactic referred to as ‘mind mapping’, to introduce the concept of democracy. Emphasis on specific skill sets, sometimes associated with civic literacy (e.g. analysing public issues, negotiating and mediating conflict) or social critique, was much less evident.

Preferred types of assessment focused mostly on knowledge acquisition and applications of students thinking. In most instances, students were expected to demonstrate their ability to recall information or apply a skill (e.g. detect bias) acquired through various classroom learning activities. In some instances, knowledge and skills in-action were assessed through performance-based types of assessment in which a broader range of learning goals were assessed in an integrated manner. This heightened emphasis on knowledge acquisition and basic skills, while somewhat incongruous with stated learning goals, was not surprising if one considers teachers’ assessment practices more generally. Literature suggests that teachers tend to rely on paper-and-pencil forms of assessment to assess knowledge acquisition and basic skill development and rarely move beyond these learning dimensions, even when official learning goals are more broadly stated and intended (Cousins and Earl, 1996; Linn and Gronlund, 2000; Pratt, 1994). This situation is, however, problematic if one considers the broader learning goals associated with citizenship education. While there was evidence of growing attention to performance-based types of assessment that attended to the more interactive and participatory learning goals, there appears to be an urgent need to develop effective assessment approaches that align more directly with the broader learning goals associated with this curricula area (Davies, Gregory,

and Riley 1999; Jerome, 2004; Kerr, 2002; Osborne, 2001; Ord, 2004; Sears, 1999) and tackle head-on what some have referred to as assessment illiteracy (Cousins and Earl 1996; Stiggins, 1991).

8.1.3) Emergent attention to beliefs, values, notions of social justice, and civic involvement

Most teachers across the sample commented in their questionnaire and interview responses about the importance of exploring diverse values and beliefs underpinning civic decisions and actions, and introducing notions of social justice (e.g. fairness, tolerance) as important goals of citizenship education. In the same data sources, less than half of the respondents, however, discussed actual teaching practices used to encourage students to explore beliefs and values and/or notions of social justice underpinning civic decisions and actions. Most teachers who provided examples of teaching practices in this area tended to highlight discrete teacher-led discussion practices that they used to explore personal beliefs and values through historical and contemporary themes and issues. In most instances, variation was evident. Moral dilemmas, sample scenarios, cooperative learning structures, circle activity, and case studies reflected the eclectic range of practices used. Canadian teachers, for example, tended to focus on diverse cultural values underpinning decisions and actions whereas English teachers tended to consider value dilemmas within a broader social context. In comments about notions of social justice some teachers highlighted moral codes while others talked more about legal codes (e.g. Charter of Rights). Observations of classes revealed even less attention to pedagogical practices that explored beliefs and values underpinning aspects of civic life or that nurtured understandings of social justice.

Teachers across the sample viewed involvement in civic life as an important learning goal. Purposes varied from ‘learning about participation’ to ‘participating in change’. Most teachers reported using various teaching practices to nurture an understanding of involvement in civic life and tended to view the classroom as the most important location for students to learn about and practise participation. Most of these teachers reported using classroom-based activities and strategies to encourage a deepened understanding of the concept of civic participation and/or to shape the classroom learning environment to nurture involvement and inclusion. The organisation of desks, for example, to encourage small group discussion in which students could express their points of view on different issues was evident in most teachers’ responses and in the classes visited. Some teachers talked about the value of using more intricate strategies that allowed students to investigate and analyse ways in which citizens and groups participate in decision-making processes around current civic and historical issues and events, from the local to the global. These types of teaching strategies, according to teachers, directly engaged students in research, discussion, and sometimes performances around real civic themes and issues (e.g. preparing a student charter for the school, role playing and videotaping a League of Nations conference). In practice, however, these types of strategies were less prominent than those discrete activities and strategies used to emphasise knowledge acquisition and skill development. Respondents were quick to point out that these types of teaching practices were not always feasible and used sparingly due to various constraints. Many teachers talked about local community involvement (over a national and/or global focus) as a preferred practice beyond the classroom. Teachers in the Canadian sample, for example, tended to emphasise involvement that ranged

from service contributions to political action. Respondents from England tended to highlight the value of community volunteerism (e.g. support for community events and services, raising money for a charity that helps new immigrants) and charity work as preferred emphases for encouraging participation in civic life. Again, however, few respondents actually appeared able to move much beyond the confines of their own classroom.

Types of assessment reported or observed rarely provided much attention to the 'beliefs and values', 'notions of social justice' and/or to 'civic involvement' strands. In some instances, performance-based types of assessment included participatory criteria in combination with other learning goal areas. Additional forms of assessment (e.g. self and peer assessment, student portfolios), that involved students more directly in the process of assessment, were recognized but only to a limited extent. Preference for these types of assessment rested largely on a perceived congruence with the broader learning goals connected with citizenship education.

This predominant attention to knowledge acquisition and skill development revealed considerable incongruity between what was stated and what was practiced if one considers either contemporary conceptions of citizenship education or the core learning goals of the respective citizenship education curricula in both jurisdictions. Certain kinds of learning were clearly given preference while other kinds of learning appeared to be put to the 'margins', thwarting some of the more illustrious educational goals upon for which citizenship education was introduced. It is difficult to determine why this was the case but it appeared that there were at least a few possible explanations. When one considers the range of factors that appeared to relate

to one's pedagogical practices, any number of hypotheses may be envisioned. Perhaps the conditions or ethos of the school were contrary to the goals of democratic citizenship education, perhaps teachers lacked the appropriate pedagogical preparation and sophistication to effectively address the intricate and contemporary goals of citizenship education, perhaps it was simply a matter of time for planned implementation to take its course. Whatever the case, it was clear that certain core learning goals associated with citizenship education were not being addressed through teachers' expressed or exhibited pedagogical practices.

8.1.4) A subject and classroom focus

Learning goals and pedagogical practices (classroom learning environment, teaching practices, assessment), either reported or observed, appeared to be expressed predominantly in the classroom context and there was little evidence of school-wide and/or community-based practices taking place. Ontario teachers tended to talk about educating for citizenship largely through the compulsory grade 10 Civics course or through its infusion in other parts of the History or Social Science curriculum, confirming findings of the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (2001). English respondents tended to talk about educating for citizenship through various subject areas as well, but mostly in Key Stage 3 History, Religious Education, and PSHE courses.

Involvement in civic affairs beyond the classroom, a key feature of citizenship education curricula in both jurisdictions (OME 1999, 2000; QCA/DfEE 1998 (The Crick Report); QCA/DfEE 1999), was less evident and only a few respondents in either group talked about its infusion on a school-wide or community-wide basis.

Some teachers did indicate that their schools had introduced citizenship education initiatives at the school level but that the emphasis continued to be subject-based and mostly within the classroom context (Fogelman, 1991; Hahn, 1998). Teachers did not appear to be opposed to the business of establishing school-wide initiatives, but rather, when it gets to the implementation, certain goals appear to be implicitly rejected by teachers because they are viewed as simply unmanageable in the current circumstances.

8.2) Personal learning goals, pedagogical practices, and curriculum perspectives

Teachers' personal orientations did not tidily fit into one curriculum perspective. A blend of curriculum perspectives appeared to be interwoven into the array of personal pedagogical goals and practices communicated and exhibited by teachers. Most teachers' 'goal sets', for example, tended to forefront an assortment of transmission, transactional, and transformative tendencies whereas teachers' preferred 'pedagogical practices' appeared to more narrowly reflect transmission and transactional tendencies, tending to confirm curriculum theorists' observations that pedagogical goals and/or practices are rarely neutral.

8.2.1) Blends and incongruities

A blend of curriculum perspectives appeared to underpin the array of goals and practices communicated and exhibited by teachers across this sample, confirming curriculum theorists observations that pedagogy is often nested within more than one curriculum perspective (Eisner, 1985; Miller and Seller, 1985, 1996; Pratt, 1994; Ross, 2000; Wiles and Bondi, 1998). Teachers' preferred learning goals or 'goal sets' tended to forefront a blend of transmission, transactional, transformative tendencies.

Attention to the cognitive dimension of learning was prominent confirming findings from earlier studies (Council of Ministers, Canada, 2001; Davies, Gregory, and Riley, 1999; Hahn, 1998; Kerr, Cleaver, Ireland, and Blenkinsop, 2003). Within this dimension of learning, academic understanding (e.g. knowledge acquisition, concept development, understandings of contemporary and/or historical issues), the development of thinking and enquiry skills, and other personal skills (e.g. collaborative skills) appeared to be given particular attention. Goals that promoted understandings of diverse beliefs and values, notions of social justice, and civic involvement were also encouraged, tending to suggest these teachers' support for (at least in their stated goals) the broader learning mandate of contemporary notions of citizenship education. In a few instances, teachers' support for this broad range of goals tended to go beyond what was expected. A few teachers in the English group for example, encouraged more attention to issues of social justice and cultural diversity than either the *Citizenship* (QCA 1999) guideline or the Crick Report (1998) had advocated and had been criticized for (Osler, 2000) in their stated goals.

Teachers' preferred pedagogical practices, on the other hand, appeared to be more narrowly defined and tended to support recent findings in phase 1 of the Citizenship Longitudinal Study (Kerr, D., Cleaver, E., Ireland, E. and Blenkinsop S., 2003: 48), "that teacher-led approaches to citizenship-related topics were predominant in the classroom, with more participatory, active approaches much less commonly used".

Questionnaire, interview, and observational data sources revealed that teachers' pedagogical practices tended to reflect a stronger blend of transmission and transactional tendencies. Practices that encouraged academic understanding and the development of thinking skills and that would enable students to fit into and become

contributing members of society were forefronted. Practices that encouraged understandings of identity and diversity, forms of civic involvement, or skills of social critique were less evident than what may have been anticipated from teachers' stated 'goals sets'. Practices to shape the classroom learning environment were less discernable in relation to a particular curriculum perspective, and at times, appeared to address various curricular tendencies in inconsistent ways. Assessment practices, on the other hand, suggested tendencies towards a further deepening of transmission-oriented tendencies, revealing further levels of incongruity with stated learning goals.

8.2.2) Distinctive and eclectic personal orientations

Teachers' personal learning goals and pedagogical practices revealed both distinctive and eclectic orientations. No one person's orientation appeared to be exclusive to, or exhaustive of, a particular perspective. Most teachers' personal orientations appeared to forefront transmission and transactional tendencies while a few teachers' personal orientations tended to suggest a stronger transactional and transformative mix. A few examples are illustrative. **David's** personal orientation, for example, tended to align more prominently with the transmission perspective, albeit with a strong sprinkling of transactional tendencies. His learning goals and pedagogical practices appeared to foster knowledge acquisition and the development of thinking and enquiry skills that would enable students to fit into and be contributing members of their local communities. **Morgan's** goals and practices, for example, appeared to more evenly blend transmission and transactional tendencies. Her personal orientation strongly emphasised knowledge acquisition and academic understanding but also the development of critical thinking and enquiry skills. She encouraged an understanding of diverse beliefs and values, and notions of justice, through the study

of historical human value dilemmas and issues. Larissa's goals and practices, as another example, appeared to infuse a stronger blend of transmission, transactional, and transformative tendencies. Her goals and practices tended to support knowledge acquisition, conceptual understanding, and the development of thinking and enquiry skills. There was, however, more explicit attention to promoting understandings of issues, skills, and values necessary to critique and improve society. Overall, data suggested that each teacher's personal orientation reflected different tendencies that cut across various curriculum perspectives. Two distinctive, and overlapping, orientations, however, tended to be apparent, albeit with some disjunctions from the dominant tendency: one, a dominant and blended transmission/transactional orientation; and two, and to a much lesser extent, a blended transactional/transformative orientation. It should be emphasised that the assessment dimension in these different personal orientations rarely strayed into the transformative domain in any of the data collected.

8.2.3) Rarely neutral

Teachers' pedagogical goals and practices across the sample tended to confirm curriculum theorists' reading that pedagogical practices are rarely neutral (Eisner, 1985; Miller and Seller, 1985, 1996; Ross, 2000). Transmission and transactional curriculum perspectives were clearly forefronted suggesting that certain goals, ways of shaping the classroom learning environment, teaching practices, and assessment approaches were being privileged, while others were being given less attention or simply being ignored. Transmission and transactional perspectives appeared to be strongly embedded in teachers' goals and practices. Two broad goals were apparent: one, developing a reflection of existing societal patterns (Ross, 2001) through the

transmission of understandings, skills, and values that would assist students fit into and be contributing members of their respective communities; and two, helping students to develop fully, both as individuals and as social beings, to meet the needs of contemporary life as expressed through the curriculum intentions. Likewise, pedagogical practices used to address these two broad curriculum perspectives were apparent. Teachers' preferred practices tended to forefront the acquisition of subject-based knowledge and personal skill development, in particular, the development of thinking and enquiry skills. Teaching practices ranged from mostly teacher-led didactic approaches to those that encouraged dialogue, problem-solving activities, or various forms of enquiry. Assessment practices, in particular, mostly reflected knowledge acquisition and the application of cognitive skill applications (e.g. processes involved in carrying out an investigation, resolving a conflict).

Underscoring these practices were two variant views of learning, one that appeared to view knowledge as largely fixed and another that viewed knowledge as something that is constantly changing and can be manipulated.

Transformative tendencies were less evident in teachers' pedagogical practices than what may have been anticipated from their stated learning goals. Practices, for example, that encouraged students and teachers to be actively engaged in various phases of the learning and/or to construct knowledge through varying forms of dialectic and collaborative enquiry were rarely witnessed across the sample. Practices tended to encourage awareness 'about' the political, cultural, historical, and social aspects of their society and the world with fewer opportunities for students to see themselves as active and responsible participants in it. Evidence of student input and involvement (e.g. classroom rules, choice to issues to investigate, self-assessment) in

various aspects of classroom and school-wide learning was limited, with the exception of a few teachers. Pedagogical practices in the classroom appeared to be largely teacher-directed, and the teacher's role as guide and facilitator, was less common. Teaching activities that encouraged students to critically enquire into various social and political issues and to use their findings to bring about personal and/or social change were indeed rare.

8.3) Factors appearing to relate to teachers' preferred goals and pedagogical practices

Lastly, this section addresses factors that appeared to relate to teachers' preferred goals and pedagogical practices. Arguments arising from a consideration of the factors relating to teachers' preferred learning goals and pedagogical practices suggested that a mixture of factors is at work. Certain combinations of factors appeared to be more evident in relation to particular areas of pedagogical practice (e.g. learning goals, classroom environment, teaching practices, assessment applications) and there were widely variant levels of understanding and emphasis noted. While these findings did not suggest any clear linkages, they did provide an uncertain sense of those factors that do relate to teachers' preferences for particular areas of pedagogical practice when educating for citizenship, adding another level of complexity to our understanding of how teachers characterise citizenship education pedagogy.

8.3.1) A range of factors evident

Findings in this study tended to confirm recent research literature that suggests that teachers' preferred learning goals and pedagogical practices, in general, are informed

and guided by is a variety of overlapping factors, or as what Cole and Knowles (2000: 7) have referred to as, “a variety of ways of personal, professional, and contextual knowing” (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Hallam and Ireson, 1999; Mortimore, 1999; Shulman, 1986, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 2001; Zeichner, 1987).

Teachers across the sample identified a mixture of factors that they believed related to their preferred learning goals and pedagogical practices. Five main factors (in no particular order) were identified: personal understandings of citizenship education; personal background experiences; learner characteristics; views of teaching and learning; and contextual factors. It appeared that these factors tended to operate in a blended manner and in various combinations. Furthermore, it appeared that certain factors were more prominent, depending on the area of pedagogical practice being considered (e.g. classroom learning environment, teaching approaches, assessment).

8.3.2) Some factors more evident

Research literature, as indicated earlier, suggests that certain key factors ought to inform one’s pedagogy. Turner-Bisset (2001: 19), for example, has suggested certain “knowledge bases are essential for the most expert teaching, which demonstrates pedagogical content knowledge in its most comprehensive form”. Certain factors appeared to be more evident in relation to preferred learning goals or areas of pedagogical practice amongst teachers in this study. Data suggested, for example, that a broad array of factors appeared to be linked to teachers’ preferences for particular ‘learning goals’. Personal understandings of citizenship education, learner characteristics and teachers’ views of learning, personal background experiences, and contextual factors were forefronted more so than other factors. Data also revealed that a broad array of factors appeared to be linked to teachers’ preferences for

particular ‘pedagogical practices’. Variations were noted in terms of the relative emphasis put on these factors by individual teachers and in relation to particular areas of pedagogical practice being considered.

More generally, learner characteristics and teachers’ personal views of teaching and learning tended to be forefronted as core factors relating to teachers’ preferences in all areas of pedagogical practice. Such notions as ‘active learning’, ‘enquiry’, ‘practical and authentic applications’, ‘positive reinforcement’, ‘high standards’, ‘student interaction’, and ‘inclusivity’ made up the rather eclectic range of core ideas underpinning teachers’ preferences for particular pedagogical practices. Contextual factors, in particular those related to the school context (e.g. school ethos/culture, status of citizenship education, qualified teachers, curriculum overload, workplace conditions, timetable restrictions), received considerable attention. Personal background experiences (e.g. immigrant background, professional learning experiences) were identified but in very discrete and respondent-specific ways. Interestingly, there was limited reference to understandings of citizenship as a significant factor in determining one’s pedagogical practices, whether it had to do with the classroom learning environment, teaching activities and strategies, or assessment approaches. Understandings of citizenship tended to more strongly related to ‘what’ learning goals teachers’ highlighted rather than the pedagogical practices used to achieve these goals.

8.3.3) Varied emphases and uncertain gaps

Findings did not suggest any clear linkages between teachers’ pedagogical preferences and related factors. Rather data appeared to provide a rather uncertain

sense of the core factors that were present. Further, it was evident that there was considerable variation amongst the respondents in terms of their understandings of, and the relative emphasis placed on these factors. Differing combinations of factors, reflecting varying emphases, were evident across the sample and between Canadian and English teachers. In one example, there was an emphasis on notions of ‘active engagement’ and ‘multiple intelligences’ among the Canadian respondents whereas in the English sample, there appeared to be an emphasis on ‘active learning’ and ‘approaches that accommodated a range of learning preferences’. In another example, Canadian teachers tended to highlight cultural background and diversity characteristics of the learner whereas teachers in the English sample tended to identify learner characteristics such as prior knowledge, learning styles, and developmental stage of their pupils.

It was apparent from the questionnaire and interview data that a mixture of factors was at work and that only some of the factors referred to in Turner-Bisset’s (2001) ‘Pedagogical Content Knowledge’ framework were present. Such factors as general pedagogical knowledge, cognitive knowledge about learners, and educational contexts were evident. Knowledge bases such as substantive or syntactic subject knowledge, models of teaching, or empirical knowledge of learners were less evident in the data gathered. Determining any direct relationship between these factors and teachers’ preferred goals and practices was not possible.

8.4) Further comments

The chapter has argued that, in general, teachers adopt a broad range of goals within which knowledge acquisition and thinking skills tend to be prominent. They do,

within these broad goals, pay some attention to beliefs, values, notions of social justice and civic involvement but these are normally seen as less significant in teachers' pedagogical practices. Further, it was argued that a blend of curriculum perspectives appeared to be interwoven into the array of learning goals and pedagogical practices used by teachers. Most teachers' 'goal sets', for example, tended to integrate transmission, transactional, and transformative tendencies whereas teachers' preferred 'pedagogical practices' appeared to reflect more narrowly defined transmission and transactional tendencies. Transformative tendencies were less evident in practice. Lastly, it was argued that a mixture of core factors appeared to relate to teachers' preferred goals and pedagogical practices. It was also contended that teachers put varied levels of emphasis on particular factors and that certain combinations of factors appeared to be more evident in relation to particular areas of pedagogical practice. Data did not suggest any clear linkages but rather an uncertain sense of the core factors that were present in relation to teachers' pedagogical practices. Nonetheless, it was apparent that if one is to understand pedagogy in its most comprehensive form - one that reflects Mortimore's (1999: 8) notion of "an increasingly integrated conceptualisation which specifies relations between its elements" and is "differentiated by details of context, content, age and stage of learner, purposes, and so on" - one needs to be mindful of the varying and complex personal and contextual factors that inform teachers' pedagogical goals and practices.

CHAPTER 9: MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUDING REFLECTIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This thesis explored specialist secondary school teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in Canada and England. Aspects of pedagogical practice communicated and exhibited by teachers, and overlapping factors that appeared to relate to these practices, were investigated and analysed. The central question that framed the main research study was:

1. In what ways do 'specialist' secondary school teachers characterise 'educating for citizenship' in Canada and England and why?

Subsidiary questions included:

2. What learning goals do 'specialist' secondary school teachers prefer to nurture in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes when educating for citizenship?;

3. What pedagogical practices (with special attention to classroom climate, teaching practices, and assessment) do these teachers communicate and/or exhibit preferring to use in formal secondary school curriculum courses/programmes to achieve these goals?;

4. Why do these teachers advocate these learning goals and pedagogical practices when educating for citizenship (with attention to such factors as: teachers' understandings of citizenship, views of teaching and learning, and contextual forces)?; and

5. What are the potential implications of these characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy in relation to the kinds of learning experiences forefronted, the respective policy contexts, and theoretical curriculum perspectives?

This chapter reviews the main findings, provides an overview of the key conclusions drawn from the data, and briefly discusses recommendations for future research in light of the findings from this study.

The chapter is organised into three sections:

9.1) Main findings

9.1.1) Characterising teachers' learning goals

9.1.2) Characterising teachers' pedagogical practices

9.1.2.1) Shaping the classroom learning environment

9.1.2.2) Characterising teachers' teaching practices

9.1.2.3) Characterising teachers' assessment practices

9.1.3) Personal orientations and curriculum perspectives

9.1.4) Factors relating to teachers pedagogy

9.2) Concluding reflections

9.2.1) Learning goals: Breadth or ambiguity?

9.2.2) Pedagogical practice: Towards sophistication?

9.2.3) Learning goals, pedagogical practices, and the issue of congruency

9.2.4) Teachers' personal orientations: Another lens

9.2.5) Related factors matter

9.2.6) Researching pedagogy: challenges and opportunities

9.3) Recommendations for future research

9.1) Main findings

Findings provided throughout Chapters 4 to 8 illuminated ways in which specialist secondary school teachers characterise 'educating for citizenship' in Canada and England. In each of these chapters, characterisations of specific aspects (e.g. learning

goals, the classroom learning environment, teaching practices, and assessment approaches) of teachers' pedagogical practice across the sample and between national groupings were explored and analysed. Characterisations of personal orientations to pedagogy, within the context of curriculum perspectives, were also investigated and discussed. Lastly, general factors (e.g. teachers' understandings of citizenship, views of learning, contextual forces) related to teachers' preferences for particular learning goals and pedagogical practices were considered.

Below is a 'snapshot' of the main findings, grouped according to their relevance to the central themes under investigation in the study. It should be reiterated that these findings are based on multiple perspectives of a sample of secondary specialist teachers from Canada and England, purposely selected on the basis of their perceived ability to provide the most relevant data, given the specific purposes of the study.

Each had been nominated and had demonstrated, as a minimum:

- a good working knowledge of secondary school curriculum and citizenship education curriculum in their respective teaching locations;
- evidence of substantive and effective teaching experience;
- varied views about the purposes and practices of citizenship education; and
- evidence of ongoing professional development and curriculum leadership.

There was no pretence to represent the wider population, nor was the intent to generalise the findings beyond the sample in question. Rather, evidence was collected and analysed in hopes of contributing to: one, an emerging body of empirical evidence about teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogy; two, a more sophisticated academic understanding of pedagogical practice in the field of citizenship education and connections to curriculum contexts and perspectives; and

three, a basis upon which to further theorise about those factors that appear to relate to teachers' characterisations of citizenship education pedagogical practice.

9.1.1) Characterising teachers' learning goals

- Teachers articulated a broad variety of preferred learning goals for citizenship education, reflecting a blend of certain liberal/civic republican tendencies similar to those represented in many contemporary conceptions of citizenship education and in curriculum policy documents in both contexts. Some variations were apparent across the entire sample and between national samples. Preferred learning goals were articulated in four general areas: one, knowledge; two, skills; three, beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and four, participating in civic life. Of these, teachers tended to forefront the goals of knowledge acquisition (e.g. an understanding of core concepts, being informed about issues related to civic life) and skill development (e.g., thinking and enquiry skills, working effectively in group).

- Teachers tended to agree that an emphasis on knowledge acquisition, an understanding of core concepts, and being informed about issues related to civic life were critical but not at the expense of other learning goals. Variations existed in relation to core concepts and/or public issues to be given priority; the time frame (historical and contemporary); contextual emphases (from the local to the global); and issues of depth and/or breadth. There was substantive variance in the ways teachers talked about these concepts. Concepts were often described in minimalist terms with little attention to more sophisticated understandings. Respondents in the English group, for example, tended to put a slightly stronger emphasis on one's duties and legal responsibilities rather than rights. Teachers also viewed skill

development as a central goal. Thinking and enquiry skills and working effectively in group situations were overall goals. There was less emphasis on skill sets often associated with civic literacy (e.g. negotiating and mediating conflict). Variations existed in relation to skills to be given priority and purposes to be emphasised (e.g. academic understanding, social critique). English teachers, for example, appeared to encourage a depth of understanding of critical thinking skills whereas Canadian teachers tended to talk about a breadth of skills.

- Most teachers expressed support for the goal of exploring diverse beliefs and values underpinning civic decisions and actions, and for introducing notions of social justice. Variations existed in relation to the 'values' focus (e.g. value dilemmas or diverse cultural values), notions of justice (e.g. moral or legal), and perspectives of the 'good' citizen. Canadian teachers, for example, tended to emphasise a focus on beliefs and values related to their country's diverse culture milieu whereas English teachers tended to direct more attention to other forms of diversity (e.g. social class). Teachers viewed participating in civic life as an important learning goal. Teachers tended to see the classroom and school as principal sites for practising participation, although participating in civic life beyond the classroom was encouraged. Variations were apparent in relation to the types of issues addressed (e.g. local through to the global); the nature and extent of involvement (e.g. service, political action); and purposes (learning about change through service, bringing about change through action). Canadian respondents, like their English counterpart, tended to put a stronger emphasis on learning about participation through service learning. There were, however, a small number of Canadian respondents who tended to advocate a more activist intent. 'Voting', as a form of political involvement, received little attention.

9.1.2) Characterising teachers' pedagogical practices

Whereas preferred learning goals were stated more broadly across the four dimensions of learning (knowledge; skills; beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and participating in civic life), pedagogical practices were more narrowly focused both in practice and in the rhetoric of teachers. Practices that attended to beliefs, values, notions of social justice and civic involvement were normally less evident.

9.1.2.1) Shaping the classroom learning environment

- A high proportion of teachers across the sample indicated that they used a range of practices to shape the classroom learning environment in ways that facilitated learning and, to a lesser extent, modelled democratic understandings. Creating a classroom environment that nurtured democratic citizenship was not, however, considered to be a primary goal. Preferred practices tended to take on the following forms: one, nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom; two, using classroom space to facilitate a sense of citizenship learning; three, resource support and availability; and four, teacher modelling democratic practices. Again, variation was apparent across the entire sample and between national samples.

- About one third of the Canadian respondents and about one half of the English teachers indicated nurturing conditions for student involvement and inclusion in the classroom. Activities included student input into classroom decisions and rules and

expectations, seating plans that encouraged more open discussion, voting on certain issues, student choice on projects, and encouraging pupil voice through student school councils. English teachers, for example, discussed the classroom as a context to encourage multiple perspectives on different historical themes and issues and stressed the importance of teacher direction and authority. Canadian teachers, in contrast, tended to discuss opportunities for student input into such things as classroom rules and expectations.

- Approximately two-thirds of the teachers across the sample talked about how they used classroom space to nurture a sense of citizenship learning. Data revealed a range of ways teachers shaped classroom space to nurture learning. Comments from Canadian respondents ranged from using walls and ceilings to display students' work, to highlighting current issues from magazines and daily newspapers on bulleting boards, to organising desks in particular ways to facilitate discussion. English teachers discussed the use of classroom space to a lesser extent. Visits to their classrooms, however, revealed more attention to this practice than one might have anticipated from the questionnaire data.

- Teachers across the sample identified and used newspapers, textbooks, and videos as their main classroom resources. Community resources (e.g. political parties pamphlets, newscasts, NGO literature, guest speakers) were identified as important sources of information by a small number of teachers. There was little mention of the use of ICT or CD ROMS. Very few discussed the use of 'non mainstream' resource support. Only a few teachers across the sample indicated modelling democratic behaviours.

9.1.2.2) Characterising teachers' teaching practices

- Teachers made use of an array of practices that ranged from specific and discrete activities to reasonably complex interactive and performance-based strategies when educating for citizenship. Specifically focused activities (e.g. such as case study analysis of Charter cases, current events issue analysis, locating information about an NGO on internet) were used to achieve more focused learning goals. Both Canadian and English teachers talked about the use and value of infusing rather complex interactive performance strategies (e.g. municipal model government, a videotaped citizenship mock court, an election simulation) for the purpose of achieving multiple learning goals. Practices revealed variations across the sample, between national samples, and within teachers' personal preferences for particular practices.

- All teachers emphasised teaching practices that aimed at increasing student knowledge. Both groups outlined teacher-directed activities used to encourage content acquisition, conceptual understanding, and current events. Content tended to focus on such themes as rights, responsibilities, democratic processes, forms of political participation, and current events. There was much less attention to themes (e.g. parliamentary processes, structures of government, constitutional matters) often found in traditional Civics courses. A range of discrete and performance based practices to achieve these goals was evident. The majority of teachers, however, wrote about having students read "engaging" excerpts from newspapers or view TV news for "pertinent content". Many also referred to teacher-led class "chalk and talk" discussions. A few teachers discussed approaches that were more student-directed.

There was also a general sense across the sample that a good deal of knowledge was also acquired implicitly through performance-based teaching strategies.

- All teachers across the sample emphasised teaching practices that encouraged students to think critically and/or to enquire into various about aspects of civic life. Again, rather discrete and particularistic activities were identified to develop specific skills, or combinations of skills, respectively. There was also a notable interest amongst the respondents across the sample to explore current events and contemporary public issues as a basis for developing discrete thinking skills. Discrete teaching activities used to develop collaborative skills were mentioned across the sample, but to a lesser extent. Teachers also acknowledged using more complex strategies such as enquiry-based research assignments or issue-based investigations to support not only the development of foundational knowledge but also the development of skills related to analysis and enquiry. In some instances, teachers' rhetoric appeared to be more ambitious than what was observed in reality.

- Less than half of the teachers from either Canada or England talked about practices used to learn about beliefs, values, and notions of social justice. Teachers who did provide examples of practices in this area highlighted practices that they used to explore personal beliefs and values underpinning civic issues. Moral dilemmas, sample scenarios, cooperative learning structures, circle activity, and case studies reflected the eclectic range of practices used. Religious Education teachers, in the English sample, for example, discussed practices in this dimension much more than other teachers across the entire sample. Teaching practices identified amongst the Canadian respondents tended to infuse a considerable emphasis on cultural diversity.

- Most teachers reported using both discrete activities and intricate strategies to nurture civic participation. Approaches varied in terms of teacher direction and the content (from the historical to the current) and the context foci (from the local to the global). Most teachers appeared to use learning activities and strategies in the classroom to encourage a deepened understanding of civic involvement and to nurture the requisite skills required for that involvement (e.g. investigations into and the analysis of individual and citizen group participation cases). About half of the teachers talked about activities used ‘outside the classroom’ to encourage an understanding of participation. In slight contrast to the Canadian respondents, teachers from England tended to indicate a preference for community volunteerism and charity work. There was little evidence of school-wide and/or community-based involvement observed in practice.

- Canadian respondents’ citizenship education pedagogical practices appeared largely in the context of the compulsory grade 10 Civics course or through their infusion in other parts of the History or Social Science curriculum. English respondents tended to talk about educating for citizenship practices broadly through various subject areas and grade levels, but it was mostly observed in Key Stage 3 History, Religious Education, and PSHE courses.

9.1.2.3) Characterising teachers’ assessment practices

- Teachers exhibited a preference for two main types of assessment: one, paper-and-pencil short answer/essay answer types; and two, performance-based types. All respondents identified paper-and-pencil short answer and essay answer types of

assessment as the most frequently used types of assessment. It tended to be perceived that these types of assessment suited the two central learning goals introduced earlier (e.g. the acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills). Analysis of the actual assessment practices used revealed primary attention to knowledge and skills strands of learning, with much less attention to the beliefs, values, and notions of social justice and participation strands.

- A number of teachers across the sample indicated a preference for, but limited use of, performance-based types of assessment to assess certain learning tasks (e.g. municipal model government, a videotaped citizenship mock court, or preparing a radio show on local issues), suggesting a growing attention to the more interactive and participatory learning goals. Other types of assessment (e.g. self and peer assessment, student portfolios) which more directly involved students in the process of assessment were recognised but to a limited extent. Preference for these types of assessment rested largely on a perceived congruence with the broader learning goals connected with citizenship education and the flexibility they provided to show evidence of ongoing learning and self-reflection. Teachers' use of assessment practices tended to occur within the context of their own classrooms and specific courses taught (e.g. Civics, History, PHSE, Politics). Their focus tended to reflect context-specific curriculum policy requirements.

9.1.3) Personal orientations and curriculum perspectives

- A blend of curriculum perspectives (e.g. transmission, transactional, transformational) appeared to be interwoven into the array of learning goals, ways of shaping the classroom learning environment, teaching practices, and approaches to

assessment used by teachers. Teachers revealed eclectic and distinctive personal 'orientations'.

- Teachers' 'goal sets' tended to integrate transmission, transactional, and to a lesser extent, transformative tendencies. While a multifaceted set of goals was clearly evident, dominant tendencies were discernable as were disjunctions across the curriculum perspectives. Teachers' personal 'goal sets' appeared to blend transmission, transactional, and transformational curriculum perspectives in both eclectic and distinctive ways. Most respondents, across the sample, appeared to convey a blended transmission/transactional orientation while a fewer number of teachers across the sample appeared to express a blended transactional/transformative orientation.

- Ways in which teachers shaped the 'classroom learning environment' were less discernable. Teachers' personal practices appeared to blend aspects of the various curriculum perspectives in rather disconnected ways. Teachers' practices appeared to be rather modest and underdeveloped in contrast with other areas of pedagogy (e.g. teaching practices, assessment practices) explored in this study. A blend of transmission and transactional tendencies was apparent but not consistently so. Furthermore, it was evident that teachers' practices in this area reflected a general sense of ambiguity and communicated mixed messages.

- Teachers' preferred 'teaching practices' appeared to reflect more strongly defined transmission and transactional tendencies. There was a strong emphasis on teaching practices (e.g. mini-lectures, reading or viewing for content, copying notes, practice

and drill/skill activities) that aimed at transmitting relevant information and skills and they were largely located within particular subject-based disciplines. Teaching practices associated with skill development (e.g. independent and group research projects, case studies, moral dilemmas) were apparent. Practices used to encourage broader learning goals associated with understandings of identity and diversity, civic involvement, and social critique and improvement, in particular, were less evident than suggested in teachers' stated 'goals sets'. Data suggested that transmission, transactional, and transformative elements were evident in teachers' personal orientations to teaching practice. It was apparent, however, that the majority of respondents' personal orientations appeared to blend transmission and transactional tendencies. Teaching practices that aimed at transmitting relevant information and skills and at developing problem-solving, decision-making, and/or enquiry skills were well represented. It should be noted that some teachers' rhetoric tended to be more ambitious than what was observed in their classroom practices.

- While a blending of transmission and transactional curriculum perspectives was evident in relation to assessment practices, it was apparent that most teachers' assessment practices suggested even stronger tendencies towards a further deepening of the transmission perspective. In a few cases, some transformative tendencies were noticeable.

9.1.4) Factors relating to teachers' pedagogy

- A diversity of core factors appeared to relate to a teachers' citizenship education pedagogy and these factors tended to vary among teachers. Some factors were more

dominant overall while others appeared to be more prevalent with certain areas of pedagogical practice.

- Teachers' preferred 'learning goals' and 'goal sets' appeared to relate to a mixture of factors across the sample. Four main factors (in no particular order) appeared to be highlighted: personal understandings of citizenship education, learner characteristics and teachers' personal views of learning, personal background experiences, and contextual factors (e.g. official curricula). These factors, however, appeared to receive more or less attention, depending on the specific teacher responding.

- A mixture of factors appeared to relate to teachers' preferred practices for 'shaping the classroom learning environment'. Teachers' personal views of learning, learner characteristics, and understandings of citizenship were factors identified most often across the sample, while other factors received less attention.

- Teachers' preference for certain 'teaching practices' appeared to be related to a few core factors. Learner characteristics and views of teaching and learning appear to be cited most often, as factors relating to preferred teaching practices. This was a slight shift from factors that appeared to relate to respondents preferences for learning goals and other types of pedagogical practices. Other factors cited (in no particular order) included personal background experiences, contextual factors, and to a lesser extent, views of citizenship. Learner characteristics, for example, were considered in different ways. Canadian teachers tended to highlight cultural background and diversity characteristics. Teachers in the English sample tended to identify characteristics such as prior

knowledge, learning styles, and developmental stage of their pupils more.

Personal understandings about citizenship education tended to be more strongly related to preferred learning goals rather than teaching practices used to achieve these goals.

- Teachers' personal views of learning, learner characteristics, and contextual factors (in particular, statutory curriculum guidelines) appeared to be the most prevalent factors relating to teachers' preferred 'assessment practices' while other factors received less attention. All respondents agreed that contextual factors informed their preference for particular assessment targets and practices. A variety of contextual factors were identified. There was little reference to understandings of citizenship as a significant factor in determining one's choice of assessment practices.

9.2) Concluding reflections

This section offers six broad propositions in the form of concluding reflections as a way of illuminating empirically an understanding of citizenship education pedagogy as expressed through this sample of teachers. By framing these propositions in this way I am deliberately avoiding simplistic assertions that could not be substantiated by evidence. I am responding directly from my evidence to reflect on what seems to be a range of significant matters.

9.2.1) Learning goals: Breadth or ambiguity?

Teachers' characterisations of 'learning goals' appeared to capture the breadth of intent and spirit of those goals represented in pluralist, democratic, and liberal/civic republican conceptions of citizenship education. Attention to four broad dimensions

of learning: knowledge; skill development (in particular, the cognitive); the exploration of beliefs, values, and notions of social justice; and participating in civic life were apparent, reflecting also, attention to the core learning goal strands of their respective policy documents. Variation existed in terms of which goals were given priority, what contexts were forefronted, and/or how much depth was provided, suggesting a level of ambiguity and raising questions about what types of learning might be experienced and what types might be silenced or ignored. Goals for citizenship education, it appears, are interpreted by teachers in ways that may be construed to mean pretty much whatever one would like them to, potentially causing misunderstanding or significant omissions depending on the particular interpretation adopted. Participating in civic life, for example, widely asserted by academics (and, to a lesser extent, by some teachers) and clearly expressed in policy documents to be a core dimension of citizenship education, is largely neglected in practice. The breadth of understanding revealed in the comments made by teachers did not seem to lead them to question the specific omissions (or more limited characterisations) in their practice. Teachers' expansive assertion of learning goals compared with their practices was not seen as being problematic.

9.2.2) Pedagogical practice: Towards sophistication?

Teachers characterised citizenship education pedagogy in a variety of ways reflecting varying levels of sophistication. Teachers, for example, communicated and exhibited an array of teaching practices that ranged from specific and discrete activities to reasonably intricate interactive and performance-based strategies. They demonstrated the use of paper-and-pencil short answer and essay answer types of assessment, and to a lesser extent, performance-based types of assessment, as the preferred

assessment approaches. Different practices used to shape aspects of the classroom learning environment, to facilitate student learning, and in some cases, to infuse certain democratic principles, were also in evidence. While there was a tendency to use teacher-directed practices that emphasised knowledge acquisition and skill development, there was also evidence of the use of more intricate classroom-based teaching strategies, like enquiry-based research assignments and issue-based investigations, to support not only the development of foundational knowledge but also the broader learning goals associated with citizenship education. Interestingly, not one teacher used a formal conceptual framework to characterise his or her practices. Possible frameworks, introduced earlier (Hill 2002; Joyce and Weil, 2000; Marzano, 1992; Rolheiser and Bennett, 2001), did not appear to be part of these teachers' pedagogical repertoire. While it would be probably unrealistic to expect teachers to refer directly to these frameworks it does suggest a certain gap that may not be helpful between what could broadly be referred to as theorists or academics and practitioners. No blame is suggested for any particular group in making this comment but it does perhaps encourage the various educational communities to consider the implications of such a gap. Variation in practice revealed certain issues. Differing practices emphasised amongst teachers tended to suggest that important strands of citizenship education are being underplayed or avoided. This variation also tended to support Bruner's (1982) long-standing claim about the absence of a general theory of pedagogy and the need for more guidance in this area.

9.2.3) Learning goals, pedagogical practices, and the issue of congruency

Evidence was provided throughout the study about incongruities between what might be termed 'rhetoric' (what teachers say) and 'reality' (what teachers do) in terms of

the data collected and analysed. This general issue can be given more specificity in relation to two key areas of teachers' practice. Firstly, teachers communicated less about those 'practices' in which 'beliefs, values, and notions of social justice' and 'participating in civic life' are emphasised. Secondly, teachers' assessment practices tended to forefront knowledge and a limited range of skills. In both examples, the incongruities between stated goals and preferred practices may be problematic. On the one hand, it may mean that the breadth of learning goals may be so broad that teachers simply make choices to 'cover' certain elements of the curriculum in ways that are workable for the day-to-day classroom realities. On the other hand, it may suggest the need for more attention to developing and practicing pedagogical practices that effectively address the increasing complex contemporary characterisations of citizenship education. This need becomes even more apparent when one considers assessment methods and ways in which the classroom learning environment is constructed.

9.2.4) Teachers' personal orientations: Another lens

Considering teachers' personal orientations to pedagogy through the lens of curriculum perspectives provides further insights into the ways in which teachers think about and integrate their pedagogical practices. Teachers' personal orientations tended to reveal both eclectic and distinctive tendencies that cut across various curricular theoretical perspectives (e.g. transmission, transactional, and transformational). Interestingly, two distinctive and overlapping orientations tended to be emphasised, albeit with some disjunctions from this dominant tendency: one, a blended transmission/transactional orientation; and two (to a much lesser extent), a blended transactional/transformational orientation. A case has been made that these

distinctive orientations reveal varying levels of support for certain curricular purposes and policy contexts, but that this support tended to diminish as purposes were translated into practice, reducing the possibility of certain goals being addressed. It is important to keep in mind that these curriculum perspectives are not mutually exclusive and teachers do not fall neatly into one category or the other. Teachers blend elements from differing perspectives in varied ways into their preferred goals and practices. It should also be kept in mind, however, that the ways in which teachers blend these elements provide valuable insights into what teachers believe has meaning and provide an helpful theoretical context for understanding their pedagogical practices.

9.2.5) Related factors matter

A variety of factors appeared to relate to teachers' stated goals and practices and if one is to understand pedagogy in its most comprehensive form, one needs to be mindful of the varying and complex factors that appear to relate to one's pedagogy. The complexity associated with such understanding is perhaps not surprising given different aspects of teachers' work. Two aspects of teachers' work might be considered here. Firstly, teachers work in institutions where the stated goals and ethos may conflict with the expected goals and practices. There seems to be a wide gap between the goals for democratic citizenship expressed in the curriculum and the realities presented in schools. Schools, organisationally, have tended to reinforce norms of hierarchical control, and in doing so, have undermined the impact of certain types of curricular reform. This is not to suggest that this study has uncovered this particular contradiction but a conclusion can be made that teachers seem to be acting in complex ways and that this complexity could be explained at least in part by the

tensions they have to deal with each day. Secondly, there is potential for additional setbacks when attention to teachers' needs are not adequately considered. Simply, teachers are overworked and subject to pressures of rapid change and rigid accountability. Teachers, as Watkins (1996) has reminded us, face an increasingly steep learning curve as significant changes (e.g. technological, cultural) in the contemporary world take place. Teachers already find themselves overloaded and without adequate support, and it is difficult to anticipate much serious engagement in curriculum and instructional reform of this type. Adequate preparation and resource support are necessary to sustain an initiative of this type. In Ontario in recent years, there has tended to be 'high pressure' but 'low support' for teachers' professional learning (Fullan and Leithwood 2003). Kerr (2000:7) indicated a similar concern in his multi-country study, "a number of countries commented on the inadequacy of the preparation of teachers to handle citizenship education in the school curriculum.

Edwards and Fogelman (2000: 101) suggest:

if citizenship education entails sometimes riskier, approaches and more readiness to tackle controversial issues, then this may not be helped by the increasing emphasis on accountability. There is a clear danger that, faced with rigorous inspection, teachers may play it safe and be reluctant to take such risks and unfamiliar methodologies.

9.2.6) Researching pedagogy: challenges and opportunities

Anderson (2002: 22) wrote that the study of pedagogy can be "empirically elusive". Turner-Bisset (2001: 1) suggested that the study of pedagogy presents a "paradigm problem". Others have referred to other challenges (Cole and Knowles, 2000; Hallam and Ireson, 1999). Mindful of these challenges, I chose a qualitative orientation with a comparative dimension because it appeared best suited to address the primary intent of the study. Not surprisingly, I faced a number of challenges. Attention to the issue

of validity was a significant challenge from the outset. Collecting data in the 'natural' setting of the classroom in two national contexts, attempts to methodologically triangulate data collection and analysis, and taking care to invite feedback from the participants to get a sense of whether or not interpretations being offered, appeared to be accurate, were a few of the persisting challenges. Attempting to construct an analytical framework that connected a range of pedagogies in a way that would respect their intricacies and diverse knowledge bases and would be valued by both researchers and practitioners, was a challenge, the 'paradigm problem' notwithstanding. On the other hand, there were important opportunities. The qualitative nature of the study provided me with the opportunity to gather thick and rich descriptions of teachers' perspectives and pedagogical practices that were 'up-close' and 'grounded' in the real world of lived experience rather than from contrived contexts. Hopefully some of these findings will be able to address some of the empirical gaps in our tacit understanding of teachers' understandings of citizenship education pedagogy that have been lacking in the scholarly literature (Alexander, 1999; Fogelman and Edwards, 2000; Davies, 2003; Kerr, 2000, 2003; Sears, Clark, and Hughes, 1999). My concluding reflections in this section therefore are not anything very specific that would suggest that a way forward has been discovered but rather that attention needs to be paid to the processes of research in connections with the complexities of pedagogy in order to make further developments possible in the future.

9.3) Recommendations for future research

This research study cannot lead to specific and explicit suggestions for action. The sample was not chosen to be reflective of the population as a whole and the issues are

too complex for a simple and straightforward declaration. However, on the basis of work undertaken, I would like to make some suggestions in the form of questions regarding further research directions.

- There needs to be a more comprehensive look at pedagogical practices (e.g. classroom learning environment, teaching practices, and assessment) that incorporate and integrate current thinking about learning, curriculum, assessment, and other critical knowledge bases. It seems to me that there is a need to look more carefully at the connections between 'deepened technical competence' and 'theoretical sophistication' in relation to citizenship education pedagogy both in research and in practice. Two ideas are suggested here. Firstly, my sample of teachers allowed for investigation into what I termed a 'specialist' sample. To what extent do other teachers follow the patterns that I have revealed? For example, a closer consideration and analysis of how teachers' distinctive – and multiple – identities (e.g. class, ethno-cultural background, gender) shape their pedagogical goals and practices may be helpful in uncovering and deepening our understanding those factors that relate to one's citizenship education pedagogy. Secondly, are there ways in which the pedagogical practices of teachers interrelate in specific ways? Is it possible to take this research further and develop a more precisely stated set of configurations, that would give not mechanistic 'types' but instead more flexible, dynamic notions of what it means to teach citizenship in different ways for different purposes?

- Perhaps there needs to be increased attention to those pedagogical practices that are congruous with the goals of democratic citizenship education that are currently being neglected or set aside. Pedagogical practices that address such areas as beliefs and

values underpinning civic action and decisions, notions of social justice, and participation in aspects of civic life (both 'in' and 'beyond' the classroom) need to be explored and documented more fully. This exploration needs to focus on what young learners know and how they learn (i.e. what they know and what they are able to do) and be informed by current thinking from critical knowledge bases. What do these practices really mean within the context of citizenship education? Why are they ignored, and would policy makers be genuinely concerned that their stated intentions are not being carried through?

- Particular attention to assessment, in relation to the broader learning goals associated with contemporary characterisations of citizenship education, is needed. Assessment is a complex area in which teachers say they are working with uncertainty and in ways that reveal that assessment practices are limited mostly to traditional approaches. In what ways might teachers and researchers work together to investigate and perhaps field test assessment practices and ways of shaping the classroom environment that align more closely with the ideas about citizenship and citizenship education?

- Teachers in my sample have shown that they are under various pressures from rapidly changing circumstances. Appropriate approaches to professional learning are needed that are based on growing understandings about student learning in relation to citizenship education. We need to learn more about how teachers make transitions from transmission-oriented approaches to those approaches that foster inquiry, critical thinking, and collaboration, and that are sensitive to democratic and pluralist contexts. To this end, there needs to be increased support for effective professional

communities and networks that cultivate both practitioner learning and reform in relation to citizenship education.

- I would like to know more about the impact of school context and school leadership on the development of pedagogy for citizenship education. There seems to be a wide gap between the goals and practices for democratic citizenship expressed in the curriculum and the realities presented in schools. Schools have tended to reinforce norms of hierarchical control, and in doing so, have undermined the impact of certain types of curricular reform. The teachers in my sample have said significant things about context. Research is needed that explores and documents how schools are reshaping citizenship education learning opportunities and how such reforms are benefiting student learning. What types of school-based leadership approaches might support learning goals associated with citizenship education? What sorts of goals can be set and what types of provision are needed in order to achieve success?
- There may be a need to pay attention to appropriate 'curricular guidance'. We can all work with broad guidelines and use our best intentions to provide clear meanings, workable expectations, etc. But is this enough? Findings from this study might suggest otherwise. What does this mean for the teacher who is charged with interpreting, implementing, and assessing official curricula? Policy development and evaluation work that examines how policies might support the pedagogical innovation and implementation in citizenship education perhaps would be helpful.
- Persisting concerns about the 'elusiveness' of pedagogy and references to the 'paradigm problem' suggest the need for more theoretical work to be done that might

integrate teachers' and academics' understandings of pedagogical practice and those factors and knowledge bases that may be influential in the development of teachers' understandings about citizenship and citizenship education. Perhaps more explicit connections to curricular perspectives could provide a useful lens to help inform and analyse pedagogical practices linked to citizenship education?

Appendix 1

March 22, 2001

Educating for citizenship: teachers' pedagogical practices study

Dear (Participant),

I would like to invite you to be involved in a research study entitled **Educating for citizenship: teachers' pedagogical practices study**. The purpose of this study is to investigate more deeply the connections that secondary school teachers' make between their understandings of citizenship and the teaching and learning practices that they use to educate for citizenship in England and Canada.

Your input would be invaluable and greatly appreciated!

The attached questionnaire should take about 40 minutes to complete. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may choose to answer only those questions with which you are comfortable. Upon completion of this form, I am requesting that you to return it to me in the envelope provided, by the April break, Friday 6 April 2001. Your questionnaire responses will remain confidential. I will be the only person to have access to the questionnaire responses and they will be stored in locked cabinets in my office during the data analysis phase. The responses will be destroyed as soon as the data has been coded and put into a computer database.

I am quite excited about this 'international' study and hope that the findings will assist secondary school teachers make better sense of what it means to educate for citizenship, both in England and in Canada. As I mentioned earlier, your input is invaluable and would be greatly appreciated! I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope in anticipation of your response. Please note that a summary of the findings will be sent to you, upon request, once the study is complete. Again, many thanks for your further assistance with this study.

Sincerely,

Mark Evans
Sr. Lecturer, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto
Department of Educational Studies, University of York
Heslington, York, YO10 5DD

Appendix 2

April 29, 2001

Dear [Name],

Hi, it is Mark Evans here again. I hope you have enjoyed a restful midterm break! I am in the process of completing the collection of questionnaires “**Educating for citizenship: teachers’ pedagogical practices study**” that were sent out a few weeks ago. If you have not forwarded me your completed response, it would be greatly appreciated if you could do so sometime in the next week. If you have already forwarded it, please disregard this note. If you have misplaced the questionnaire and would like me to send you another one, please contact me by email (dme100@york.ac.uk) or telephone (01904-430000 Ext.3443). I am extremely appreciative of your input and the that time you are contributing given your very busy schedules.

Thanks again,

Mark Evans

Mark Evans

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Appendix 3

Educating for citizenship: teachers' pedagogical practices study

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Please provide as much detail as you can.

Use the reverse side of the paper if more room is required for your responses.

Thank-you , Mark Evans

A. Background information

1. Age (please circle): (i) up to 34 (ii) 35-44 (iii) 45-54 (iv) 55-64

2. Gender (please circle): (i) Female (ii) Male

3. Teaching location (please circle): (i) Canada (ii) England

4. Highest degree attained, major subject(s) focus:

5. Teaching degree/certification, major subject(s) focus:

6. Teaching and school-based experiences:

Number of years teaching secondary school:

Major subject area(s) taught:

Age levels taught:

Current job title:

A recent curriculum initiative/project that you have been involved in at the school, regional, or national level:

7. How, and approximately when, did you first hear about citizenship education?

8. What were your main reasons for getting involved in citizenship education?

9. What were your primary sources of information about citizenship education (e.g. professional reading, professional groups, colleagues, attendance at workshops/courses, etc.)? Please be specific.

10. What citizenship education projects/initiatives, if any, have you been recently involved with?

B. Educating for citizenship: aims and practices

11. What specific elements of citizenship are of important to you?
(Identify in order of importance to you.)

-
-
-

Why?

12. Do you prefer to emphasise particular learning aims when educating for citizenship? (Identify in order of importance to you.)

-
-
-

Why?

13. Specific elements of citizenship that you emphasise in your teaching tend to:
(Please indicate your top three choices in order of importance, number 1 being the highest, 2, 3)

- ___ (i) encourage the acquisition of knowledge and understandings related to citizenship
- ___ (ii) encourage the development of skills and aptitudes related to citizenship
- ___ (iii) encourage the exploration of values and dispositions related to citizenship
- ___ (iv) encourage a relatively equal integration of knowledge, skills, and values related to citizenship
- ___ (v) other (please identify): _____

14. For the three elements identified in question 11., indicate teaching and learning practices that you use to nurture each of these elements of citizenship? (For each example, briefly identify: the element(s) of citizenship taught, the teaching and learning approach used, and the course in which it is situated.)

Element of citizenship	Teaching and learning practices	Course/programme
Element 1:		
Element 2:		
Element 3:		

15. Why do you use these types particular types of teaching and learning practices?

-
-
-

16.a. Identify and rank order the top three information sources (number 1 being the highest, 2, 3) that you have found to be most effective when educating for citizenship.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| ___ (i) textbooks | ___ (ii) newspapers |
| ___ (iii) magazine/journal articles | ___ (iv) CD ROMs |
| ___ (v) videos/film | ___ (vi) guest speakers |
| ___ (vii) ICT (Information Communication Technologies) | |
| ___ (viii) other (please identify): _____ | |

b. Why is your number 1 choice of particular importance to you when educating for citizenship?

17. Below is a list of teaching and learning practices often associated with educating for citizenship.

a. Circle the ones that you have used; and

b. Rank order the top three teaching and learning practices (number 1 being the highest, 2, 3) that you have found to be most effective when educating for citizenship.

- ___ (i) document analysis (e.g. cartoon analysis, excerpts from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights)
- ___ (ii) independent student research projects and presentations (e.g. viewpoints on a current issue)
- ___ (iii) debate (e.g. issues facing student or local town councils)
- ___ (iv) role-playing (e.g. conversation among public officials trying to decide a reasonable course of action regarding a particular public issue)
- ___ (v) teacher-led discussion (e.g. on core concepts like rights and responsibilities)
- ___ (vi) small group research investigations and presentations (e.g. viewpoints on a current issue)
- ___ (vii) guest speakers (e.g. representatives from different political parties)
- ___ (viii) simulation (e.g. mock town council)
- ___ (ix) public issue analysis (e.g. analysing a current public issue)
- ___ (x) position papers (e.g. personal stand on a particular public theme, event, or issue)
- ___ (xi) moral dilemmas (e.g. making connections between personal values and particular policies, like animal rights)
- ___ (xii) student-led discussions (e.g. current news stories related to a civic issues or theme)
- ___ (xiii) public exhibits (e.g. display on children's rights in primary school)
- ___ (xiv) direct action (e.g. letter writing)
- ___ (xv) cooperative group work (e.g. mind map of a concept like democracy)
- ___ (xvi) voluntary community service (e.g. raising money for a charity that helps new immigrants)
- ___ (xvii) research projects (e.g. public opinion survey)
- ___ (xviii) other (please identify): _____

c. Why is your number 1 choice of particular usefulness to you in terms of educating for citizenship?

C. A sample teaching and learning strategy

18.a. Provide a brief description of a favourite teaching and learning strategy that you have found to be effective when educating for citizenship. Provide details about: the main learning aims; the teaching and learning strategy, and; the course/programme in which it was used.

- main learning aims

- the teaching and learning strategy

- course in which it was used

b. Why do you think this teaching and learning strategy is particularly effective for pupils learning about citizenship?

c. Is this example reflective of your personal orientation to teaching and learning when educating for citizenship? Explain.

d. Are there particular principles (or standards) that appear to guide how you educate for citizenship? Explain.

Please note: If possible, please attach worksheets or other pertinent documents that you have used in using this strategy.

19. Below is a list of different types of assessment.

a. Circle the ones that you have used; and

b. Identify and rank the top three (number 1 being the highest, 2, 3) types of assessment that you have found to be most effective when educating for citizenship.

- (i) paper-and-pencil short answer assessments (e.g. multiple choice tests, fill-in-the-blank tests, true-false tests)
- (ii) paper-and-pencil essay answer tests (e.g. paragraphs, short essays)
- (iii) performance observations (e.g. anecdotal, checklists, rating scales, assessment rubrics)
- (iv) reflective journals
- (v) portfolio assessment
- (vi) exams
- (vii) other (please identify): _____

b. Why is your number 1 choice of particular usefulness to you in terms of educating for citizenship?

20. Do you attempt to shape aspects of the classroom climate in ways that model democratic traditions? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?

21.a. Active participation in the civic affairs of one's community is often viewed as a central element of citizenship education. What does 'active participation in the civic affairs of one's community' mean to you?

b. To what extent to you nurture this element of citizenship education in your teaching? Why?

D. Connections

22. Do the following factors influence how you educate for citizenship?

- particular views (or conceptions) of citizenship? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?

- particular views (or theories) of how pupils most effectively learn? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?

- pupil characteristics (e.g. prior knowledge, learning style, cultural background)? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?

- school characteristics (e.g. school ethos, timetable, department characteristics, classroom)? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?

- other contextual influences (e.g. prevailing social, political, economic, and educational trends, official government policies)? If yes, how and why? If not, why not?

- personal background/experiences

23.a. Which of the following factors do you believe **most** influences your choice of '*learning aims*' when educating for citizenship (please rank your choices in order of importance, number 1 being the highest, 2, 3)?

- ___ (i) particular views (or conceptions) of citizenship
- ___ (ii) particular views (or theories) of teaching and learning
- ___ (iii) pupil characteristics (e.g. level of expertise, prior knowledge, learning styles)
- ___ (iv) school characteristics (e.g. school ethos, timetable, department characteristics)
- ___ (v) other contextual influences (e.g. prevailing social trends, official government policies)
- ___ (vi) personal background/experiences
- ___ (vii) other (please identify): _____

b. Why did you select your highest ranked choice (number 1 choice)?

24.a. Which of the following factors do you believe **most** influences your choice of '*teaching and learning practices*' when educating for citizenship (please rank your choices in order of importance, number 1 being the highest, 2, 3)?

- ___ (i) particular views (or conceptions) of citizenship
- ___ (ii) particular views (or theories) of teaching and learning
- ___ (iii) pupil characteristics (e.g. level of expertise, prior knowledge, learning styles)
- ___ (iv) school characteristics (e.g. school ethos, timetable, department characteristics)
- ___ (v) other contextual influences (e.g. prevailing social trends, official government policies)
- ___ (vi) personal background/experiences
- ___ (vii) other (please identify): _____

b. Why did you select your highest ranked choice (number 1 choice)?

If there are any other critical themes or issues - related to teaching and learning practices - that emerge for you when educating for citizenship that you have not had an opportunity to comment on in this

questionnaire, please do so on a separate piece of paper and attach to the questionnaire? Again, I would like to thank you for your time in completing this questionnaire. I would also appreciate receiving any comments that you might have about the design and content of the questionnaire. Please return the questionnaire to me by [Date] in the enclosed envelope.

Appendix 4

Interview preamble

Educating for citizenship: teachers' pedagogical practices study

Interview Protocol

The primary intent of this study is to explore and understand teachers' pedagogical practices as they relate to educating for citizenship in England and Canada. Characterisations of pedagogical practice and interconnections among various elements (e.g. conceptions of citizenship, perspectives on teaching and learning, and contextual factors) that inform teachers' practice will be illuminated.

My interest in pursuing this area of study is connected directly to concerns raised by researchers about the general lack of empirical research on teaching and learning practices associated with citizenship education. This interest was further prompted by the initial findings derived from a recently completed pilot study *Through the eyes of teachers* that I carried out with a small sample of teachers across England and in Ontario, Canada. This pilot study alerted me to the range of characterisations and pedagogical practices that secondary teachers currently associate with education for citizenship. Interest in pursuing this area of study is also reinforced by a growing recognition among education researchers generally that "*what teachers know and do is one of the most important influences on what students learn*" (Darling-Hammond 1998).

It is my belief that this study will have different benefits: one, it will provide a body of empirical evidence about how teachers' characterisations and pedagogical practices; two, it will add to the academic knowledge in the field of social education generally, and citizenship education in particular; and three, it will provide information to better inform policy, curriculum development, and school-based practice about this relatively uncharted area.

The purpose of these interviews will be to explore with you, your thoughts about pedagogical practice as it pertains to citizenship education.

The interview should take about 45 minutes. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may choose to answer only those questions with which you are comfortable. Your questionnaire responses will remain strictly confidential. And upon completion of the interviews you will have an opportunity to review the findings.

Interview 2 with specialist teachers

1. Review of last week.

Brief overview of 5 key findings in last week's interview

Review and rank order primary purposes of citizenship education

2. Review of last observed class.

What were the primary purposes of the lesson in terms of citizenship dimension

What teaching and learning practices did you build into the strategy to achieve these purposes?

Why did you choose to focus on this(ese) aim(s) of citizenship education? and

Why did you choose to teach it this way?

3. What teaching and learning practices do you prefer to use when educating for citizenship?

Which ones, explain, why?

4. Are these teaching and learning practices influenced by a particular view of (or conception of) citizenship?

How? Why?

5. Are these teaching and learning practices influenced by a particular view of teaching and/or learning?

How? Why?

6. Are these teaching and learning practices influenced by the realities of classroom life (e.g. student characteristics, the learning environment, task demands)

How? Why?

7. Are these teaching and learning practices influenced by particular 'contextual' factors beyond the classroom?

How? Why?

8. Which of these factors (e.g. conceptions of citizenship, perspectives on teaching and learning, contextual factors) do you think most influences their choice of teaching and learning practices ?

How? Why?

9. Feedback on the interview?

Appendix 5

Educating for citizenship: classroom practices observation sheet

Observation Protocol

Teacher's name:

Department, school:

Class observed:

Time and date:

Pre-meeting discussion (citizenship focus, nature of infusion):

Lesson Development

Time	Teacher actions	Pupil/student actions	Notes

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Post-meeting comments (e.g. clarification, reflections):

Observation 'look fors'

Observation 'look fors'	Notes
<p>Learning intentions emphasised...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • concepts and knowledge • skills and aptitudes • values and dispositions • other? 	
<p>Learning activities/strategy...</p> <p>Directed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teacher-directed • student-directed • cooperative-group-directed • other <p>Context:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • school-based • community/field-based • other? <p>Activity type:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading • viewing • listening • discussion • writing • performance • reflection • other <p>Activity purpose:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • concept/knowledge acquisition • research skills • critical thinking • values exploration • communication skills • collaborative skills • participatory skills • other <p>Activity format:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teacher lecture • document/cartoon analysis • student presentation • debate • role-playing • simulation • public exhibit • direct action • voluntary community service <p>Underpinning learning strategy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • direct instruction • concept development • enquiry (independent/group) • other 	

<p>Assessment tools and strategies:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • paper-and-pencil short answer tests • paper-and-pencil essay answer tests • performance observation (e.g. checklists, rating scales, rubrics) • portfolio • other 	
<p>Types of resources:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • text • audiovisual • guest speaker • IT • other 	
<p>Classroom learning environment...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • defining qualities? • inclusive? • meaningful? • prerequisites in place? • other? 	
<p>Underpinning lesson organizer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • thematic • enquiry-based • issue-based • other 	
<p>Learner adaptations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • clear and detailed plans • adaptations made • accommodation made for diversity of student interests and abilities 	

Appendix 6

[Date]

Dear [Name],

I just wanted to take a moment to thank you very much for your willingness to meet with me these past months to discuss your views towards teaching and learning in relation to citizenship education as it unfolds in the National Curriculum. Your comments helped me to clarify my understandings about citizenship education in England and some of the issues at work that may influence its further development. I must say that I have been overwhelmed by the degree of support and the high degree of professionalism exhibited in ongoing conversations with teachers like yourself.

I have returned to Canada now where I will continue my research and resume my academic responsibilities. If you ever happen to be in need of information about citizenship education in Canada, don't hesitate to contact me. I will also be in touch with you over the next few months to share with you the profile that I have constructed on our conversations and my observations of your classes. Again, thank you very much and all the very best in your future endeavours.

Sincerely,

Mark Evans
Coordinator, Secondary Preservice Program
Sr. Lecturer, Department of Curriculum, Teaching and
Learning

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