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The Understanding, Perspectives
and Attitudes of Scottish Primary
School Teachers Towards
Education for Citizenship

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Contents

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards particular aspects of education for citizenship - the concept of citizenship, aims of education for citizenship, teaching and learning approaches at whole school and classroom level, their own confidence and competence in developing it. The two methods of research used were questionnaire and interviewing and the key subjects of the study were currently practising primary school teachers in Scotland.

The findings indicate that teachers have varying interpretations of the term 'citizenship.' Varying importance was placed on particular aims of education for citizenship. Most teachers in the study expressed that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum. Education for citizenship was also seen by teachers as either relevant to all subject areas or most subject areas. Most teachers felt confident about contributing to a whole school and classroom approach to education for citizenship. Various reasons were provided for this confidence which included the support from the whole school ethos and whole school activities; personal and teaching experience; in-service training and personal beliefs in citizenship. Participants were able to identify appropriate whole school and classroom activities and approaches that were relevant to the development of citizenship. The majority of the teachers believed that they were very capable of teaching and promoting education for citizenship and claimed that this was a result of the attendance of professional courses; personal interest; teaching experiences; support from staff; participation in working parties and engagement in professional dialogue. Participants also found that particular activities were beneficial and helpful to their professional development in education for citizenship such as in-service days, CPD courses, P.A.T nights and collegiate meetings.

This study makes five key recommendations for possible approaches that could be adopted in Scottish schools to enable teachers to develop their teaching knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Aims of study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards particular aspects of education for citizenship - the concept of citizenship; aims of education for citizenship; teaching and learning approaches at whole school and classroom level; their own confidence and competence in developing it. The key research questions that informed this study were:

1. How do teachers interpret the concept of 'citizenship' as an adult citizen of the U.K?

2. How important do teachers rate the aims of education for citizenship that have been devised by certain curricular documents and literature?

3. To what extent do teachers believe that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum and why?

4. How relevant do teachers regard education for citizenship to the different curricular areas and why?

5. Which general approach of implementing education for citizenship do teachers believe in – permeating citizenship throughout the whole curriculum or applying a specific time allocation to it in the school timetable?

6. To what extent do teachers feel confident in contributing to whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

7. What aspects and activities do teachers regard as whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

8. How competent do teachers feel about their knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and promoting education for citizenship?

9. What aspects and activities do teachers think contribute to their knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship?

10. What knowledge, understanding and skills do teachers feel are needed to increase their competence in implementing education for citizenship?

11. What in-service training and CPD activities do teachers think are valuable and useful for developing professional competence in education for citizenship?

1.1 Rationale for study

In Scotland, education for citizenship has emerged as a significant area of the primary, secondary and early education curriculum, particularly as described by certain educational organisations and curricular publications. The publication of 'Education for Citizenship: A Paper for Discussion and Development by Learning and Teaching Scotland' (2002) has provided a new dimension of education. This document, as does much of the literature on the subject, emphasises the importance of education for citizenship and its contribution to the development of knowledge, skills, values and understanding required to become an informed, active and responsible citizen. Such citizens are needed to shape the future health and welfare of the local, national and global community and environment which makes education for citizenship essential (LTS, 2002).

Furthermore, the new Curriculum for Excellence has provided a more comprehensive basis and structure for education for citizenship in that it aspires to enabling "all children to develop their capacities as successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors to society" (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 3). The attainment of this aim will consequently develop informed, active and responsible citizens as the essence of an effective citizen is an individual who is a successful learner, confident, responsible and an effective contributor to society.

Exploring education for citizenship within the context of the new Curriculum for Excellence is, therefore, of immense professional relevance and significance to the teaching profession. It is particularly important to educational professionals working in nursery, primary and secondary schools such as teachers, principal teachers, depute headteachers and headteachers who are striving to transform their schools into citizenship schools and embedding the Curriculum for Excellence.

According to HMIE (2006b), although schools are placing more importance on pupil involvement in decision making, the practice of citizenship is inconsistent and varying within and across schools. They identified that effective curriculum plans that aim to equip children for involvement in the political, social, economic and cultural aspects of society and contribute to important decisions at school, were uncommon. They also acknowledged that in developing citizenship, schools must promote citizenship associated values through the daily classroom events and school life.

More particular to education for citizenship, HMIE (2006a) examined a portrait of current practice in Scottish schools and found that they had achieved various developing approaches to this curricular area. Their findings can be summarised as six key points as follows:

1) Schools are enabling pupils to participate more in decision making, especially through pupil councils. Consequently, pupils are further developing an understanding of the basis of democracy and their roles as active citizens.

2) In schools that adopt a proactive approach to pupil participation, pupils are involved more to school and community activities. Schools are acknowledging the improvement on pupils' self-confidence and sense of responsibility as a result of participation. Some education authorities have developed this further by involving young people in community planning priorities and the Scottish Youth Parliament.

3) Schools are using a variety of approaches to develop pupils' awareness of

environmental issues. An increasing number of schools are registering as Eco-schools. This stronger emphasis on environmental issues means that many schools are making positive changes to their local environment. Many children have greatly participated in regeneration and conservation projects. The inclusion of parents and other local community members in such activities enhances pupils' awareness of the significant role that citizens play within the community.

4) The Scottish Executive's 'Determined to Succeed' initiative is promoting the provision of enterprise in schools and to develop creative thinking in children. Numerous schools are using charity fund-raising activities to develop children's enterprise skills. Many schools are forming partnerships with local businesses to encourage enterprise and develop capability for citizenship.

5) Many schools are enhancing their personal and social development programmes. There is more implementation of activities that develop mental and physical health. Some schools use personal and social development as a context for developing citizenship skills. For example, they are developing team work and organisational skills by setting up healthy tuck shops.

6) The introduction of cultural co-ordinators and sports co-ordinators by education authorities is leading to more opportunities for pupils to develop creativity, confidence and personal and social skills through collaboration in various contexts.

Although HMIE (2006a) found that some schools were reviewing their existing practice of education for citizenship, they expressed that schools needed to carry out the following steps to make improvements:

1) Although some schools review their existing practice, the majority still need to do this to secure the permeation of citizenship across the curriculum. It is important for them to plan cross-curricular programmes efficiently and that the elements of citizenship are developed with coherence and structure. The four capacities can be the basis for such school evaluations.

2) Personal and social development programmes should ensure coherent experiences for children from 3-18. Many children are involved in citizenship activities but progression between the stages is usually inconsistent. For example, a high number of children carry out significant responsibilities at primary school, but are not given such opportunities again until the final years of secondary school.

3) The content of personal and social development programmes needs to be more coherent with other curricular areas such as health, social subjects and religious and moral education. Overlapping topics can cause lack of motivation and a slower pace in learning.

4) Schools must adopt approaches to education for citizenship that clearly associate values and citizenship. Although many pupils participate in charity work, they do not seem to recognise the values behind it such as social justice and human rights.

5) Many schools have established pupil councils and most children are effectively participating in decision-making about school-related aspects, including environmental or enterprise activities. However, some schools are excluding many pupils. Moreover, pupils have little say in the improvement of educational experiences.

6) Education for citizenship programs must clearly emphasise global citizenship issues, especially the need for sustainability and sustainable practice.

7) Many community projects involve voluntary and public agencies to enhance facilities and opportunities for young people but they have little relevance to school programmes for education for citizenship.

8) Further continuous professional development is required to educate all staff in how to actively implement and reinforce education for citizenship.

The final point made here is the basis for the present study. It was recognised by HMIE (2006a) that much emphasis was placed on what should be done to promote education for citizenship but not how it should be done, particularly by teaching staff.

Much of the literature available in the field of education for citizenship has mainly focused on the aims, outcomes and approaches for this area. There is insufficient literature available that examines the views of teachers currently practising in the profession. Although HMIE (2006a) present a portrait of current practice in six pre-school centres, 31 primary schools and 18 secondary schools inspected for the purpose of the report, it did not seem to take into account the perspectives, concerns, constraints and issues identified by teachers in relation to the implementation of education for citizenship.

The present study adopts the view that if education for citizenship is to be implemented successfully and entirely in Scottish schools, then the perspectives, understanding and attitudes of the teaching professionals who will be essentially responsible for the development of future citizens, must be explored to evaluate the level of readiness and motivation that exists to reform schools into citizenship schools. The examination of the views of teachers may also provide valuable suggestions for the most effective ways to help teachers to develop their own teaching professionalism within this aspect of the curriculum. The insight of teachers views can provide a significant platform for devising appropriate activities and provide learning opportunities that are most responded to and desired by the teachers themselves. If schools are to secure the permeation of citizenship across the curriculum, then they must focus on the very agents that can essentially make this happen – the teachers.

HMIE (2006a) put forward that as well as the guidance given throughout their document, schools should now reflect on the following steps for action in extending their strategies for further improvement:

- "A clearer and more consistent approach is required to education for citizenship and to considering the key role of schools in encouraging responsible personal and social values;

- Systematic curriculum planning should be undertaken to ensure education for citizenship is securely embedded and focused on meeting the needs of all learners, as defined by the four capacities in *A Curriculum for Excellence*;.

- Schools should take the opportunities offered by *A Curriculum for Excellence* and its scope for greater curriculum flexibility to place education for citizenship in context and allow pupils to experience citizenship directly" (p. 15).

One of the most effective ways this can be done is by allowing teachers to engage in strategic action for change and improvement. This notion of the teacher being the most important change agent is promoted by Frost (2000) who expresses that teachers need to adopt the role of change agent which comprises the application of leadership and strategic thinking, planning and action to enhance the effectiveness of education; that schools need to empower teachers to become change agents through the provision of structures and management systems; that teachers require a support structure to allow them to undertake systematic, inquiry-based development activities; that the higher education sector is in a strong position to provide such a support structure. These views emphasise the significant role primary school teachers play in shaping schools to becoming citizenship schools and that such roles are more complex than that of delivering citizenship lessons in a classroom.

1.2 Structure of thesis

Following this introduction, the study will be reported in the form of six further chapters:

Chapter 2: Review of literature

Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter 5: Data analysis and discussion

Chapter 6: Conclusions and implications

Chapter 7: Recommendations

The *review of literature* provides a thorough exploration of key literature and documents that have influenced the emergence of education for citizenship as an essential area of the whole curriculum. It aims to establish a context and basis for researching the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards education for citizenship and develops a rationale for the study through the exploration of the concept of citizenship; the definitions, rationale, aims and learning outcomes of education for citizenship; the pre-existing conceptions of citizenship and citizenship related topics amongst children; how this curricular area can be implemented in primary schools at classroom, whole school and community level; the significance and contribution of the Curriculum for Excellence for education for citizenship; the philosophical and policy contexts; the presuppositions of education for citizenship; and the existing research that examines the attitudes of primary teachers towards education for citizenship. It concludes by identifying areas for further development which consequently provide a key starting point for this study.

The *methodology* chapter discusses the methodological theories that underpin the approaches for data collection applied in the study. It describes, discusses and justifies in detail the samples used and the key methods employed which were questionnaire and interview. It also explains why focus group interview as a potential method was not used.

The *results* chapter provides a detailed account of the data collected from the questionnaires and interviews. The presentation of the data will be organized in the order of the research questions. Since the questionnaires and interviews were both employed to collect data for all questions in varying degrees, each section will

indicate the main source of evidence used for answering the research question. The following chapter will comprise the *analysis and discussion* of the data reported in the results section and will follow the same structure of presentation. The discussion will follow the order of aims given at the beginning of this introduction chapter.

Chapter 6 will present the *conclusions and implications* of the present study based on the responses collated from the teachers who participated. It will discuss the significant revelations about the participants' own perceptions, understanding and attitudes towards education for citizenship at its various levels which relate to the conception of citizenship; aims of education for citizenship; classroom and whole school approaches; and evaluations of their own competence and confidence in professional practice and development. This will be incorporated with an exploration of the implications of the findings upon primary school teachers in relation to the implementation of education for citizenship; the curriculum; teaching qualities; and the structure of professional development.

The *recommendations* chapter will discuss five possible approaches that could be adopted in Scottish schools to enable teachers to enhance their professional development in education for citizenship. These approaches involve the acknowledgement and appreciation of existing professional practice as developing education for citizenship; acknowledgement of the Curriculum for Excellence as a context for education for citizenship; exploration of the features that make a citizenship classroom and using these as criteria for self-evaluation; the adoption of Frost's (2000) Reflective Action Planning Model; and an evaluation and enhancement of the existing structure of CPD to allow for more teacher-centred learning.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

The key purpose of this literature review is to provide a context and basis for exploring the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards education for citizenship and will allow the justification of conducting this thesis as well as an explanation of the relevance of the research. The review identifies and analyses the concepts, definitions and key elements of citizenship and education for citizenship, how this area can be implemented in Scottish schools and explores how the new Curriculum for Excellence effectively incorporates education for citizenship. The final section of the review examines the research that has already been conducted on the attitudes of teachers towards education for citizenship and identifies the gaps in this field that require further development. The purpose of this review is, therefore, to:

1. explore the concept and definitions of citizenship and identify its key elements;
2. explore the definitions of education for citizenship and highlight its main features;
3. present a rationale for the importance of education for citizenship in the Scottish curriculum;
4. analyse the aims and learning outcomes for education for citizenship and what they could entail;
5. consider the pre-existing conceptions of citizenship and citizenship-related topics amongst children;
6. explore how education for citizenship could be implemented in a primary school at whole school, classroom and community level;
7. analyse the ways in which the new Curriculum for Excellence encompasses and develops education for citizenship;
8. reflect on the philosophical and policy contexts of education for citizenship;
9. explore the presuppositions of education for citizenship;
10. examine the research that has already been conducted on the attitudes of primary teachers towards education for citizenship and identify areas that require further

development.

Furthermore, the review will also be underpinned by other purposes essential for constructing and refining the design of the thesis research itself. The literature examined will be used to consider the collection of data and research methods and, therefore, identify an appropriate methodology for the study. It will enable the identification and comparison of previous research findings and perspectives that can be used for analysing and interpreting the data collected for this thesis. It will also allow the comparison of the thesis' results with other research to demonstrate what and how the study can contribute to the field of education for citizenship.

2.0.1 A Significant Dimension of Education in Scotland

As well as examining a range of different types of literature within the citizenship domain, this review will make significant reference to two key documents due to their influence and importance placed in the Scottish approach to education for citizenship. Learning and Teaching Scotland's (2002) paper – *Education for Citizenship in Scotland: A Paper for Discussion and Development* – is discussed in detail because it provides a definition of the concept of citizenship and education for citizenship, examines why this area is important and how it can be developed in primary schools. The Curriculum for Excellence document (Scottish Executive, 2004) also embraces the perspectives of this paper as it incorporates and structures its citizenship approach on the guidelines provided. This demonstrates the high level of influence the LTS (2002) Paper has on educational initiatives and practice and justifies the need to include it as an essential text to review. Moreover, the Curriculum for Excellence itself, as a framework for Scottish education, is also a significant document that is analysed in terms of how it makes an essential contribution and commitment to education for citizenship.

2.1 What are the concepts, definitions and key elements of citizenship?

The choice of which conceptions of citizenship are most effective for promoting democracy has been debated by many philosophers, historians and political scientists. According to Connolly (1983), no single concept of democracy and citizenship will ever be established as the ultimate concept and it has always been, and is likely to remain, a subject of debate. Such debates about citizenship and democracy seem to continue because the "conceptions of good citizenship imply conceptions of the good society" (Westeheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 238). This reflects the extent to which the experience of school citizenship and the curriculum is significant in shaping pupils to become good citizens and apply the knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes related to citizenship education to real society. In other words, an effective education for citizenship embodies some conception of an ideal society.

The features that constitute citizenship are still constantly debated and consequently, an agreed and unanimous definition of it has yet to be reached. Reports, curriculum documents and books published by major curricular bodies such as the QCA in England and Learning and Teaching Scotland offer their own interpretation and definitions of citizenship on which they base their guidelines. However, it is important to examine the different conceptions of citizenship in literature as the "various perspectives on citizenship also have significantly varying implications for curriculum" (Westeheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 238). For example, Parker (1996) provides three differing conceptions of education for citizenship – traditional, progressive and advanced. The traditional perspective focuses on how a government operates and traditional subject area content and democratic values. Progressives also follow this perspective but emphasise the importance of civic participation. The advanced perspective extends the progressive concept and focuses on the inner conflicts between pluralism and assimilation. The various definitions and key elements of citizenship have not only led to differing criteria of the concept but also varying definitions of citizenship education and how it should be implemented in

schools.

The following section examines the various definitions of citizenship and their main criticisms. It then puts forward a definition by Alexander (2001) that the author of the present study views as ideal in that it integrates and includes the different but essential elements of citizenship identified by particular publications and writers and which can potentially solve the conflicts that surround the concept.

2.1.1 Citizenship – a contested concept

The concept of citizenship has mainly been rooted in Western political philosophy. The most influential theory of citizenship in the past century has been T. H. Marshall's essay 'Citizenship and Social Class (1952)', as cited in Wilkins (2000). The significant aspect of Marhsall's theory is his identification of three particular strands of citizenship – civil, political and social. Civil citizenship is about the rights of individuals for freedom such as freedom of expression, religious freedom and the right to equality. Political citizenship comprises the rights of participation and involvement in the process of political power. Social citizenship is about the right to economic and material security. Marhsall's definition of citizenship consisting of civil, political and social rights has been a regular reference in the citizenship debate (Skinner and McCollum, 2000).

The report of the QCA Advisory Commission published in England in 1998 adopted these three elements to define citizenship and base its framework on them. For the Commission, a working definition of citizenship must identify and embrace the three elements of citizenship established by Marhsall (1952) – the civil, the political and the social – and relate them all together. Each dimension on its own cannot be active citizenship. This must involve the interaction between all three (QCA, 1998).

Other definitions of citizenship do not rely on Marhsall's elements but implicitly include and emphasise the civil, political and social aspects. McGhie (1999) outlined

a number of essential features of the concept of citizenship but did not attempt to define it because there was no agreed definition of it. According to McGhie (1999, p. 33), citizenship is:

> "- a collaborative, participative process that prompts active engagement;
> - an inclusive process that promotes a sense of belonging;
> - founded on human rights;
> - values diversity;
> - aspirational and actively seeks the well-being of all members of the community;
> - founded on dispositions;
> - a caring process."

As Wilkins (2000) states, a common definition of citizenship is "the membership of and participation in the activities of a community or group of communities" (p. 14). This definition has an underlying theme of loyalty and bonding to the country or social order rather than to the monarchy or head of state. The concepts of 'belonging' and 'commonalities' are at the heart of citizenship. Citizens belong to a society that embrace these attitudes and practices, and are rewarded for abiding by the law with particular benefits or rights (Wilkins, 2000).

The definition embraced by LTS (2002) also incorporates the civil, political and social dimensions. For LTS (2002), a key feature of citizenship is the enjoyment of rights and the fulfilment of responsibilities in local and global communities. This perspective of citizenship embraces the notion of political participation by a democratic nation's citizens as well as engagement in other activities such as voluntary work that is concerned with community welfare. Another key feature of citizenship for LTS (2002) is making informed choices and decisions and taking action, individually and collectively. A citizen, therefore, has numerous roles to play in society - as a consumer and a contributor - although sometimes the views of rights and responsibilities by citizens in different social groups are in conflict (LTS, 2002).

A more comprehensive definition of citizenship has been put forward by Westheimer and Kahne (2004) who devised three visions of citizenship to answer a question they considered essential for both practitioners and scholars – "What kind of citizen do we need to support an effective democratic society?" (p. 239). The three visions were the personally responsible citizen, the participatory citizen and the justice-oriented citizen.   The *personally responsible citizen* "acts responsibly in his / her community , works and pays taxes, obeys laws, recycles, gives blood and volunteers to lend a hand in times of crisis" (p. 240). Programs that aim to promote personal responsibility involve the emphasis of honesty, integrity, self-discipline and hard work. *Participatory citizens* are "active members of community organisations, organise community efforts to care for those in need, know how government agencies work and know strategies for accomplishing collective tasks" (p. 240). Programs that promote this vision highlight the need for enabling students to participate in collective, community based activities. Such programs aim to teach students the ways in which government and community based organisations operate and develop their ability to plan and participate in initiatives that care for the community. Participatory citizenship promotes positive relationships, shared understandings, trust and collective effort. *Justice oriented citizenship* is the least commonly approached and focuses on the issues of injustice and the importance of achieving social justice. The justice-oriented citizen "critically assesses social, political and economic structures to see beyond surface causes, seeks out and addresses areas of injustice, knows about democratic social movements and how to effect systematic change" (p. 240). As with the participatory citizen, the justice-oriented citizen places an importance on collective effort with regards to community life and issues. What makes this vision distinct is its emphasis on resolving social problems. Programs that focus on achieving social change aim to enable students to make society better by critically analysing and tackling social issues and injustices. Educational programs that promote the justice-oriented citizen aim to involve students in informed analysis and discussion about the different structures of society and devise collective strategies for improvement that confront injustice and tackle the main causes of problems. The process of this discussion is fundamental as it should take account of the varied opinions and concerns of citizens as well as involving the

evidence of experts, the opinions of government leaders or a preferred strategy of a particular group or leader. In the same way, pupils need to develop the skill of considering the varied voices and priorities of their peers and teachers. Because there are varied perceptions of an ideal society, justice-oriented students must learn to interact with and educate themselves from people that hold different perspectives.

Biesta (2008) examines the concept of citizenship that underlies the 2002 Education for Citizenship proposals, framework and inspection reports and the type of citizen and democracy that is adopted as a result of this. He uses the framework devised by Westheimer and Kahne (2004) to analyse the concept. When examining the Scottish approach to education for citizenship in relation to the three visions, Biesta (2008) concludes that all of them are evident in the Scottish approach to education for citizenship, especially within the 2002 Education for Citizenship Paper. He states that the concept of citizenship that particularly underpins the Scottish approach is the personally responsible citizen with a significant emphasis also on participation. Furthermore, the move towards participatory citizenship reflects the educational approaches to developing citizenship, rather than the concept of citizenship adopted. This demonstrates the importance of distinguishing between citizenship and education for citizenship in the documents. As Biesta (2008) suggests, the concept of citizenship is particularly based on the personally responsible citizen and participation is the main approach to becoming such citizens. Moreover, the three categories of citizenship "highlight important differences in the ways that educators conceive of democratic educational aims; that is, they frame distinctions that have significant implications for the politics of education for democracy" (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 240).

Abowitz and Harnish (2006) also provide a comprehensive definition of citizenship by citing Enslin (2000):

> "Citizenship in a democracy (a) gives membership status to individuals within a political unit; (b) confers an identity on individuals; (c) constitutes a set of values, usually interpreted as a commitment to the common good of a

particular political unit; (d) involves practising a degree of participation in the process of political life; and (e) implies gaining and using knowledge and understanding of laws, documents, structures, and process of governance" (p. 653).

In short, citizenship comprises membership, identity, values, rights of participation and common political knowledge. Abowitz and Harnish (2006) put forward their notion that citizenship is not an established concept but a created one that modifies with economic, political and social changes.

2.1.2 The importance of a universal concept of citizenship

The definitions addressed above can be considered as deeper definitions of citizenship than that in law or custom. They develop the concept of citizenship into a positive and influential principle for education and society. Alexander (2001) emphasises the importance of a deeper definition of citizenship as traditional definitions focus on duties to the community, society and state, rather than active involvement. Classical liberal definitions feature law and the state as an institution rather than participation whereas the English national curriculum definitions comprise membership of society, involving the class, school and the international community (Alexander, 2001). The development of this wider definition through education assigns schools with a significant role. Not only do schools equip children with knowledge and skills about the world, they develop children's ability to actively contribute to society. In practice, this means that schools lead the way to active citizenship.

Although the definitions discussed in this review include positive and influential principles of citizenship, they lack universality. Even though the definitions may share similar principles, they do not identify the same key elements. The different definitions place emphasis on different things. In terms of whole school practice of citizenship education, this implies that the adoption of different definitions of citizenship by individual schools can lead them into following varying practices and

consequently direct them to place emphasis on particular strands of citizenship whilst neglecting others. Such practice can potentially produce inconsistency in the quality of the provision of education for citizenship throughout a region or country. In order for every child to equally receive an effective and consistent education for citizenship, a shared concept of citizenship is necessary. Furthermore, as Annette (2000) argues, a more universal concept of citizenship that promotes civic virtue and involvement whilst exercising civic freedom and facilitating cultural difference, will develop an approach to comprehending citizenship that is suitable for an education for citizenship and democracy. As Osler (1999) points out, whichever definition of citizenship is adopted, a number of points have to be considered – the definition of citizenship may require modifications according to political, economic and social changes and cannot remain static; the definition must acknowledge the fact that individuals may face different and sometimes conflicting situations that they must resolve; education for citizenship is not just about political literacy and civic lessons but the school ethos must play an important role in developing good citizenship; the definition must acknowledge the role of values in education; and a balance needs to be maintained between awareness and understanding of national identity with awareness of international and supra-national responsibilities. It is, therefore, vital that a definition of citizenship be established that embraces all key elements of citizenship identified by various curricular documents and writers.

Alexander (2001) offers a comprehensive definition that incorporates and integrates all the key elements of citizenship identified by the literature in this review which makes it an ideal and useful universal concept. His definition also approaches the points highlighted above by Osler (1999). Alexander (2001) defines citizenship using nine distinct but interdependent elements:

1. *Membership* is fundamental and can only create effective citizenship with rights, a sense of personal power and other elements of this definition.

2. *A sense of personal power* – Citizens need self-esteem, confidence and a sense of personal power to exercise their rights and responsibilities.

3. *Democratic values* such as freedom, fairness, social justice, respect for democracy and diversity.

4. *Political and human rights* - These are support mechanisms for democratic values and give citizens the freedom to excel. These include the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Schools can also devise their own charter of rights.

5. *Civic involvement and responsibility* – This is one of the key aims of education for citizenship. Rights create the responsibility for citizens to acknowledge and fulfil their civic duties to the community.

6. *Accountability* – is an essential element of citizenship but is often ignored. For schools, strategies for accountability can include question time in class, pupil councils, assemblies, complaints procedure, school board and inspections as stated in various education acts.

7. *The knowledge and skills* are necessary for active participation in school, community and society.

8. *Participation* in democratic decision-making is a key aspect of citizenship.

9. *A constitution* comprises the rules that govern the institution, whether written or unwritten.

There are two key elements of Alexander's definition that no other document or writer has identified which are 'accountability' and 'constitution'. According to Alexander (2001), all of these nine elements are necessary for effective citizenship and are much broader and deeper than formal, legal or traditional definitions of citizenship. By acknowledging the necessity for confidence, skills, knowledge and values as well as rights and participation in decision-making, this definition of citizenship confirms a constructive move from the traditional and legal meanings of citizenship towards a more progressive perspective that emphasises the importance

of civic participation and the advanced perspective that focuses on the inner conflicts between pluralism and assimilation.

2.1.3 The Complex Nature of Citizenship

The review has examined the various concepts of citizenship that have been put forward in the literature studied and, thus, acknowledges and appreciates the individual examination and interpretation of its elements. The author of the present study does not reject or holistically accept any particular definition but understands that citizenship is a vast and intricate concept. Indeed, all the definitions analysed in this review are significant for the author as they provide key aspects that are applicable to British citizenship. Significantly, all the definitions presented in the review are reflective of and pertaining to the United Kingdom as a Western political democracy. Citizenship as a concept will vary between each country and continent and will reflect the nature of the existing societies, beliefs, schools of thought, religion and political agendas. In light of this, it is important to stress that the present review is reflective of the citizenship that applies to Britain as a democracy. For the author of the present study, citizenship, therefore, mainly encompasses a system of democracy that allows citizens their rights and responsibilities and enables them to participate in the running of the country at a personal, social, political, economic and educational level.

Every citizen in the UK is potentially a 'good' citizen. People who vote, pay their taxes and participate in public activities are not necessarily the only effective citizens. Those who do not work, choose not to vote and do not actively engage in political activities can also be practising citizens by adopting core citizenship values in their social relationships with their family, friends and neighbours. Such core values include respect for others, honesty, tolerance, fairness and equality. In light of this, children are also viewed by the author as citizens of the present time. Although in a nutshell, education for citizenship teaches children how to become effective citizens, it ultimately reforms them continually into becoming better citizens. Even though children may not be allowed to engage in major citizenship related activities such as voting or holding public protests and meetings, they are, however, learning

about core values and skills which are central to being an effective citizen through the development of relationships with the family, friends, teachers and peers. By displaying values such as honesty, kindness, fairness, equality, inclusion and respect and social skills such as friendship, co-operation and communication, they are, in effect, practising democratic citizenship. Anyone who practises this in any form is a 'good' citizen of the country.

On the contrary, the acknowledgement of this intricate nature of citizenship seems to be absent in the literature examined in this review. Although the definitions of citizenship presented in the literature are subject to individual or group interpretations, they share certain key concepts such as rights, responsibilities and values. During the initial reading of key documents such as the Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002), the Curriculum for Excellence by the Scottish Executive (2004) and Education for citizenship: a portrait of current practice in Scottish schools and pre-school centres by HMIE (2006a), one may immediately be drawn in to accepting all the structures, content and arguments provided, on the assumption that such key players have explored all avenues and have reasoned justifications for their decisions. After all, they are major contributors to the education for citizenship movement that is in progress at the moment in Scotland. However, there are certain issues that the documents mentioned above have failed to acknowledge and address and it is important to explore them to illustrate the potential complexities that can arise in the implementation of education for citizenship in Scottish schools. Concepts and guidelines may appear very thorough on paper but its application in the real world can be more complex than thought, especially when considering the variations and differences of human nature, societies, perceptions of the world and educational practice.

The first point to be made is in light of the argument presented previously about the importance of including and considering every adult and child as citizens of the country. With Britain being a multicultural and pluralist society, the concept of citizenship applied in schools must incorporate these national political conditions. One of the main ways that the progress of citizenship can be measured in Britain is

by the inclusion of previously ignored social groups such as the under privileged, women and ethnic minorities. Ideally in a country, democracy is applicable and available to all groups of society where inequality and exclusion does not exist. The policy contexts of the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002), the Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) and the Education for Citizenship Portrait (HMIE, 2006a) seem to reflect a belief in this ideal concept of citizenship in which there is progress of democracy and inclusiveness of all social groups. This has yet to be achieved in any country, including Britain. Citizenship can also create social conflict and exclude groups who are struggling for equal rights and recognition. The key documents in the literature review seem to present the concept of citizenship as a straightforward definition and process. Furthermore, they seem to be based on the assumption that all groups in society are now included with little conflict and, in doing so, they avoid discussing any aspects of how schools could potentially deal with such conflicts realistically in the classroom. To be fair, LTS (2002) do acknowledge that the "perceptions of rights and responsibilities by individuals in different social groups are sometimes in conflict" (p. 8) and that "education for citizenship must recognise the existence of such conflicts, and must help young people develop strategies for dealing effectively with controversy" (p. 9). However, this idea is presented as a straightforward process and seems to be based on the assumption that conflict itself can be minimised neatly. In this pluralist and multicultural British society, conflict of opinions does not simply involve one group expressing one opinion whilst another group articulates an opposing viewpoint. In many cases, it is a complicated series of viewpoints that can comprise contradictory, adamant and forceful convictions from particular social groups which can also lead to sinister events. Such examples include terrorism, violent protests, parties with extreme views such as the BNP and dangerous activists. It is appreciated that LTS (2002) suggest that children should be taught strategies such as negotiation, compromise, and the development of particular attitudes and values and that they should be taught to recognise that some views held by individuals and groups may not be respectful and threaten the peace of society. However, LTS (2002) need to acknowledge the complexity of a modern but complex Western society and the major task teachers will have in educating children on how to live in real life Britain.

2.2 What are the definitions and main features of education for citizenship?

One of the issues that arose from the Gordon Cook Foundation Conference in 1999 was that there was no agreed meaning for 'citizenship education' or 'active citizenship' and that an agreed definition for 'education for citizenship' was necessary (Jardine, 1999). This was inevitable as a result of the absence of a unanimous definition of 'citizenship. Although education for citizenship literature generally does define the main features of this in terms of the political, civil and social aspects of a democracy, none of them include all of the key elements identified by Alexander (2001) and, therefore, cannot be acknowledged as comprehensive definitions. The reason for giving Alexander's definition more credibility is that it is inclusive of all the key elements of citizenship that have been otherwise identified in parts by other writers in the literature review. For example, in their definition of citizenship, Abowitz and Harnish (2006) refer to membership, personal identity, values, participation, knowledge and understanding but do not explicitly state any aspect of political and human rights, civic responsibility and accountability which are important elements of citizenship that Alexander's definition includes.

The importance of defining education for citizenship is illustrated by Lawton (2000). As he explains, the 1988 Education Reform Act provided an opportunity to develop education for citizenship in England and Wales as the Act included a national curriculum. However, this was based on traditional subjects and was overcrowded with detail. The National Curriculum Council, as cited in Lawton (2000), developed cross-curricular themes, including citizenship, which consequently was regarded as a non-statutory, optional area of the curriculum. The overcrowding of statutory National Curriculum requirements overrode any non-statutory subjects such as citizenship. The reasons for the failure of citizenship education was, therefore, because of the low status of citizenship education, the risk for teachers of being accused of imposing biased views, the lack of effective resources for citizenship and tackling controversial issues and the absence of a clear definition of citizenship education and the role of teachers (Lawton, 2000).

As Lawton (2000) describes, one of the problems in defining citizenship education was the existence of two conflicting views – the passive citizen and active citizen view. The passive view involves teaching for abiding and obeying the law. Teaching content consists of information about the government, British laws, duties and responsibilities of citizens. The active citizen view comprises knowledge and understanding of political ideas and conflicts, the development of democratic attitudes and values and a critical stance of contemporary society. The passive approach was likely to cause boredom and the active approach made it risky for teachers to be accused of bias and indoctrination (Lawton, 2000). The failure of citizenship education in the past demonstrates the importance of constructing a universal definition of citizenship education. Moreover, this universality is necessary to ensure that educational provision is coherent and consistent as a different focus can lead to varying outcomes, depending on the type of citizenship promoted. This is indicated by Westheimer and Kahne (2004), who state that successful education for citizenship programs can lead to very different outcomes. While some programs may focus on participation in society, others may promote critical evaluation of issues related to the structures of society, interest groups, power dynamics and social justice:

> "Varied priorities – personal responsibility, participatory citizenship and justice-oriented citizenship – embody significantly different beliefs regarding the capacities and commitments that citizens need for democracy to flourish; and they carry significantly different implications for pedagogy, curriculum, evaluation and educational policy" (p. 263).

This notion is further illustrated by Veugelers and Zijlstra (2003) who describe three types of citizens. The *adapting citizen* conforms to society's rules, boundaries and norms and its traditional values. The *calculating citizen* is more individualistic who embraces choice and responsibility. The *critical-democratic citizen* is both personally and socially developed, who actively contributes to society and is critically involved in changing and improving the community. The promotion of the type of citizens put forward by Veugelers and Zijlstra (2003) and Westheimer and Kahne (2004) is evident in the QCA (1998) and LTS (2002) guidelines.

The QCA (1998) bases effective citizenship education on three democratic concepts – social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy. Although they are all inter-linked and interdependent, they each require their own place and treatment in the curriculum. The three concepts are framed in the document's learning outcomes:

> "a) children 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;
>
> b) learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community;
>
> c) pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values (QCA, 1998, p. 11).

Osler (1999) divides and integrates these three aspects into further categories and defines education for citizenship as the school systems that prepare pupils for:

Political participation – the ability and motivation to be involved with all levels of the political decision-making process, knowledge of rights and responsibilities and awareness of factors that affect decision-making;

Economic participation - development of literacy, numeracy, ICT and other core skills required for employment;

Social participation – preparing pupils for interacting effectively with others in society and in their communities;

Educational participation – preparing pupils for developing and practising lifelong learning through the various sectors of education such as further / higher education

and community education;

Cultural participation – participating in the arts, sports and leisure. The arts provide media and means of expression to explore society which is necessary for challenging and questioning aspects of it.

Each of these forms of participation requires a rational and systematic knowledge base to enable and support them. However, the development of life skills such as participation, working together, conflict resolution, management of change and critical thinking are just as vital (Osler, 1999).

Alexander (2001) offers a comprehensive view of education for citizenship as he promotes the idea of 'citizenship schools' in which the nine elements are practised across the whole school. These elements could form a school's constitution and would be the framework for applying citizenship. He summarises the attainment targets for PSHE and citizenship to construct a definition of citizenship education as "enabling people to learn and develop the self-confidence, relationships, values, knowledge, understanding and skills to take an active part in public life" (p. 14). He also claims that as well as developing knowledge and skills, citizenship education is an approach for teaching, learning and school activities which improve self-confidence, relationships, behaviour, enquiry, communication and active participation in the school and community. Without a school ethos and approach that develops these citizenship qualities, it will be difficult for children to learn the necessary skills and knowledge. At its best, citizenship education is a process of transforming into a 'democratic learning community' (Alexander, 2001, p. 14). Again, Alexander's definition implies that education for citizenship should also involve the key elements of accountability and a constitution, which no other definition comprises or acknowledges. This comprehensive view of education for citizenship relates well to what HMIE (2006a) would consider as an effective education for citizenship. According to the HMIE (2006a):

"Education for citizenship for young people aged 3-18 implies the need for:

- A curriculum based on high quality and relevant content;
- A learning climate that involves pupils fully as collaborative and independent learners;
- A school culture in which pupils are actively involved and feel their views and contributions are valued;
- A relationship between schools and their communities which exemplifies citizenship through action, in contexts within which pupils are familiar and at ease" (p. 3).

2.3 Why is education for citizenship important for the Scottish curriculum?

The arguments offered across the literature all share similar perspectives on the importance of education for citizenship which is to develop informed, active and responsible citizens. The themes of conforming, reforming and transforming are evident in all definitions constructed by various authors. Wilkins (2000) suggests that the role of education for citizenship in schools can be analysed in terms of three broad approaches. The first approach is a 'conforming' one where moral values and respect for society's institutions are taught in order to preserve social order. The second approaches is 'reforming' which aims to reform society through the development of knowledge, understanding and tolerance but also acknowledging conflict in society. This approach is closely linked to the model of citizenship education provided by the QCA (1998). A third approach is 'transforming' which aims to equip individuals with the skills to improve their material circumstances.

LTS (2002) claim that education for citizenship is essential because active citizens are needed to shape the future health and welfare of the local, national and global community and environment. Promoting active and responsible citizenship is part of creating a society of democratic participation. Furthermore, people will comprehend the rationale for policies and procedures and, therefore, abide by them when they have contributed to their analysis (Discipline Task Group, 2001, as cited in LTS, 2002). According to LTS (2002), for the benefit of society and its citizens, young

people should be equipped with the knowledge, understanding and skills required to become active citizens and that a system needs to be established for them to achieve this (LTS, 2002). The requirements of citizens as suggested by LTS (2002) is explored in section 2.4.

Huddleston and Kerr (2006) state that the key rationale for citizenship education is based on the nature of democracy. Effective democracies rely on active, informed and responsible citizens. These capabilities have to be developed as personal life experiences alone will never equip citizens for the attributes required for contemporary society. Preparing citizens for active and responsible citizenship requires an explicit approach to education for citizenship which is:

Inclusive – involving all young people, irrespective of their ability or background;
Pervasive – integrating citizenship in all aspects of education, not just confining it to schools;
Lifelong – continuing throughout life (Huddleston and Kerr, 2006).

However, according to Leighton (2004), although pupils in England may be taught citizenship lessons, it does not necessarily mean that they will become effective citizens. He claims that his own observations indicate that even though teachers have their own reasons and aims for teaching lessons, their pupils can have varying reasons for receiving them and interpret and apply them in different ways. In terms of education for citizenship, teachers will not be able to control what pupils will read and write in future or how they will interpret the content read. As Leighton (2004) suggests:

> "it follows that there is a considerable difference between teaching about citizenship, teaching people to become good citizens, enabling young people to become active citizens, and developing and maintaining a society in which everyone wants to play a part and has the opportunity to do so" (p. 172).

2. 4 What could the aims and learning outcomes for education for citizenship be in the Scottish curriculum?

"Education for citizenship should aim to develop capability for thoughtful and responsible participation in political, economic, social and cultural life."

This statement encompasses the ideal, overall goal aspired by Learning and Teaching Scotland (2002, p. 11) and emphasise that the key aspects that structure this capability are knowledge and understanding, skills and competencies, values and dispositions, creativity and enterprise. As well as possessing knowledge and skills, a capable citizen applies knowledge and skills to make decisions and take action if necessary. They are able to take action to achieve a purpose which is intertwined with respect, care and responsibility for other citizens and the environment. On the other hand, an informed decision for not taking action is also an individual's personal choice. As LTS (2002) state:

> "Capability for citizenship encompasses social, economic and cultural literacies coupled with the capacity for participation in all aspects of society – economic, social and cultural ...... and also includes ideas about political literacy" (p. 11).

This shows the importance placed on the four key outcomes identified – knowledge and understanding, skills and competencies, values and dispositions, creativity and enterprise. Capability for citizenship can be assessed using these four outcomes as each of these are key parts of the development of education for citizenship.

For LTS (2002), *knowledge and understanding* is about the importance of informing opinions, views and decisions using related knowledge and the evaluation and interpretation of evidence. It involves possessing knowledge of political, social, economic and cultural ideas and phenomena as well as strategies for widening that knowledge. It is particularly important that citizens realise how daily events are connected to larger events in the community and society. This is a more

comprehensive and constructive outline than the one provided by the QCA (1998) which states that children should develop knowledge and understanding of certain aspects of society related to education for citizenship as these aspects can provide key contexts and content for achieving the learning outcomes. Children should also develop knowledge and understanding of such aspects of society through the exploration of current issues, events and activities which is a key practice of citizenship education (QCA, 1998).

As LTS (2002) articulate, possessing *skills and competencies* as a citizen means feeling capable, knowledgeable and confident in one's own potential to take actions and being equipped to sensibly tackle issues and problems. Although the skills may be developed through other curricular areas, it is important to make explicit links with the nature and purpose of education for citizenship. Furthermore, as the QCA (1998) suggest, pupils should be able to develop and apply certain skills and aptitudes relevant to citizenship education within various contexts. The contexts chosen should enable children to enhance their understanding, develop their critical thinking and creativity, respond appropriately to differing views, defend or modify points of view and acknowledge the contribution of others (QCA, 1998).

LTS (2002) also place an emphasis on *values and dispositions* and argue that education for citizenship should aim to develop the capability to recognise and respond, with sound reason, to values and value judgements that characterise political, economic, social and cultural life. Schools can promote various personal qualities and dispositions as well as a sense of social responsibility. Making decisions based on fair reasoning and having a sense of responsibility are key qualities of a responsible citizen. The QCA (1998) also state that children should be able to identify, explore and act upon certain values and dispositions important for citizenship. They should be encouraged to explore and identify values and dispositions which inform their attitudes and actions as individuals and community members. This is essential in developing future active citizens with positive attitudes towards themselves and others.

LTS (2002) also identify the outcomes of *creativity and enterprise* which the QCA (1998) does not explicitly recognise. According to LTS (2002), an effective citizen has the capability for creative thinking and action in political, social and cultural life. Creativity and enterprise means being able to make reasoned and imaginative decisions and adopting an enterprising approach to participation in society.

Huddleston and Kerr (2006) provide a concise overview of what education for citizenship should aim to do and suggest that wherever it is implemented, its aims and purposes should be consistent. They express the view that education for citizenship should aim to teach people how to become active, informed and responsible citizens and, therefore, prepare them for citizenship which is essential because democracies require citizens who have knowledge of their citizen rights and responsibilities; have knowledge about sociology and politics; are willing to help others; express their views effectively; contribute to making changes; are active community members and behave responsibly (Huddleston and Kerr, 2006). This type of citizen and citizenship education is advocated by and characterises the Scottish approach.

As Biesta (2008) points out, most documents treat the domain of citizenship in general terms. LTS (2002), Scottish Executive (2004) and HMIE (2006a) all involve the participation of political, economic, social and cultural life in their definitions of the purpose of education for citizenship. The HMIE (2006a) document also includes educational participation in their definition. Whilst various documents include environmental aspects within their domain of citizenship, it is only the HMIE document that also refers to spiritual values as well as political, social and environmental values as the values that education for citizenship should embed (Biesta, 2008).

Biesta (2008) identifies four defining characteristics of the Scottish approach to education for citizenship which are 'individualism, domain of citizenship, active citizenship and community' (p. 3). He points out that the 2002 document on education for citizenship by Learning and Teaching Scotland strongly promotes an

individualistic stance on citizenship and education for citizenship and that citizenship is inherent in personal responsibility. The document emphasises the importance of individuals and their citizenship responsibilities and capacities. Biesta quotes many examples from the document to illustrate this individualistic perspective on citizenship and citizenship education. For example, the opening statement in the document states that "schools and other establishments have a central part to play in educating young people for life as active and responsible members of their communities" (LTS, 2002, p. 6). This reinforces the idea that citizenship is inherent in personal responsibility. Another example that illustrates the individualistic tendency is the overall goal of citizenship education outlined by LTS (2002) which is "to develop capability for thoughtful and responsible participation in political, economic, social and cultural life" (LTS, 2002, p. 11). The LTS document also points out that it is necessary to integrate and develop the four outcomes of education for citizenship - knowledge and understanding, skills and competencies, values and dispositions and creativity and enterprise - as this is the essence of effective and meaningful citizenship, and so should not be developed as separate areas. As Biesta (2008) states, the major focus on human values and dispositions such as respect and care for others also exemplifies the individual tendency.

However, the 2002 Education for Citizenship document appears to give a different weighting to the political and social dimensions. As Biesta (2008) illustrates, this document makes the most links to the political dimensions of and purpose for education for citizenship. It makes apparent links between education for citizenship and the Scottish Parliament which reflects the importance of Scottish citizens' understanding and contribution to democratic activities. The knowledge and understanding strand of education for citizenship also expresses the political dimensions of citizenship as it entails the knowledge and understanding of the rights and responsibilities that form the basis of democracies, the ways in which citizens can socially and environmentally change society, the values that underpin these activities, the causes of conflict and potential resolutions (Biesta, 2008). The values and dispositions outcome includes the aspect of developing "informed and reasoned opinions about political, economic, social and environmental issues" (LTS, 2002,

p. 14) which is another example of its focus on political dimensions. However, Biesta (2008) also notes that when the document discusses how to implement education for citizenship, citizenship practice is then treated as relating to active involvement in communities rather than political and democratic activities. The document changes its political focus on citizenship to a more social focus.

2.5 The pre-existing conceptions of citizenship and citizenship related topics amongst children

The studies reported in the section below have illustrated that young people have pre-existing understanding and interpretations of the characteristics that constitute a citizen, the nature of democracy, the democratic process and controversial issues. This raises the important issue of the need for teachers to examine pre-existing knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of children in relation to citizenship when planning and facilitating citizenship related learning experiences. The following studies report on the concepts of citizenship held by young people, their perceptions of citizenship related topics and their future which demonstrates that children's knowledge and understanding of citizenship should not be undermined and could form as a valuable foundation for building and extending new learning and development.

2.5.1 The concept of citizenship attributed by young people

A longitudinal research study was conducted by Lister *et al* (2005), of youth citizenship from which five models of citizenship were derived to describe the various characteristics that young people attributed to being a citizen. These models were:

Universal status in which citizenship was viewed as the membership of a community or country;

Respectable economic independence which involved being economically stable by having a job, paying taxes, owning a house etc;

Constructive social participation whereby citizens are actively or passively involved in the community through observing the law and contributing to the local community;

Social contractual which emphasises rights and responsibilities, being a member of the wider community and following the law of the country;

The right to a voice which embraces the right to express one's opinion and be listened to. It also involves having some power in important decision-making and being taken into consideration by people in power.

2.5.2 Children's perceptions of citizenship related topics

Davies (1999) conducted research with two top junior classes (64 children) in the United Kingdom to explore children's understanding of citizenship in the context of their school and how much they knew about the running of the organisation. She argues that if children are to acquire citizenship knowledge, skills and values, then such education should begin with the child's existing knowledge and understanding of the running of the school since this institution reflects some features of power and control.

Davies (1999) adapted various techniques from other studies but particularly focused on a philosophy that states that "by enabling people to 'draw', map and understand their immediate community and its political workings, literacy will take on concrete meanings" (p. 40). Such techniques were used to investigate children's understanding of democracy and citizenship in U.K primary schools. Some of these techniques were:

Power maps – children drew a map of the school and placed stickers on the places where important decisions were made and where the powerful people were;

How did they get their jobs – children drew or wrote how the various staff in their

schools got their jobs;

What if you want to change something – children were presented with small scenarios and had to suggest how changes could be made to solve the problem.

These and other techniques were conducted with 64 children by the researcher with no teacher present. The findings reported on the children's knowledge and understanding of power and legitimacy, decisions, rules and procedures, change, solidarity and relationship:

Power and legitimacy – children regard the headteacher and the office as the main centre of power;

Decisions – most decision making was attributed to the headteacher and then the class teacher;

Rules and procedures – children had more knowledge of rules for themselves than rules for teachers;

Change – the headteacher was seen as the main mover for decisions. Most strategies for change involved approaching an adult.

Solidarity and relationships – children were very aware of the importance of friendship and solidarity.

This means that the children have some concerns but are not related to curriculum or their academic learning. They are concerned with friends, food, appearance and bullying. Davies (1999) argues that knowledge of the different levels of power and decision making is vital if children are to exercise genuine active choices and, therefore, means that participation in decision making is a key activity of contributing to democracy. Moreover, the starting point for teaching about the democratic process is children's existing organisational knowledge and interests.

Claire (2001) examines the citizenship curriculum by considering the experiences and views of primary school children and argues that children have strong views on citizenship related topics such as friendship, family, gender, sex, race and ethnicity and the environment. She also states that children have important opinions about their curriculum and can contribute to discussions about sensitive topics by reflecting on their own experiences. She further demonstrates how children's perceptions of vulnerability are constructed by local and national events, in the same way as adults and strongly argues that young people are capable of contributing to change in their own school and their community and should be taught the skills for active citizenship such as debating sensitive issues, decision-making, forming opinions and considering and appreciating various opinions.

Maitles and Deuchar (2004) also demonstrate the pre-existing knowledge and understanding that children can possess. In their discussions with a small sample of nine primary 7 pupils in a Scottish school about what makes an enterprising person, emerged strong references to the key players of the Iraq war and the nature of the war itself. According to the researchers, these children's views demonstrated their developing knowledge and understanding, skills, aptitudes and values which are key qualities embraced by the current education for citizenship discourse. It was evident that children knew about international issues and were aware of the democratic process. They also demonstrated an increasing understanding of diversity and social conflict and seemed to be strongly concerned about human dignity, equality and the importance for peaceful resolutions (Maitles and Deuchar, 2004). These findings indicate that the discovery of pre-existing knowledge requires a positive teacher-pupil relationship and careful techniques:

> "There is no doubt that where there can be developed a respectful, trusting relationship between the teacher and the pupils and the teacher encourages the pupils to develop their opinions, even the most controversial issues can be sensitively discussed in classrooms" (Maitles & Deuchar, 2004, p. 104).

2.5.3 Children's perceptions of the future

Because of insufficient research available on primary children's interest in education for citizenship or their perceptions of themselves as citizens, Holden (2006) conducted a study which investigated children's hopes and fears for the future, their action for change and what contribution schools made. This was a significant research area because:

> "People's hopes and fears for the future influence what they are prepared to do in the present and what they are prepared to work towards" (Holden, 2006, p. 232).

This statement points to the notion that how people view the future is a critical measure of society's internal state, as it reflects the current times. Examining children's views of the future, therefore, indicates their current concerns, beliefs and actions and how they perceive their contribution as future citizens.

Holden (2006) reports that although much research has been conducted on the concerns of teenagers in secondary schools in Finland, Sweden and Australia, there is a lack of research available on primary children's concerns for the future. Research conducted by Hicks and Holden (1995) in 1994 showed that British children aged 7 and 11 were increasingly aware of social and environmental issues and feared that violence, unemployment, racism and scarce facilities for young people would continuously affect their local communities. Many children were also concerned that wars would increase around the world and would like to be more educated about global issues at school. The 1994 study was extended in 2004 by Holden (2006) to analyse the extent to which primary children's concerns had changed in 10 years and to construct a detailed analysis of their hopes and fears in relation to personal, local and global issues. Questionnaires were given to all children that asked them to write about their hopes and fears for the future at all three levels, particularly social and environmental issues, and then action for change.

The research conducted by Holden (2006) showed that many of the concerns of children in 2004 were the same as those in 1994 but children in 2004 seem to be given more opportunities to study global issues and take action to bring about change. However, over 50% of children stated that they had been ill-educated at school about such issues and would like to be more informed. All children had significant concerns about the future at personal, local and global levels which are similar to those of secondary pupils in other studies reported in Hutchinson (1996) and Rubin (2002). However, the primary children in the 2004 study by Holden (2006) were more optimistic than the secondary pupils about the future and their participation in action for change. For the majority of children, their hopes and fears for the global future focused on peace and war. Other hopes and fears related to the environment, poverty, crime, violence and health.

The study by Holden (2006) also elicited children's perceptions about their own role as active citizens and work done in schools. Forty one percent of children felt that they could do a lot to make the world a better place whilst 49% said they could do a little. They were asked what actions they could take and their responses were categorised into three areas:

Environment   e.g. not dropping / picking up litter, recycling and saving energy;
Actions and campaigns – e.g. fundraising for charities;
Relationships – e.g. helping people, showing kindness and respect.

Holden (2006, p. 244) poses the question "What then can we learn from listening to these children?" The opinions expressed by the children in the study indicated several significant implications that related to pupil voice, the rationale for education for citizenship, its implementation and structure. Firstly, this study indicates that children's awareness of societal challenges should not be underestimated. Their awareness is reflected in their discussions about the dangers of drugs, violence, racism and the possibility of personal failure. Children's opinions are also a strong reflection of the views of the community:

"Children appear to be a mirror for the local community as they talk about what works and what needs improving" (Holden, 2006, p. 244).

Media coverage of global events and issues has meant that "all children, whether from inner-city London or rural Devon, are aware of world conflict, environmental challenges and economic inequalities" (Holden, 2006, p. 245). Their hopes and fears are linked to significant national and world events in 2004 which is why their responses include terrorism, Iraq, Bush, Blair and Bin Laden. This reinforces the idea that primary children are aware of national and global challenges.

"If we are to build on children's knowledge and concerns, we need to give more time in the primary curriculum to such issues" (Holden, 2006, p. 245).

This suggests that educators need to listen to children's opinions, take their concerns into account and enable them to access information in order to help them understand complex issues which means spending more time on Personal, Social and Health Education to explore personal hopes and fears, and more time for education for citizenship to examine local and global issues (Holden, 2006).

2.6 How could education for citizenship be implemented in a primary school at whole school, classroom and community level?

The approach to education for citizenship in Scotland has been significantly defined by LTS (2002). The approaches proposed involve a variety of activities experienced in daily school life, curricular subjects, cross-curricular experiences and community involvement which is why it does not require a new subject called 'citizenship education' to be added to the curriculum or an existing curricular area to be revised (LTS, 2002). This approach is distinctive from the approaches adopted in England where it is incorporated into the National Curriculum as a compulsory subject as endorsed by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (1998). Education for citizenship in Scotland has not been made into a separate curriculum subject but is

regarded as a cross curricular responsibility. Biesta (2008) argues that citizenship cannot simply consist of specific citizenship lessons, as the whole curriculum provides more effective hidden lessons in citizenship.

HMIE (2006a) support the approaches put forward by LTS (2002) because they develop capability for citizenship in many areas of society such as political, social, economic and cultural aspects. Also, encouraging pupils to become active citizens should be the core aim of the curriculum and the unique approaches used in Scottish education for citizenship enables pupils to experience citizenship actively (HMIE, 2006a). Many schools have acknowledged the significance of education for citizenship and are working towards its establishment in the curriculum and the active involvement of children in certain areas of school life (HMIE, 2006a).

LTS (2002) argue that the following aspects of school life should be considered to achieve learning and development within education for citizenship:

- children's participation in the decisions and activities of daily school life;
- the curriculum content studied throughout the school life;
- cross-curricular activities such as those carried out for enterprise, international awareness or drama;
- community activities such as environmental projects and community service.

All of these aspects can be categorized into three key areas put forward by Huddleston and Kerr (2006) and which are basic for a whole school approach to citizenship education – citizenship in the curriculum, citizenship in the life of the school and citizenship through community involvement.

According to LTS (2002), the citizenship that education should aim to develop and achieve should be thoughtful and responsible, based on respect and care for people, human society, the natural world and the environment. It also needs to be active in that young people should be able to take action and participate in various communities. The teaching and promotion of citizenship in the classroom or the community should be underpinned by the notion that citizenship is most effectively

learned through experience and social interaction.

The following sections will now examine and discuss the ways in which education for citizenship can be developed at classroom, whole school and community level.

2.6.1 Developing Citizenship at Classroom Level

> "When education for citizenship starts in the right way – with direct first hand experience of active citizenship through classroom and school councils – it makes a vital contribution to pupils' overall education" (Gold, 1999, p. 30).

This statement illustrates the importance and influence of citizenship education beginning in the classroom. For LTS (2002), effective education for citizenship requires learning experiences that encourage active engagement and is meaningful to children, which means that the classroom ethos must, therefore, be positive and challenging; underpinned by respect for others; stimulating and motivating; encouraging enterprising and constructive thinking. LTS (2002) discuss three significant aspects of classroom citizenship – the professional contribution; studies within specific curricular areas or subjects; and cross-curricular experiences. These will now be analysed in detail by relating to other key literature.

2.6.1.1 The Professional Contribution

LTS (2002) suggest that all teachers can contribute to education for citizenship in the following ways – teaching content and methodology; making connections between principles and social and community experience; developing positive relationship with children, listening to and considering their views. Devine (2002) also refers to these aspects when discussing the contexts within which teachers can develop education for citizenship but seems to express a more thorough awareness of the complex nature of such contexts than LTS (2002) do:

> "With respect to children's citizenship, where adult-child, teacher-pupil relations are framed in terms of voice, belonging and active participation,

children will be empowered to define and understand themselves as individuals with the capacity to act and exercise their voice in a meaningful manner on matters of concern to them" (Devine, 2002, p. 307).

Kiwan (2007) stresses that teachers must have a clear concept of democracy and related themes as well as an understanding of how they inter-relate and differ. Furthermore, "a pedagogy emphasising active communication and problem-solving should be an important part of developing a process towards inclusive participative citizenship" (p. 233). This indicates that effective participatory citizenship does not simply consist of taking part in activities but also essentially involves constructive interactions and tackling real life issues that include all children of all backgrounds. This process should be inherent in all education for citizenship programs in order to develop *all* children as active citizens that will participate in society and bring about change.

According to Leighton (2004, p. 169), "citizenship education appears to be understood by many outside classrooms and staffrooms as a fact or a skill, rather than as a concept, a process or an ideological artefact". This perception is evident in the QCA guidelines and the comments of teachers collected in the research conducted by Leighton (2004) who implemented a study of four secondary schools in England and focused on one of them. He aimed to analyse how some secondary schools approached the introduction of citizenship education, with the view that the plans would collapse if there was no school commitment. He acknowledges that although commitment does not automatically lead to success, it is a starting point.

Biesta (2008) identifies one of the potential major drawbacks of the Scottish approach which is that because all professionals are responsible for contributing to education for citizenship, no single person becomes responsible for it. This means that the Scottish approach does not allow or encourage teachers to develop specialist knowledge and skills about citizenship and democracy. As Smith (2003) identifies, an effective inquiry-based citizenship curriculum requires the following key characteristics within teachers:

- "A basic training in human rights and responsibilities;
- An interest and knowledge of social, cultural, civic, political, legal, economic, environmental, historical and contemporary affairs;
- A disposition towards inter-disciplinary learning;
- A commitment to inquiry-based learning;
- Skilled in facilitating experiential learning;
- Ability to draw on multiple resources;
- Confident in addressing controversial issues;
- Sensitive to the emotional dimensions of learning;
- Ability to assess student learning outcomes" (p. 15).

2.6.1.2 Studies within specific curricular areas or subjects

LTS (2002) state that learning and teaching within specific curricular areas or subjects can significantly contribute to education for citizenship from 3-18 and that the main challenge for educational practitioners is to provide each child with an effective education for citizenship through a variety of well planned and progressive learning experiences. Throughout the primary school and early secondary years, children's study of all the curricular topics and subjects enables them to develop and apply the knowledge, skills and dispositions necessary for being active and responsible citizens (LTS, 2002).

At a conference convened by the Institute for Global Ethics UK Trust with the support of the Gordon Cook Foundation, Professor Bart McGettrick explored notions of pedagogy that would be appropriate in relation to education for citizenship. During the conference, McGettrick (2003) reported on views expressed by Ruth Deakin Crick and her colleagues in Bristol who put forward that the dispositions needed for effective learning are similar to the dispositions required in an effective citizen. They refer to these as the "seven dimensions of learning power which are:

- Changing and learning
- Making meaning

- Critical curiosity

- Creativity

- Learning relationships

- Strategic awareness

- Resilience" (p. 9).

These dimensions indicate the complexity of learning in education for citizenship in that certain factors need to be present for effective learning to occur. They clearly illustrate that the development of citizens in the classroom does not simply involve the delivery of lessons about related topics but that it is contingent upon an interlinking series of conditions, systems and relationships embedded within the classroom settings and the curriculum. Smith (2003) also points to the importance of curriculum organisation that allows the development of citizens as he states that, "the curriculum should be *inquiry-based*, that is, it raises questions for critical investigation, rather than presents facts for uncritical consumption" (p. 14). Again, this also indicates that embedding citizenship in the curriculum does not simply consist of direct teaching about citizenship related topics. It requires the exploration of key questions relating to concepts of diversity, equality and democratic participation in society as well as the enquiry about citizen rights and responsibilities which is the essence of a citizenship programme (Smith, 2003).

Leighton (2004, p. 179) identifies four curricular models for presenting citizenship:

"1. As a discrete subject;
 2. As part of PSHE;
 3. Integrated into the existing curricular subjects;
 4. Special focus events;
 5. Ignoring statutory requirements."

The four schools studied for his research were all active in implementing education for citizenship but had varying approaches. Schools A and B taught citizenship both as discrete lessons and integrated it into the PSHE programme. On the other hand,

schools C and D did not provide citizenship as a discrete subject but integrated it into the explicit curriculum. Leighton (2004) points out that the first four models do not have to be independent of each other. For example, school A adopted the first four models but mainly focused on model 1. He also suggests that schools that do not follow model 1 will be more likely also to not adopt any of the other approaches. Models 1-4 allow a variety of activities, whether using each one completely or in varying degrees (Leighton, 2004).

Devine (2002) argues that although curricular programmes that include citizenship education are necessary, it is essential that education for citizenship is not solely contained in curricular content but is structured on the recognition that children are actual citizens, not potential citizens. In order for education for citizenship to be successful, it needs to explore issues of identity and must take account of the nature of power and control between teachers and pupils. As Spencer (2000) reports, modern schools continue to be structured and organised in hierarchies, with empowerment, democracy and children's experiences usually thought of as threatening teachers' authority and control. However, research evidence, such as that collated by Maitles and Deuchar (2006), shows the effectiveness of the participatory classroom.

Maitles and Deuchar (2006) implemented a research project which aimed to develop citizenship values through democratic learning styles in a large Religious and Moral Education class in a Scottish secondary school. The purpose was to investigate whether "a participative learning style and citizenship curriculum content in core RME altered pupils' citizenship values" (Maitles and Deuchar, 2006, p. 260). Although the timescale of the project is not indicated, the outcomes of the project were favourable to the development of citizenship values. There was a positive classroom atmosphere during teamwork with responsible behaviour from pupils. Discipline was strong with both pupils and the teacher monitoring behaviour. The class teacher, other teaching staff, the pupils involved and their parents reported a significant enhancement in the dispositions, values, attitudes and learning of the class. Eighty seven percent of pupils acknowledged the improvement in their learning as a result of the teacher's efforts to involve them.

Although Maitles and Deuchar (2006) avoid generalising from this study, they express the importance of the project in that it put the theory of the democratic classroom into practice and proved that it can be achieved and that it is practical and productive. The teacher in the study, who previously was more autocratic, progressively established a democratic role, and felt great satisfaction from the improvement in the children. The teacher also felt the democratic style was a productive way of communicating informed values. This notion is reinforced by Brandes and Ginnis (1995, p. 12) who state that "values may be communicated more through method than content ...... they must ooze from the methodology." However, to achieve such a success may not be an easy task and teachers could face challenges and concerns that will have to be tackled carefully. Such challenges and concerns were identified by the teacher in the study by Maitles and Deuchar (2006). Some of these challenges reported were the potential risks of pupils taking advantage of their empowerment and new rights; how to deal with dissenters and ensuring they are heard; ensuring that all pupils' expectations are met; evaluating own courage and skills required such as negotiation and compromise and being able to accept pupils' decisions. Rudduck and Flutter (2004, p. 147) are also aware of such type of concerns as they report that teachers particularly worry about "being on the receiving end of personal criticism." Teachers also fear the challenge of the familiar hierarchical structure of the classroom (Waiton, 2001). Despite this, the experiences of teachers reported in Maitles and Deuchar (2006) demonstrate that where greater democratic approaches are implemented, the teachers and pupils benefit hugely as their relationships and learning develop more effectively (Maitles and Deuchar, 2006).

On the other hand, Ruddock and Flutter (2004), argue that the consultation process can fail to benefit pupils because of existing power issues in the school structure and even the strategies for pupil consultation. Furthermore, "teachers in Britain have become so accustomed to every detail of the curriculum being decided from above that the idea of negotiation sounds almost revolutionary" (Wrigley, 2003, p. 134).

Maitles and Deuchar (2006) emphasise that developing a democratic classroom is a

challenging task that requires mutual respect and trust. Meeting pupils' expectations needs substantial unseen input so it should be introduced gradually. If teachers do not fully commit to the democratic approach employed in the classroom or do not allow pupil empowerment, they would hinder pupils' understanding of democracy (Maitles and Deuchar, 2006). Their research project has shown that there are successful initiatives being practised in schools that develop pupils' interest, knowledge, skills and dispositions in citizenship and democracy.

2.6.1.3 Cross-curricular experiences

LTS (2002) point out that although traditional subjects are an important medium for education for citizenship, some aspects of it can only be attained through cross-curricular approaches. These include:

- Organising whole school events that demonstrate the school's determination of education for citizenship e.g. assemblies and community forums;
- Providing opportunities for children to apply knowledge and understanding of various subject to cross-curricular studies such as European studies, anti-racist and global education.

Such cross-curricular experiences support single subject studies and help reinforce children's ability to deal with issues sensibly.

Alexander (2001) also advocates citizenship across the curriculum and states that the quality of the whole curriculum can be improved by citizenship through democratic teaching approaches and exploring the social and ethical aspects of all subjects. He also maintains that effective teaching motivates children to learn and understand the global aspects of subjects and that these types of teaching approaches require teachers' interests in their subject and its global relevance, and a commitment to each pupil. Alexander (2001) coins the phrase 'citizenship school' in which the whole curriculum enhances young people's understanding of life, society and themselves – past, present and future. To make citizenship education effective, children have to be

engaged as citizens dealing with particular social issues that they can change. This makes it a considerable challenge for teachers which they cannot face alone. They need to engage other members of the community which can make teaching more empowering, interesting and motivating (Alexander, 2001).

Alexander (2001) puts forward the following elements of an empowering classroom and curriculum which aim to effectively and positively share power. Many of these elements are similar to those emphasised by the writers in this review. Alexander provides specific examples on the methods through which these elements can be applied and achieved which many teachers may find helpful as a guide for their own practice in the classroom:

"1. Developing a sense of self as a person, learner and agent in the world;
 2. Partnership with parents;
 3. Sharing responsibility for learning;
 4. Clarifying values and virtues;
 5. Learning to learn;
 6. Emotional literacy and understanding feelings;
 7. Thinking skills, applied to real as well as hypothetical and historical problems;
 8. Inquiry and research skills, testing ideas against evidence;
 9. Communication skills, including listening, drawing, writing and discussing;
 10. Skills of participation and action, including team-work, negotiating, decision-making and planning;
 11. Acquiring socially powerful knowledge;
 12. Self-assessment and evaluation of the work of others" (p. 63).

Alexander (2001) explores the ways in which each of these points are significant to the development and empowerment of an effective citizen and outlines appropriate classroom approaches for establishing them. The points put forward by Alexander reflect the challenging and complex nature of the varying aspects that are involved in a citizenship classroom. It comprises a broad range of experiences that reflect the qualities that create a practising citizen of a democracy.

Another key element of an empowering classroom which Alexander (2001) has not explicitly acknowledged is the classroom council. Much of the literature in the citizenship field particularly focuses on pupil councils and presents them as whole school approaches to pupil voice rather than a classroom approach. However, both school and classroom councils represent self-governing small communities in which everyone matters and their views are considered and taken seriously. As Gold (1999) explains, effective school councils consist of three important elements – classroom councils, school councils and charters of behaviour:

Classroom councils – meetings are regularly held in the classroom and every pupil is encouraged to actively contribute to their classroom community. Pupils develop responsible behaviour and caring attitudes towards their peers and the school;

School councils – at least two representatives from every classroom form the school council. The school council agenda should be taken seriously and should be allocated time for meetings, giving feedback to the classroom council and reporting to staff and management. School councils require support from an associated teacher;

Charter of behaviour – in collaboration with the class and school council, pupils devised a charter of behaviour. Pupils are responsible for following and maintaining it rather than teachers imposing policies and expected behaviour.

As Gold (1999) illustrates, the pupil council is not just a whole school approach but can be just as active in the classroom.

2.6.2 Developing citizenship at whole school level

> "Whole school approaches seek to integrate all aspects of education by linking formal education; what happens in classrooms with non-formal education; what happens in other aspects of school and informal education; what happens in community life that influences learning" (Shallcross *et al*, 2007, p. 73).

This statement represents a holistic view of the ideal approach to developing citizenship education at whole school level as advocated in many ways by various researchers and writers. To illustrate the above statement, Shallcross *et al* (2007) refer to a five-strand whole school approach to Environmental Education (EE) and Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) devised by Shallcross (2003, as cited in Shallcross *et al*, 2007) (see figure 1). These approaches allow the integration of teaching and learning with the school's social culture, organisational structure, technical and economic aspects. According to Shallcross *et al* (2007), the socio-organisational strand is the most essential to whole school approaches because it provides the basis for participation and collaboration that approaches and integrates the other strands with each other.
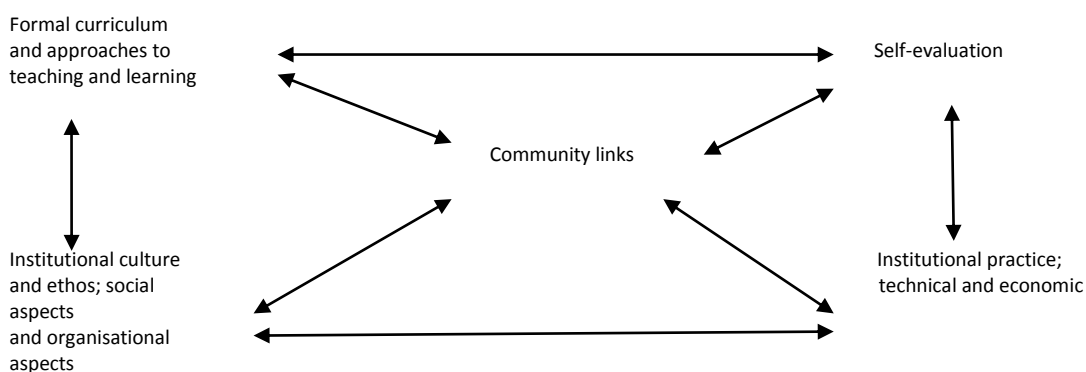
Formal curriculum and approaches to teaching and learning

Self-evaluation

Community links

Institutional culture and ethos; social aspects and organisational aspects

Institutional practice; technical and economic

Figure 1: The five strands of a whole school approach to EE/ESD
(Shallcross, 2003 as cited in Shallcross *et al*, 2007, p. 74)

Moreover, if active citizenship is to be promoted by education, childhood has to be viewed as part of society and pupils recognised as social agents (Rudduck and Flutter, 2000). This view is a key consideration for schools aiming to embed education for citizenship in order to shape future societies. The views of CCC (1986, p. 48) can reinforce this significant notion:

> "Human beings are social beings and must live together to live at all, and they must, therefore, consciously organise themselves for living together."

This key skill is not something that can be developed naturally within children. It is

something that needs to be taught through explicit and implicit teaching and the experience of social activities. In order to develop the ability in children to live together in a community, schools must enable them to explore existing social structures, how and why they were established, other possible alternatives and the values that underpin certain social structures (CCC, 1986). Furthermore, relating education for citizenship to whole school development would encourage the growth of pupil participation in schools because teachers generally favour whole school development (Shallcross *et al*, 2007).

Davies *et al* (1999) emphasise the importance of the hidden curriculum which refers to all the aspects that are learnt during the school experience other than the school curriculum. It can include a variety of expressions such as behaviour, timetabling, ways that people communicate with each other and the ethos of the school. If the hidden curriculum is not managed and explored effectively, there will be a lack of opportunities for citizenship education. Davies *et al* (1999) also state the importance of holding citizenship related whole school events as significant ways of promoting citizenship at whole school level.

Furthermore, as Alexander (2001) insists, the feature that makes a citizenship school distinctive is that the social environment is not governed solely by the management team and teachers in order to achieve the attainment of pupils and teaching staff, but that "all groups share the power and responsibility to create their social environment" (p. 62).

2.6.2.1 Participation by young people in decision making

> "It is perhaps by systematically engaging young people in evaluating and designing educational provision that we will move towards rigorous and sustainable development for the 21st century" (Frost & Holden, 2008, p. 94).

This statement indicates the significance and influence of pupils' involvement and voice in reviewing and modifying educational experiences at classroom, whole

school and community level. It is a statement that has been advocated by an abundance of literature (LTS, 2002; Rudduck, 2003; Kirby *et al*, 2003; Ross *et al*, 2007) related to pupil voice and how young people can use their voices to actively engage in and contribute to their own learning environments.

According to LTS (2002), pupil participation is the key to learning citizenship through experience which many local authorities and schools have established enthusiastically. They also argue that the principles of pupil participation should:

- Acknowledge the views of each member of the school community;
- Explore lesson content and teaching;
- Consult with pupils and take their views into account;
- Allocate the decision making processes to appropriate resources such as pupil councils;
- Provide opportunities for feedback and response when contradictions arise between the views of children and the management team of the school.

The principles of pupil participation outlined by LTS (2002) above illustrate that pupil voice essentially involves consulting with pupils about matters that affect the school. It can include discussions about teaching and learning, asking pupils' opinions about new initiatives, seeking suggestions on how to resolve issues that are affecting teaching and learning and inviting evaluations on school developments or classroom policy and practice. Rudduck (2003) expresses the importance that pupil voice has in education for citizenship as she states that "helping pupils to articulate their views as members of the school community is a central feature of citizenship education ....." (p. 10).

Rudduck (2003) outlines four particular approaches to consultation that could be used across the curriculum:

- Question-based approaches (e.g. quick-response questionnaires and spot-check evaluations);

- Writing-based approaches (e.g. questionnaire, sentence completion, logs and diaries);
- Talk-based approaches (discussion and interviews);
- Image-based approaches (drawings, painting, photographs and posters).

Specific strengths and weaknesses are identified for each approach which suggests that different methods can be used to encourage and ensure that all pupil voices are heard in ways that are appropriate to different children.

For Frost and Holden (2008), pupils making a positive contribution to education intrinsically involves schools asking pupils about how they can be helped to achieve a whole education and being allowed to make decisions on how to provide the necessary requirements. For Barber (2009), pupil participation is much more than a pupil activity:

> "In many ways, seeing youth participation as an activity is flawed – it is in fact a *process* which involves a range of dynamics acting and reacting in both a negative and positive manner" (p. 28).

This statement implies that pupil participation should be viewed as a learning 'process' as opposed to 'activity'. The word 'process' suggests that more learning occurs when children engage in activities and respond positively and negatively to arising situations within such contexts. Process also involves the idea of continual and consistent learning of knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes as opposed to the random learning of facts. The word 'activity', on the other hand, suggests more of an instructional series of actions that pupils have to go through mechanically but does not necessarily guarantee the achievement of learning. In this respect, regarding pupil participation as a process can articulate the value of the learning that is involved and, therefore, can attach more significance to enabling this in the classroom and throughout the school.

There are several examples in literature where writers treat participation as more than

just an activity. For example, Kirby *et al* (2003, p. 22) provides a model of the types of participation that are particularly relevant to the situations young people experience. The four levels of participation are:

- "Children / young people's views are taken into account by adults;
- Children / young people are involved in decision-making (together with adults);
- Children / young people share power and responsibility for decision-making with adults;
- Children / young people make autonomous decisions."

Participation is, therefore, influenced by context and the key aspects of decision-making, autonomy and partnership.

Flutter and Rudduck (2004, p.16) provide a "ladder of pupil participation" which outlines a useful structure that shows the different kinds of pupil consultation and participation:

4. Pupils as fully active participants and co-researchers;
3. Pupils as researchers;
2. Pupils as active participants;
1. Listening to pupils;
0. Pupils not consulted.

Here, the ranking of participation suggests that it is a process that can be improved in quality depending on the emphasis that schools place on it. The "ladder of participation" is a useful quality indicator for schools to analyse the extent to which the experiences they provide their pupils are allowing them to develop this valuable learning process.

In Scotland, school councils are the most popular ways of involving children in decision making and making changes to the establishment. Maitles and Deuchar

(2006) acknowledge the popular recognition of pupil councils as an important means for effective citizenship and the ways that they can significantly contribute to making children feel some responsibility for the school community. Baginsky and Hannam (1999) extend this argument by stating that pupil councils can be a significant approach for showing children that they are respected and acknowledged as active participants but must be represented as the essence of school-wide democratic practice.

However, whilst the concept of pupil councils sounds thorough and constructive in theory, the reality can show a different picture. As a consequence, the potential benefits of such councils as widely claimed may not be fulfilled for every child. There is a great concern among some writers about the level of impact that pupil councils have on actual school change as highlighted by Maitles and Deuchar (2006, p. 251):

> "There is a danger that the management style of the pupil council results in pupils merely being 'consulted and informed' or, at worst, experiencing tokenistic forms of participatory practice where they seem to have a voice but where the school hierarchy remains unchallenged."

According to Maitles and Deuchar (2006), research indicates some tokenistic practices where pupils' suggestions are simply just listened to or important issues are not taken seriously which could be the result of unchanged school authoritarianism and / or the pressures of attainment targets and curriculum requirements. According to Barber (2009), it is evident that young people in various contexts are not given the opportunities to participate but are merely being consulted and that it is crucial to acknowledge this distinction in order to develop a truly democratic way of interacting with young people. Consultation with children involves asking them to consider and deliberate on certain issues or proposals and provide a justification and reasoned arguments for and against them. Participation follows this where children are able to carry out their decisions and take action. Consultation and participation should be a connected and interdependent process where consultation is the first key

step and participation is the second. If pupils are consulted and not given opportunities to participate, they are only then engaging in half of the process of change.

Despite these criticisms, recent research has indicated that participation is practised in varying forms in Scottish schools and that pupil councils are widely the most popular ways of involving children in the running of the school. However, what is lacking from this research is whether or not these forms of participation are the most effective ways of pupil involvement. Ross *et al* (2007) examined the understanding of pupil participation and citizenship in a teacher-to-teacher discourse and focused on Scottish teachers and headteachers. The authors analysed 14 case study texts written by teachers about pupil participation initiatives which were valuable and informative for exploring teachers' understanding of pupil participation and its purpose. The reports analysed described various activities that allowed young people to participate. The most common activity mentioned in all the case studies was the school council. Two of the case studies discussed the school council in depth whereas others mentioned it by name. Most reports did not explain which pupils could stand for election, the process of becoming council members, who and how they represented pupils, how issues are put forward and by whom, and how decisions are communicated to the school. The reports that did provide details on these aspects seemed to do so to prove that the school council was taken seriously. Most of the case studies also talked about other ways of enabling pupil participation such as the election of senior pupils to join school boards, school or year group forums and working groups to promote certain practises like healthy eating. Informal mechanisms were also used such as focus groups or informal discussions and surveys of pupils that asked about their views on various issues. Many primary schools, in particular, also reported on a variety of activities that involved children, in order to demonstrate their participatory ethos. Such activities included paired reading schemes, buddy schemes, peer counselling, home-school networks, Circle Time, classroom responsibilities, independent and after-school study and monthly newsletters.

The case studies analysed by Ross *et al* (2007) reported various outcomes for enabling pupils to participate in decision-making. Schools that elaborated on their school councils discussed the outcomes to illustrate their councils' authenticity. The reports showed that the councillors were important to communicate information between management and pupils. Councils also developed communication and negotiating skills and self-confidence. Some schools, however, felt that participation needed to be more inclusive of the wider school population. The schools in the reports seemed to acknowledge the limited use of pupil councils and had established a wide range of other participatory activities. The benefits of these other mechanisms for participation were discussed in the texts with the most common benefits being improved behaviour, engagement, motivation and attendance. Other benefits included the enhancement of various skills such as listening, communication, problem-solving, team work and decision-making. There was also a marked improvement in pupils' self-esteem, self-confidence, empowerment, curricular attainment and achievement. Most schools stated that direct participation in a range of activities made pupils feel positive and motivated about this process.

The literature reviewed in relation to pupil councils suggests that the way they are practised in schools needs further progression. It seems that schools are establishing pupil councils as activities, rather than as a process of learning. In light of the review, it can be argued that the stance put forward by Barber (2009) in relation to the importance of viewing participation as a process rather than as an activity, should be given more credit. Perhaps the schools that are unable to justly use their councils at the expense of neglecting their pupils' democratic voices and actions, should change the way they view councils. Perhaps the viewing and treating of councils as an essential process of learning to participate in society, could enable the progress of the way they are established in schools. This may also inhibit the threat that some schools may have of letting pupils challenge their hierarchy and take action based on their suggestions. Schools should essentially be a representation of the democratic society that exists in the real world. If children are to view school as a model of the way society operates and learn about the way citizenship should be practised, then there is a reason to be concerned about the educational contexts that they are

experiencing in schools. For children to learn about true democracy, they need to experience true democracy. Challenging the political structure of society, both vocally and practically, should be a natural part of being a democratic citizen and a fundamental right of all citizens. However, if children are not being taught such an aspect of citizenship through particular educational experiences, then it will be difficult for schools to claim that they are equipping children to become adult citizens in a democratic society.

2.6.3 Developing Citizenship at Community Level

The importance of community participation and service has been advocated by many writers as a key element of education for citizenship. Active citizenship promotes the idea of community, citizenship and empowerment and is not merely raising the level of public participation. As Stoker (2004, p. 2) states:

> "It demands participation with a purpose. That purpose is to engage people in making their communities better places for themselves and for those around them."

Annette (2000) argues that service learning (community-based learning or active learning in the community) is an imperative element of citizenship education because it promotes active involvement, civic values and political knowledge and that the citizenship learning outcomes will be most effectively attained by linking the development of political literacy and critical thinking skills with active learning in the community. As Annette (2000) explains, 'service learning' is a learning approach that creates a structured activity in civic participation which can develop the essential skills required for active citizenship and also provides an opportunity to develop political knowledge and the skills for undertaking reflective understanding. He also emphasises that the citizenship curriculum should include the approaches of values in education, political literacy and experiential learning in the community and that education for citizenship should involve experiential learning as it can result in increased civic and political participation. Furthermore, civic participation and civic

virtues are essential to preserve citizen rights and freedom (Annette, 2000). Civic participation, which involves greater political participation, is a significant role for an individual in a democratic nation and an education for citizenship must create the opportunity for young people to actively participate in politics. An education for citizenship that greatly involves young people in society, especially through service learning in the community, also significantly instils civic virtue and political literacies and can progress to values (Annette, 2000).

Alexander (2001) also supports the importance of community involvements and suggests that pupils, parents and other adults can participate in community enterprise where they organise services that offer real advantages and provide learning opportunities e.g. organising a school fair. LTS (2002) assert that schools should operate as active learning communities that encourage all members to participate and make effective links and partnerships with the local communities. Such learning communities can demonstrate the characteristics and principles of education for citizenship. The quality of a school's organisation, management, professional relationship and interactions with children, parents and community members can all display significant messages of what democratic societies are like in practice (LTS, 2002). Involving children in community projects to study social and environmental issues has been a long tradition in Scottish schools. As LTS (2002) claim, such practices are essential for developing active and responsible citizens. Local communities are effective learning resources and provide contexts in which real community issues can be explored. There are also opportunities for schools and community education agencies to collaborate with each other and contribute their expertise and experience to devise a program for children to explore real-life community issues (LTS, 2002).

However, as Biesta (2008) identifies, the underlying assumption of the LTS (2002) document is the existence of different types of community. These communities can be of place (from local to global) and of interest and the rights and responsibilities within these communities can be exercised and enjoyed. Although the document acknowledges that this view of citizenship denotes political participation of citizens,

it also suggests the idea that citizenship welcomes a variety of participatory activities, not just political, that contribute to community well being. Such non political activities include voluntary work, involvement in local initiatives and parent-teacher associations. This perspective and expression of the domain of citizenship demonstrates that citizenship involves political participation but is not solely restricted to this area. This makes the Scottish approach "based on … a social rather than an exclusively political conception of citizenship" (Biesta, 2008, p. 8) which interprets citizenship as belonging to and taking responsibility for their communities. Active and responsible participation is, therefore, based on individual membership of and contribution to communities. This elicits the question about what the role of the political dimension in the Scottish conception of citizenship actually is. According to Biesta (2008), the Curriculum for Excellence document does not overtly pinpoint citizenship qualities on political and democratic aspects but focuses mainly on social activities. The HMIE (2006a) Education for Citizenship document also follows this lead as the articulation of citizenship is mainly towards society and the importance of pupil involvement in decision-making at school level is stressed. This shows that the HMIE regard the school as the key environment and experience for developing citizenship and the most effective methodology is active involvement and participation. Little connection is made between citizenship and the political dimension. The HMIE document, therefore, places significance on the social aspects of citizenship (Biesta, 2008).

For Biesta (2008), the most effective avenues through which children learn about citizenship are from their practical experiences and contexts of citizenship. Such life experiences make the true contribution to citizenship learning which demonstrates how important it is for learners to go through positive experiences that allow participation and decision making. For this reason, Biesta (2008) strongly agrees with the statement made in the 2002 Education for Citizenship document which is that "young people learn most about citizenship by being active citizens" (LTS, 2002, p. 3).

2.7 How does the new Curriculum for Excellence encompass and develop education for citizenship?

The new Curriculum for Excellence also provides a significant basis for education for citizenship in Scotland as it has given rise to the importance of enabling all children to develop their capacities as successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors to society. The values, aims, outcomes, principles and the structure of the new curriculum make explicit references to the development of citizenship qualities in children which interlink and incorporate education for citizenship into the new curriculum. In this way, it contributes to the development of future citizens and embraces and commits to education for citizenship and the development of well informed, responsible and active citizens. This shows that the new curriculum should provide the basis for education for citizenship in schools. HMIE (2006a) discuss and exemplify the various ways education for citizenship can be developed within the four capacities and, therefore, demonstrate the role that the curriculum can play in the development of this curricular area.

Within the context of 'encouraging responsible citizens', HMIE (2006a) state that developing committed citizens is only possible by helping pupils to embed certain values within themselves and encouraging them to show concern and respect for others and it is the knowledge and understanding of citizen rights and responsibilities and active participation of citizenship that contributes to the development of such values. Pupils must, therefore, learn about political, social, economic, environmental and cultural issues which can be achieved through the curriculum and by direct involvement in school life. On the other hand, the knowledge and understanding developed must be acted upon and correspond with qualities such as respect and concern for others as well as a willingness to get involved and help. The development of citizenship skills must, therefore, be facilitated by the school. Schools can provide opportunities for pupils to be involved in their learning and be consulted on their progression and future action for improvement (HMIE, 2006).

Within the context of 'encouraging successful learners', HMIE (2006a) express that pupils' learning is an essential medium for developing capability for citizenship in schools and that pupils can learn the key elements of citizenship through various experiences, including curricular and cross-curricular programs. Community involvement also enables pupils to practise their citizenship with other citizens, and learning experiences within the classroom and in the local community can develop capability for citizenship. Young children learn a lot when exploring their surroundings. Older children should be encouraged to be critical and creative in thinking and tackle tasks collaboratively and independently. Pupils should be able to experience active citizenship at all levels as such experiences can influence pupils' daily lives (HMIE, 2006a).

For 'encouraging effective contributors', HMIE (2006a) argue that schools need to encourage pupil contributions because effective citizens are active participants of society. To do this, pupils should be consulted about their school activities, be involved with the immediate and local community and consider the values of others. Children need to learn about sustainability and global citizenship which is most effectively achieved by being involved in schemes such as Eco-schools. Opportunities for pupil participation include pupil councils, consultations and representation. Pupils can also be involved in development planning, planning of classroom experiences and their own learning programmes. Schools can instil the importance of community participation by enabling them to become involved in their local community. This allows the community to see active citizenship amongst pupils who are contributing to positive changes to society (HMIE, 2006a).

Within the context of 'encouraging confident individuals', HMIE (2006a) assert that pupils will develop into confident individuals in an environment that promotes participation in school and community life by all children and schools can set good examples of citizenship in practice. Pupils should observe the school as being equal and fair to all people and the nature of school and lesson organization can demonstrate the ways in which communities are inclusive and participative. An

inclusive school ethos which encourages confident individuals is one which permeates all classroom activities. All pupils are provided with relevant activities. Pupils and staff set high expectations. Pupils think critically, participate in debates and develop enterprising attitudes. Pupils progress in a culture of respect for individuals and their communities. By being a good example of citizenship, schools can develop a sense of purpose in children that will increase their confidence to become active citizens (HMIE, 2006a).

Biesta (2008) also acknowledges the strong relationship between education for citizenship and the Curriculum for Excellence as he provides a thorough analysis and characterization of the concept of education for citizenship as expressed in the document and other related documents and pinpoints this concept within related literature. According to Biesta (2008), HMIE (2006a) integrates the ideas of the education for citizenship paper by LTS (2002) with the Curriculum for Excellence framework which, in effect, creates a stronger individualistic perspective of citizenship and education for citizenship than the aforementioned documents themselves. Biesta (2008) provides several reasons for this. Firstly, the HMIE (2006a) document refers to the remaining capacities of the Curriculum for Excellence – confident individuals, effective contributors and successful learners – as a precondition and integral to the capacity of responsible citizenship. Secondly, the HMIE document places an emphasis on the development of citizenship skills which are central to the individual. Thirdly, the HMIE document stresses the need for the development of political, social, environmental and spiritual values which are all personal to the individual. Finally, the document stresses the importance of the development of critical and independent thinking skills within learners. The structure of citizenship education outlined in the HMIE document, therefore, significantly places an emphasis on individuals and their attributes, skills and values. Biesta (2008) is not suggesting that the HMIE (2006a) document confines itself entirely to the individual dimension as he acknowledges that the examples of practice and discussion presented in the document also relate to the school, community and global citizenship.

2.8 The philosophical and policy contexts of education for citizenship

Although the previous section discussed the ways in which education for citizenship is embedded in the Curriculum for Excellence, this section will examine the ways in which it has always been promoted by previous curriculum documents. Therefore, it will be argued that it is important for Scottish primary school teachers to acknowledge that education for citizenship has always been present in educational practice and that it is most effectively taught through its integration and permeation into the curriculum. The recognition and discussion of the long term existence of education for citizenship will also allow a reflection on some of the assumptions made in the Curriculum for Excellence. The examination will particularly focus on three key documents that have influenced the construction of Scottish curriculum – the Primary Memorandum (HMSO, 1965), Education 10-14 (CCC, 1986) and the 5-14 Curriculum.

2.8.1 Primary education in Scotland (HMSO, 1965)

The document 'Primary Education in Scotland' by HMSO (1965), also known as the Primary Memorandum, was the initial key development for education for citizenship in Scotland as it advanced the structure of the primary curriculum and educational experiences for children. Prior to this development, the curriculum laid emphasis on reading, writing and arithmetic and incorporated music; art and handwork; nature study; and physical education. Geography, history, written composition and needlework (in the case of girls) were also an additional part of the curriculum. Whilst these skills and subjects were retained in the Primary Memorandum, other curricular areas were added and particular aspects within the existing subjects were given more importance. Reading, writing, arithmetic, spoken and written English remained core elements of the primary curriculum but more emphasis was placed on the ability to apply these skills practically in realistic and meaningful contexts. In music, creativity was given more emphasis. Arts and crafts now included handwork and needlework for both boys and girls and the subject progressed from focusing on

imitation to self-expression. Nature study was replaced by natural and physical science and allowed pupils to use observation and experiment to explore their environment. The emphasis in physical education was now on using movement more freely to express and develop oneself. History, geography and the sciences were recognised as individual subjects as opposed to beings areas of environmental studies. Drama activities were acknowledged as playing a role in personal and social development.

It is evident from the progression of the curriculum proposed by HMSO (1965) that the process of teaching and learning was beginning to become more child-centred. The importance for children to engage more in activities rather than receive instruction from a teacher was being acknowledged. By referring to learning processes such as observation, experiment and practical application of skills, HMSO (1965) acknowledged teaching and learning as a process rather than an activity. In referring to areas of development such as creativity, self expression and personal development, the document showed consideration to the development of the whole child and implied that school should not only be a place for learning reading, writing and arithmetic, but should also be where a child can grow personally, socially and emotionally.

In light of this principle, HMSO (1965) were placing more emphasis on the emotional and social development of pupils. Values such as truthfulness, honesty, self-control and respect for others were promoted as well as a sense of responsibility to the community and the adoption of a positive attitude towards other fellow human beings. HMSO (1965) acknowledged that such characteristics, attitudes, values and qualities could not be developed effectively through timetabled lessons but essentially through:

> "...the general tone and atmosphere of the school, the organisation and methods it employs, the standards it sets, and the opportunities the pupils are given to participate actively in its work and life" (p. 36).

The reference to the school ethos and atmosphere, organisation, methods and standards by HMSO (1965) demonstrates that they regarded these aspects as playing a key role in implicit education and that the development of personal qualities, attitudes and values is not a straightforward process but is essentially developed implicitly and that all levels of a school's structure contributes to the education of the whole child. Learning, therefore, was not regarded as confined to the classroom but to the whole school. The reference to pupil participation in school work and life by HMSO (1965) also demonstrates their recognition that children should not be mere objects of instruction but actual human beings that can contribute to the activity and running of the school.

HMSO (1965) strongly articulated that education was to be about the personal development of the child as well as academic learning. The process of learning was to be just as important as what was learned. The document expressed that certain academic knowledge, understanding and skills were to be attained by children and the curriculum was to be carefully structured to enable this. However, it also pointed out that failure to achieve this will leave children with a distorted attitude to learning and further self development:

> "Primary education ... will have failed the age and the society it serves if children leave the primary school without the right attitude to learning or the resource and will to continue and further their own education" (HMSO, 1965, p. 37).

This statement also implied the responsibility schools had towards society in that its job was to develop effective citizens who would be able to contribute to society. HMSO (1965) argued that in failing to provide children with an integrated educational experience, schools will have left society with citizens who are unequipped to participate at all levels.

The Primary Memorandum made numerous suggestions about the teaching and learning approaches that could be included in the primary school curriculum. The

examples provided illustrate the view of children being an important part of society and are characteristic of education for citizenship that is articulated in the present study literature review. The most prominent area in the Memorandum that incorporated citizenship related activities and were in Environmental Studies which grouped together arithmetic, history, geography and science. These subjects were considered to provide abundant opportunities for children to observe and investigate their environment as well as encourage their desire to learn about the world around them and develop their skills in interpreting it. According to HMSO (1965, p. 126), it was the teacher's duty to

> "encourage the child to look more closely at his environment, and to help him, through observation and exploration, to isolate, identify and understand the various aspects of his environmental experience and to develop the language he needs to describe them."

The Primary Memorandum consisted of many practical examples of methodology that could be employed in the classroom to promote the different subjects and articulated ideas about the way these areas should be regarded by the teacher. These activities and ideas contained elements that promoted education for citizenship in terms of knowledge and understanding about the world and the ways societies operated. Such examples were particularly prominent in areas of geography, history and science. For example, in history:

> " the child will have a better understanding of his own world and his place in it if his historical studies attempt to add up to the story of mankind rather than of some smaller group (p. 136).

This reflected the notion that a historical issue or event should not be treated in isolation and applied only to the group affected but put into the context of society and be analysed in terms of its political and social build up. Furthermore, the child should have "some understanding of his own times and the society in which he lives" (p. 137) which placed the child in the context of society and acknowledged the

importance of appreciating the ways that societies have developed through social, political, economic and global activities and developments.

The aims of geography were to "foster an interest in and an understanding of man's environment and to help the pupils to acquire certain skills – e.g. to draw tentative conclusions; to present information by word, diagram and map" (p. 137). Furthermore,

> "certain general principles should be established – the dependence of man on water, food, clothing and shelter, and the interdependence of man throughout the world" (p. 138).

These aims reflected the importance of enabling children to understand their environment and the ways in which human beings are interdependent on each other, nationally and globally. Although not stated explicitly, the statements above display an acceptance of citizens' responsibilities towards each other at community, national and global level and their duties to ensure that basic rights are given to fellow human beings.

2.8.2 Education 10-14 in Scotland (CCC, 1986)

This document advanced the Scottish Curriculum promoted in the Primary Memorandum (HMSO, 1965) to a more comprehensive experience for children. The broad aim of education 10-14 was to enable children to learn to "understand themselves, the social world and the physical world" and learn to "live effectively and ethically in the environment" (p. 47). In order to achieve this aim, children were to engage in nine aspects of experience:

1. Understanding the self – the world of inner experience;
2. Living together in a community and in society;
3. Understanding the physical and natural world through science;
4. Understanding and using mathematics;

5. Developing practical skills including designing, making and using artefacts;

6. Physical development and well-being;

7. Expressive and appreciative activities;

8. Communicating;

9. Religious awareness and moral development.

(CCC, 1986, p. 47)

The broad aim of 10-14 can be interpreted as a central theme of education for citizenship with its emphasis on understanding oneself and the world and to live responsibly within it. The nine aspects of experience were key areas for developing education for citizenship as they characterised qualities, skills and understanding necessary to participate effectively in the world. Whilst the second aspect (living together in a community and in society) depicted effective citizenship, and therefore, an essential component for education for citizenship, the remaining eight aspects were also important for developing effective and responsible citizens.

Active learning was made more prominent in the 10-14 curriculum. According to CCC (1986), active learning in the classroom enables children to develop ideas and key social skills such as the:

> "capacities to negotiate ideas, express convictions and uncertainties, sustain and support arguments, listen to, comprehend, deal with the arguments, attitudes and feelings of others. They learn the value and the difficulty of co-operation, the need to exercise toleration and firmness..... They make decisions about how to do things and begin to practise responsibility for their own actions and decisions. They are developing social competence. They are being educated for responsibility as well as for enterprise (p. 38)"

The CCC (1986) acknowledged that whilst it was easy to conclude that the above statements were unrealistic to achieve and hard to assess the skills and competencies, it was not possible to ignore the importance of these outcomes which, therefore, made it necessary to allocate time and opportunities in the curriculum for developing

them. The CCC (1986) also expressed their understanding in the difficulties schools could face in agreeing about the content taught. Whilst it would be possible for professionals to reach a consensus on the importance of some attitudes and social behaviours, others could be difficult to agree on as in a pluralistic society like Britain, there existed a wide spectrum of social values.

The CCC (1986) made several suggestions for tackling the issue of consensus about values. Firstly, schools needed to acknowledge the issues involved and clearly establish and express their social aims and expectations. Secondly, the school's aims and expectations should be the centre of a debate. When developing a school policy, schools should involve parents, the community and pupils themselves in order to reach an agreement on the values that should be instilled through social education. Thirdly, children should be provided with continuous opportunities to express their moral views, to provide justifications for their viewpoints, to consider relevant facts and to approach the arguments presented by others. A strong link existed between the moral and social aspects of education.

CCC (1986) placed much emphasis on the ethos of the school as a mechanism for the expression of desirable values. Social education infiltrated through the school's organisation, its underpinning policies and ethos. A distinction needed to be made between the directly taught lessons, the hidden curriculum and the values teachers communicated through their attitudes, assumptions and behaviours. CCC (1986) urged teachers to recognise this distinction because they needed to be aware that children may not be learning what teachers set out to teach.

The aspect 'Living together in a community and in society' (CCC, 1986. p. 46) made the most apparent links to education for citizenship, particularly the social aspects. CCC (1986, p. 49) believed that "learners' understanding of institutions and events in the larger society should grow in association with insights into their more immediate experience of human behaviour in family, school and community." This denotes an underlying conviction of the CCC (1986) that whilst children should learn about how society operates at all levels, this should be reinforced by what they are learning from their family, school and community in terms of social interaction and relationships.

In other words, children should observe and experience social relationships and living together in a community in order to increase their understanding of societal institutions and all levels of society at large. The family, school and community could then be considered as a representation of the society at large. This perspective created an important implication about the importance of children to have particular experiences in order to develop into educated individuals that could live together in a community. Such implications were that positive and effective educational experiences through the family, school and community were essential for children in order to enable children to develop an appreciation and understanding of how to participate in society at large.

Further comment by CCC (1986) in relation to how to enable children to live together in a community clearly demonstrated the strong links between the curriculum proposed and education for citizenship. They acknowledged that children would possess a variety of opinions, judgements and conclusions about particular aspects of their community and society. They stated that learners could participate in activities that teach them about forming judgements based on facts, evidence, accuracy and reason. When investigating human society and behaviours, learners could explore the distinctions between rational and non-rational opinions, attitudes and actions and be encouraged to evaluate their own values and opinions. For the CCC (1986, p. 49), "this kind of self-awareness, and its corollary of tolerance towards alternative views, are central to the desirable outcomes to which we consider the 10-14 years should contribute."

 According to CCC (1986, p. 49), "social understanding has many facets: economic, geographical, political, historical, sociological and psychological." This demonstrated their conviction that the development of the ability to live together as a community involved the understanding of the different levels of society and that this understanding was necessary to participate effectively in society. Furthermore, it implied the idea of viewing, placing and interpreting individuals within these important contexts of society and recognised that human society was influenced by many factors. These aspects are significant components of education for citizenship.

The statement above about social understanding also showed an element of global citizenship in that the economic, geographical, political, historical, sociological and psychological aspects of the local and national society children live in will have been influenced and shaped by events around the world. Further reference was made to the development of global citizenship when they stated that "essential themes for every school today, include multicultural and international understanding, the effects of technology on society, equality of opportunities, and care of the environment (CCC, 1986, p. 51).

2.8.3 The implications of the Primary Memorandum and the 10-14 curriculum

The analysis of the Primary Memorandum and the 10-14 curriculum above demonstrates the continuous elements of education for citizenship that were embedded within the primary curriculum. However, when comparing the analysis to the literature review of the present study, the absence of particular key elements of education for citizenship can be noted. The documents did not make any explicit reference to the development of children's knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes that enable their participation and contributions to a democratic society or to democratic decision making. They also did not reflect or acknowledge the existence of the diversity of views in society that had led to conflict and the ways of dealing with this nor did it mention the exploration of controversial issues. It seems as though these documents had overlooked the fact that conflict and controversy existed in all societies and that children should just accept what happens in their environment. Although the documents encouraged active learning where children observe, experiment and investigate the world around them, they did not encourage any possibility of being able to bring about change. The documents were precise and comprehensive in the content that children should learn and the process of this learning but did not explore the notion that children should be equipped with knowledge, understanding and skills of the approaches one can use to improve the society, environment and the world. Perhaps this reflects the documents' underlying beliefs that children were incapable or unable to bring about change as this only

happened through the political process which children were not involved in.

2.8.4 The 5-14 Curriculum

Like the preceding documents, whilst the 5-14 Curriculum did not include a specific area entitled 'education for citizenship', it certainly did develop aspects that were related to this. One of the key ways that schools had been practising education for citizenship was through the implementation of certain curriculum areas such as personal and social development, religious and moral education and Circle Time. It will be useful to examine to work of Gilchrist (1999) to illustrate the ways that such areas have been relevant to education for citizenship.

Gilchrist (1999) developed a document that would aid schools to audit and evaluate education for citizenship. Due to the lack of guidelines or agreed definition of citizenship, he examined 5-14 guidelines to identify curricular areas that developed the knowledge, skills and values particularly relevant to citizenship. The four areas identified were people in society (environmental studies); personal and social development; religious and moral education; and
education for work. Within these areas, the aims most related to citizenship were:

- "have an appropriately positive regard for self and for others and their needs (PSD);
- develop life skills to enable pupils to participate effectively and safely in society (PSD);
- identify, review and evaluate the values they and society hold and recognise that these affect thoughts and actions (PSD);
- take increasing responsibility for their own lives (PSD);
- appreciate moral values such as honesty, liberty, justice, fairness and concern for others (RME);
- develop their own beliefs, attitudes, moral values and practices through a process of personal search, discovery and critical evaluation (RME);
- develop their understanding of social groupings, social needs and how they

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are met; social rules, rights and responsibilities; conflict and decision making in society; economic organisation and structures (environmental studies);

- operate confidently and effectively in the changing world of work and the flexible labour markets of the future (Gilchrist, 1999, p. 49).

This examination demonstrates the strong links with citizenship that have been made with the implementation of the 5-14 curriculum. With the emergence of the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002) and the new Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004), the citizenship related practice that was evident throughout the 5-14 curriculum can now be extended to a new higher level. The Citizenship Paper (2002) and the new Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) advance the previous implicit education for citizenship by introducing citizenship related knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes to the curriculum and, therefore, reflects the notion that the extension of education for citizenship is fundamental for learners. This is reinforced by the promotion of the development of active citizenship in the life of the school and the community in these documents.

2.8.5 The role and status of the Curriculum for Excellence

It is important to examine why the Curriculum for Excellence is considered to be a key document in the development of education for citizenship by the present study. To illustrate the appreciation for it, a comparison will be made to another key document that has been influential in the Scottish movement in education for citizenship - the 2002 Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002). For Scottish education, this document has been the basis of several publications within this field such as the evaluations reports of HMIE (2006a and 2006b) and, therefore, the reason for its considerable reference in the present study. Such publications seem to hold Learning and Teaching Scotland as an authority in the area of education for citizenship and greatly respect the advice given in the 2002 Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002). However, it is important to reflect on the structural make up of this organisation in terms of its members, their role and the extent to which their advice can be justifiably the main source of reference.

In the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002, p. 2), Cathy Jamieson, the Minister for Education and Young People states endorses the guidelines as "the basis for a national framework for education for citizenship from 3 to 18 ..." and that "the perspectives and principles set out in this paper ... provide a framework for use by schools and early education establishments, local authorities, HMIE and others to evaluate the extent and quality of provision for education for citizenship." Such a comment from a person who has a strong political role in education provides authorised permission and recommendation to use the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002) as a key document for information about the way education for citizenship should be implemented in schools. However, it is important to question the extent to which Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS) itself can be held as an authoritative lead in education for citizenship.

The Membership of the Review Group from 1999-2001 comprised of 18 members, including the Chair of the group. The members were from various professional backgrounds that held promoted posts in their occupation. These included an HM inspector, a depute headteacher, chief executive of a local council, former university dean of education, a director of social work and an early childhood curriculum officer. The Chair of the group was a professor of curriculum research at a Scottish university. These professional backgrounds make reflect the contribution of knowledge and skills they were able to make towards the construction of the guidelines. It is apparent that the Paper was inputted by professionals from a range of educational establishments that were significant to Scottish education. In this respect, it can be said that the type of information used to devise the guidelines were assumedly of genuine, relevant and valid grounds. In addition to these members, there were 6 Learning and Teaching Scotland Officers but their professional backgrounds were not given in the paper which makes it unclear about the type of knowledge and skills they were able to contribute to the guidelines.

On the contrary, it can be argued that the input of 18 professionals towards a curriculum paper does not qualify it to be a reliable and valid source of advice. One of the major drawbacks about the source of the 2002 Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002)

is that there is no evidence presented about any type of consultation with teachers, parents, pupils or members of the public about the content that should entail education for citizenship. Surely the consultation of these groups of people should be an essential component of educational change as they are directly involved and influenced by the Scottish curriculum and its changes. Without account being taken of such groups of people, it is difficult to claim that the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002) is responsive to and comprehensible by teachers, parents and pupils. Furthermore, the paper provides no evidence of whether any form of research was taken into account which questions the credibility of the advice given. Consultation and reference to research is likely to make a document more credible and qualitatively stronger and this would have strengthened the role of LTS within education for citizenship. An example of how a document can be strengthened is the development of the new Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) which used consultation and research as well as other educational factors to inform the guidelines.

In 2002, through the National Debate on Education, the Scottish Executive conducted a wide-scale consultation of the Scottish population on the climate of school education (Scottish Executive, 2004). The debate involved pupils, parents, teachers and employers who expressed that they wished to retain much of the current curriculum. Some made significant arguments for changes to be made to enable all learners attain educational outcomes successfully and are well-prepared to contribute to the Scottish economy and society, in the present and future (Scottish Executive, 2004). In light of the arguments presented through the National Debate, the Review Group was established in November 2003 to devise the purposes and principles of a new curriculum. This group consisted of 19 significant professionals from the educational field such as directors of education, principal teachers, headteachers and chief executives of educational bodies such as the Scottish Qualifications Authority and Learning and Teaching Scotland. However, unlike the Review Group of the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002), the group set up for the curriculum review took into account current research, international comparisons and global factors that would influence the structure of the curriculum. An overview of children's development

was also considered. The steps taken by the Scottish Executive (2004) to inform the new curriculum clearly demonstrate that it is a relevant, reliable, credible and valid document that can constructively influence change in Scottish education. The adoption of similar strategies by LTS (2002) would have given their publication more credibility.

2.9 The presuppositions of education for citizenship

As the review has explored, the implementation of education for citizenship involves a complex and intricate structure of the provision of learning experiences that will enable children to develop knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes necessary for becoming an effective citizen. The review has drawn heavily on key documents that have played a major role in the movement of education for citizenship in Scotland such as the Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002), the Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) and the evaluation reports of HMIE (2006a and 2006b). The Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002) in particular has become a core text for policy makers, educational managers and teachers. The Curriculum for Excellence and the HMIE (2006a and 2006b) documents have also drawn upon the advice provided by LTS (2002) and, therefore, reflect and share similar perspectives in relation to how education for citizenship could be implemented and the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that should be promoted. On this note, this section will analyse the extent to which the documents mentioned reflect the complexities and challenges of the abstract structures that are required for a true democracy and an education for citizenship. To do this, this section will explore the presuppositions put forward by Crick (1999) which he claims any democratic political education requires for its establishment. Such presuppositions are freedom, toleration, fairness, respect for truth and respect for reasoning. The review presents the argument that the significance and attachment to such core aspects of citizenship and education for citizenship are lacking in publications by LTS (2002), Scottish Executive (2004) and HMIE (2006a and 2006b). Although core values are mentioned in these documents, they do not address the complexities and the issues that surround the teaching of these.

The first argument put forward will be reflective of the discussion in section 2.1.3 regarding the complex nature of the concept of citizenship and the dealing of conflict in society. In a pluralistic society like Britain in which people possess various and differing values, political divisions, ethnic backgrounds, religious beliefs and practices, social culture and individual lifestyles, conflict is inevitable. Such aspects have been known to divide the population in Britain and to create interest groups that seek to persuade the government and the population of its aims and aspirations and to meet their demands. In such a society where different groups of people co-exist, conflict will always be apparent and inevitable. Crick (1999, p. 339) also acknowledges this issue of conflict as he states that "...men both do and should want different things, indeed have differing values ....so pupils must both study and learn to control, to some degree at least, the means by which they reconcile or manage conflicts of interests and ideas, even in school." The Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002), the Curriculum for Excellence (2004) and the HMIE reports (2006a and 2006b), seem to ignore or fail to acknowledge such potential complexities in real society. As key policy makers, it is incumbent on them to show such awareness and, consequently, declare their appreciation of the challenging task that teachers have in the classroom if they are to prepare their pupils for the real world. In order to further explore and appreciate the complexities of implementing education for citizenship, this section will exemplify and analyse three of the five presuppositions put forward by Crick (1999) and argue that key policy documents in citizenship need to acknowledge the complex reality of the society children live in and to value the challenge education for citizenship poses to Scottish teachers. The three presuppositions that will be discussed in this section are freedom, toleration and fairness – three values that are often mentioned in literature that examines the content that should be taught to children in education for citizenship programmes. Although these values are mentioned in key Scottish documents explored in this review, the strategies or approaches for their development and their underlying issues are thinly explored.

2.9.1 Freedom

According to Crick (1999), political freedom is about being able to choose the public activities that one wishes to engage in and not be forced to make particular choices. Crick (1999, p. 343) makes the important point that "without freedom there can be neither knowledge of nor voluntary participation in politics." He further points out that it would be paradoxical to conceptualise a political education that did not promote freedom.

Freedom is not just about being free from imposed activities and instructions but also about being able to choose between alternatives. Although freedom involves the ability to exercise choice, these will be limited by personal and religious values. If freedom is to be a component of education for citizenship, it needs to be explored and encouraged within children within the school experience. Learning about freedom is not simply about how rights and privileges were gained in history. This has an important implication for the citizenship curriculum in schools which is that pupils and teachers should be able to choose the issues they would like to explore and discuss. They should be able to have some contribution to the construction and content of the curriculum. It is not suggested that pupils receive a curriculum that is entirely decided by pupils but have some elements of the curriculum that involves pupil choice of activities and content.

2.9.2 Toleration

For Crick (1999), toleration is the extent to which people accept things of which they do not approve. Without disapproval, there is no need for toleration. Crick (1999) describes it as a two-dimensional concept: it involves disapproving of something but restraining the self from offending. In other words, "to be tolerant is to express or imply a disapproval, but in a fair way and without forcing it on another" (p. 344). Crick (1999) stresses the importance of distinguishing between toleration and permissiveness for education for citizenship and illustrates the complexity that can arise when dealing with such concepts. As he points out, 'permissiveness' can imply

that one is not concerned about a person or a pattern of social behaviour or it could mean that one has completely accepted them. A caring citizen can indeed favour toleration in the sense of allowing a particular behaviour but expressing disapproval of it. As far as Crick (1999) is concerned, tolerance is an approach to living together in a society that contains conflicts of values, and can be learned in early primary in classroom discussions and Circle Time. Even more challenging for a teacher is Crick's (1999) suggestion that neutrality should not be encouraged in children because "to be biased is human and to attempt to unbias people is to emasculate or silence them" (p. 344). He is not suggesting that bias should be condemned at all costs but extreme bias that creates misconceptions of other interests, groups and ideas. Teachers and educational establishments should not be criticised for bias or any practices designed to maintain themselves and their identities. Condemnation of them should only occur when they behave intolerably or deliberately withhold certain facts, opposing viewpoints and challenging theories (Crick, 1999).

2.9.3 Fairness

For Crick (1999), although fairness is commonly used, it is quite a vague term as the interpretation and degree of what is considered fair can vary amongst individuals and social groups. Fairness is about what people would regard as an acceptable way of making decisions irrespective of the outcome. According to Crick (1999) the politically educated person will question the fairness of the way goods, rewards and praise are given out. He or she will or will not decide that something is fair by being questioned or questioning whether there is a better way of doing something that is acceptable to others.

This raises several implications for classroom practice. A teacher will need to acknowledge such issues of fairness and appreciate the fact that fairness as a concept may differ amongst particular social groups which is something that will need to be explored in the classroom. It is important to acknowledge that fairness can vary in conception between different groups of society as well as individuals.

In real life society, the issue of fairness is more prominent in national and public debates about particular constitutional laws that oppose religious or social beliefs and any condemnation of these are usually justified by human rights. In the classroom setting, such issues or fairness arise usually with regards to the teacher's reward and punishments for pupils. As any teacher will report, children are very quick to identify slight instances of treatment they regard as unfair. A typical example of this is when the disruptive child is praised a lot more when he or she behaves whereas the consistently well behaved child is praised minimally and his or her good nature taken for granted. It is important for teachers to be aware of such subtleties in classroom culture and be aware of the potential impact of these on the teaching of values. In other words, teachers should practise what they teach. In teaching children to be fair to others, they must also show fairness to their pupils and be aware of the implicit messages they portray. They should do their best to avoid contradictions in their relationships with pupils and the expression of their values.

The mentioning of core values in the Scottish publications explored in this review may look constructive but the practice of education for citizenship in actual classroom settings and the awareness of the approaches for educating children of such values must be given due consideration.

2.10 What research has already been conducted on the attitudes of primary school teachers towards education for citizenship?

The overview and analysis of the concept, definitions and key elements of citizenship and education for citizenship in Scotland and the approaches to education for citizenship in Scottish schools demonstrates the complexity and significance of the domain of education for citizenship. The review indicates that in order for a curriculum to embed and integrate education for citizenship effectively, particularly the new Curriculum for Excellence, requires structured and thorough planning at whole school, classroom and community level. On the one hand, the feature that makes a citizenship school distinctive is that the social environment is not governed solely by the management team and teachers in order to achieve the attainment of

pupils and teaching staff, but that "all groups share the power and responsibility to create their social environment" (Alexander, 2001, p. 62). However, it is the teacher that should be perceived as the "generator of new ideas and activist for change" (Davies *et al*, 1999, p. 101). This denotes the power and significance a teacher holds in pupils' learning and experiences at school. This also demonstrates the need to investigate the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of primary school teachers towards education for citizenship. If teachers are the vehicles for the effective implementation of education for citizenship, then it is important to explore the extent to which they are prepared and equipped to undertake such an influential task and responsibility.

Writers such as Steiner (1992) and Davies *et al* (1999) indicate that the teaching of citizenship in schools had been a problem in the past for teachers and, as a result, they tended to be selective with what they were comfortable with teaching. Steiner (1992) conducted a significant evaluation of world studies, involving over 200 teachers and discovered that they tended to select particular areas of the world studies program to incorporate in their classrooms. They were comfortable with implementing lessons about the environment and other cultures but did not approach the complex global issues. Most teachers focused on the personal, interpersonal and co-operative aspects of world studies and explored issues of racism and sexism. However, global issues related to the unjust practices embedded in the modern global economy or the exploration of the success and independence of southern societies were not approached (Steiner, 1992). This study highlights the way that teachers can be selective with what they are comfortable with teaching at the expense of neglecting significant areas of citizenship that appear too complex to deal with. Furthermore, Davies *et al* (1999) report that citizenship education in the past was usually regarded as a low status subject, conceptually vague and very risky for teachers exploring controversial issues. There were also difficulties for teachers who wanted to implement citizenship education in the classroom such as a prohibition by a member of the management team claiming there was insufficient time for it (Davies *et al*, 1999). However, such problems can have negative consequences as illustrated by Lawton (2000) who justifies the failure of citizenship education

following the 1988 Education Reform Act in England with the following reasons:

- The status of citizenship education was low and risky as teachers could be accused of imposing biased views;
- There was a lack of effective resources for citizenship education and teachers who were able to tackle controversial issues;
- There were no clear definitions of citizenship education and the role of teachers.

Many writers regarded the 1988 Education Reform Act and the National Curriculum in England in 1988 as a major interference for global citizenship. For example, Harber (1998), viewed the National Curriculum as eradicating the teaching of and learning about contemporary society. Holden (2000) referred to the National Curriculum as something in which, for the first time, teachers had to teach mainly Anglo-Centric subject areas. However, according to various studies, many teachers ensured that their classroom practice integrated global education by implementing active teaching and learning methodologies (Robbins *et al,* 2003).

Robbins *et al* (2003) reports on a research project that was conducted by the World Education Centre within the University of Wales, Bangor, during the 2001/2002 academic year which focused on the establishment of education for global citizenship within initial teacher education and training courses. The project acknowledged the essential role that such courses play in preparing teachers with the ability to make important contributions to cross-curricular and whole school approaches which develop citizenship values related to equal opportunities, social justice, local and global development. The gaps in knowledge identified by the researchers were that there was a lack of knowledge of the attitudes of trainee teachers towards education for global citizenship and the correlations between attitudes toward global citizenship and the specialist areas of study pursued by teaching students. A survey was conducted among the trainee teachers who completed their teaching courses in the academic year before the introduction of the education for global citizenship program.

The study conducted by the University of Wales concluded that most of the teaching students acknowledged that education for global citizenship was a high priority in the school curriculum. Fifty nine percent of the trainee teachers agreed that global citizenship should have a high priority in the primary school curriculum, 76% rated global citizenship as a high priority in the secondary curriculum and 64% rated it as a high priority in initial teacher training. Whilst 78% stated global citizenship as an important part of PSE, 72% indicated it as relevant to all subject areas. The results also showed that trainee teachers do not have the confidence or skills required to put their positive attitudes towards education for global citizenship into practice in the classroom. Even though 72% of trainee teachers indicated their belief in global citizenship being relevant to all subject areas, only 40% stated that they had dealt with global issues during their teaching practice in schools. Only 35% felt confident to contribute to a whole school approach to global citizenship.

Other research studies report on teacher attitudes towards certain aspects of education for citizenship. Oulton *et al* (2004) examined the extent to which teachers in England were prepared to deal with controversial issues in the classroom and found that many teachers were not prepared and felt constrained in dealing with this area. The teaching strategies used by many teachers for exploring controversial issues included discussion, role play and resource-based learning. All teachers viewed the development of pupils' abilities to participate in discussions as valuable. Many teachers acknowledged that discussion allows pupils to explore the issue in depth. Role play was a method for exploring an issue from various angles. Resource-based learning involved pupils researching issues using printed materials, videos and the internet. However, the constraints identified by teachers in using such strategies were that they were usually time consuming. Primary school teachers talked about the way that literacy and numeracy strategies dominated the curriculum. Some teachers indicated that the insufficient guidance of tackling controversial issues was a constraint.

Oulton *et al* (2004) expressed concern with the finding that out of the 205 teachers who completed and returned the questionnaires for their research study, only one in

eight felt well- prepared to teach controversial issues. This seems to be linked to the fact that seven out of ten teachers who completed their questionnaire stated that they did not receive formal training. The teachers in the study reported to have used a range of strategies to teach controversial issues which included discussion, role play, externally produced teaching packs, internet-based research, pupils researching opinions outside school, outside speakers and going on visits. For most of these approaches, only one in four teachers felt very well-prepared. Eleven per cent of the teachers in the study felt very well prepared in using internet-based research as a strategy for teaching controversial issues while only 10% felt very well prepared for pupils researching opinions outside the school. This low percentage indicates that a large proportion of teachers felt under-prepared. As Oulton *et al* (2004) state, the study sample was likely to consist of teachers who were very interested in citizenship. This means that the true level of preparation and readiness of the teaching population in general is worse than that reported in the study, which raises concern about the way controversial issues should be dealt with.

The research conducted by Leighton (2004) of how four secondary schools in England approached the introduction of citizenship education, found that staff in schools A, B and C had varying attitudes towards citizenship. Some teachers regarded citizenship as a threat to their own subjects and were not confident in implementing it as a subject which is reflected in the approaches of schools B and C. Other teachers in the study viewed citizenship as an extension of social science subjects such as sociology, politics and psychology and relied on these specialist staff to assist other colleagues in delivery. In school D, citizenship was not yet a formal subject but departments were reviewing their programmes of study. However, some teachers showed resistance and little enthusiasm for it whilst others saw it as another area imposed on an already pressurised profession.

Leighton (2004) does not provide final conclusions on teachers' perceptions of citizenship education but he categorises the comments of teachers he spoke to for the study into 4 groups in the form of typical quotations:

1. "It's what we all do anyway";

2. "Another trendy gesture which adds to our workload without helping anyone";

3. "Not before time";

4. "As long as I don't have to teach it ..." (p. 176).

The heads of subjects seemed to strongly feel that their schools were already achieving many of the attainment targets for citizenship and that several initiatives were having to be planned into an already busy daily timetable. There was very little opposition towards citizenship education but also an insufficient awareness of curricular guidelines in this area apart from those who were enthusiastic and involved in the citizenship field. Teachers whose subjects were most relevant to citizenship were the most interested in citizenship education (Leighton, 2004).

Three case studies conducted by Maitles and Deuchar (2006) examined initiatives undertaken in Scottish schools devised to advance citizenship in the context of children's rights. These investigated the impact of primary school pupil councils, discussion of controversial issues and democracy in the classroom. The notion behind the study was that active and responsible citizenship could be implemented through three important vehicles – the establishment of effective pupil councils, the discussion of controversial issues that children were interested in and the development of a more participatory and democratic classroom. In terms of staff commitment, management professionals reported the differing commitment of teachers regarding the operation of pupil councils. Although some teachers showed their support, many did not share the enthusiasm or commitment. Management professionals also felt that teachers in their school overall acknowledged and supported pupil voice and pupil-led activities but this vision was not shared by all teaching staff.

Maitles and Deuchar (2006) point out that developing a democratic classroom is a challenging task that requires mutual respect and trust. Meeting pupils' expectations needs substantial unseen input so it should be introduced gradually. If teachers do not fully commit to the democratic approach employed in the classroom or do not

allow pupil empowerment, they would hinder pupils' understanding of democracy. As Alexander (2001, p. 84) states, "If they dismiss citizenship education as a sham, it may simply add to the cynicism about politics and participation in public life."

2.11 The role of education for global citizenship in Scotland

Since global citizenship has been given a place in the Scottish approach to education for citizenship, it is important to reflect on its role and purpose. The following sections discuss the meanings applied to global citizenship and the key conceptual distinctions and tensions that arise from the Scottish approach to education for global citizenship.

Table 1: The meanings of world citizenship (Heater, 1997, p. 36)

VAGUE...PRECISE

Member of the human race	Responsible for the condition of the planet	Individual subject to moral law	Promotion of world government

According to Heater (1997), global citizenship can be explained in a number of ways and so provides four main meanings that can be rated from 'vague' to 'precise.'

As Heater (2005) explains, the first category involves people who feel responsible for others and make decisions and take action on behalf of the world community. The second category is slightly clearer than the first as the thinking and actions behind this are more specifically defined. The third category consists of a range of different forms of law that are relevant to global citizenship – natural law, international law and international criminal law. The final category includes people that desire a world government and, therefore, is the most precise explanation of global citizenship for Heater (2005). However, as the following analysis will demonstrate, when applying Heater's (2005) categories to the Scottish approach to education for global

citizenship, the first category is the most prominent with the remaining three remain predominantly absent or neglected.

The main distinction between global citizenship and citizenship identified by Davies *et al* (2005), is that "citizenship is more focused and less obviously 'political' than global education (p. 76)." Furthermore, "global education is both more political and has a broader base .... and in comparison with citizenship education, a far sharper political edge is apparent (p. 77). This distinction is certainly reflected in the Scottish approach to education for citizenship. As the literature review discussed, Biesta's (2008) analysis of the Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) and '*Education for citizenship: a portrait of current practice in Scottish schools and pre-school centres' by HMIE (2006a)* shows that they focus mainly on the social aspects of education for citizenship and that minimal connection is made between citizenship and the political dimension. As for the Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002), Biesta (2008) illustrates that this document makes the most links to the political dimensions of and purpose for education for citizenship but when it discusses the approaches for teaching and learning in this area, the political focus on citizenship changes to a more social focus as it refers to active community involvement rather than political and democratic activities. Education for global citizenship, on the other hand, is given a more political focus by the Scottish approach. For example, LTS (2002) acknowledge global citizenship as a possible example of a learning outcome related to knowledge and understanding for citizenship. It suggests that:

> "....young people should become progressively more able to demonstrate understanding of contemporary local and global issues ..... and global interdependence, and the effects of globalisation on human societies"
> (LTS, 2002, p. 12)

Furthermore, the LTS website outlines key principles that should underpin education for global citizenship:

- "Know, respect and care for the rights, responsibilities, values and opinions of others in Scotland, and understand Scotland's role within the wider world.

- Develop an awareness and understanding of engagement in democratic processes and be able to participate in critical thinking and decision making in schools and communities at local, national and international level.
- Understand the interdependence between people and the environment, and the impact of actions, both local and global.
- Appreciate and celebrate the diversity of Scotland's history, culture and heritage and engage with other cultures and traditions around the world.
- Demonstrate creative thinking and act responsibly in political, economic, environmental, social and cultural learning."

The Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004 p. 12) states that pupils should be able to "develop knowledge and understanding of the world and Scotland's place in it" which falls under the capacity 'responsible citizens.'

Overall, the main distinction between the Scottish approaches for education for global and citizenship education lies in the social and political dimensions of citizenship. Education for citizenship largely involves the social aspects of citizenship and focuses the ways in which learners can contribute to changing society through community involvement and social participation. The main focus for education for global citizenship, on the other hand, is more politically based.

Another distinction apparent is that the Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002) and the Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) place more emphasis on the development of knowledge and understanding of global aspects and ignores the idea of contribution for global improvement. No acknowledgement is made in these documents of the possibility that national citizens can contribute to global change and that they are in a position to practically respond to global issues. The principles and aims of global citizenship stated above by these documents mainly refer to the development of knowledge, understanding and appreciation of global citizenship. There is no mention of taking action to change the global state or raise awareness of global issues. This leaves the impression that these documents imply that national citizens are in no position to change worldly events or situations. The political focus of global citizenship coupled with the absence of approaches for change, demonstrate

an underlying notion that citizens are not able to influence the politics of global nations but can merely learn about them. This creates a narrow view of what education for global citizenship should be about. Learners are not only national citizens but also global citizens. It is contradictory for a citizen to be implicitly taught that whilst he or she can participate in national society to bring about change in the nation they are residing in, this role changes when one stands as a global citizen. The meanings applied to the term 'citizenship' should remain static in all forms, be it local, national or global. Perhaps one way of approaching this issue would be to integrate both education for citizenship and global citizenship. This idea can be reinforced by Davies *et al* (2005) who state that ".....the rise of globalisation mean that there is a need for greater integration between the two areas (p. 85)." For the Scottish approach to education, this integration may enable learners to acknowledge their greater role as a citizen and place themselves within a national and global context. Whilst the existence of a distinction between national and global citizenship may encourage learners to view themselves as two types of citizens (national and global) which, as discussed above, ascribe different roles and stances between them, an integration may allow the recognition of a citizen that is able to contribute to, participate in and improve all types of societies – local, national and global.

2.12 What are the gaps of knowledge in this area of education for citizenship that require further exploration and development?

The existing literature on education for citizenship focuses on three key elements essential for a whole school approach to citizenship education. These are citizenship in the curriculum, the life of the school and community involvement. The literature review strongly indicates that schools must consider the three essential elements and ensure that they are approached at a holistic level as they are interdependent and, therefore, should be integrated. As Huddleston and Kerr (2006) highlight, it is essential to develop a whole school approach to citizenship education in order to allow the permeation of the various activities into a progressive program that everyone is able to comprehend. Furthermore, adopting the recommended approaches will lead schools into following and achieving the aspirations of the new

Curriculum for Excellence. Likewise, embedding the new curriculum will ensure schools are establishing education for citizenship at whole school, classroom and community levels since both areas (the curriculum and education for citizenship) are inextricably linked and reinforce each other.

This establishment of the new curriculum will need to begin with school development planning. The process of school development should create a sense of ownership of the curriculum amongst the staff. If the curriculum remains to be measured by external factors, the feelings of ownership will diminish. Furthermore, as Alexander (2001) highlights, the feature that makes a citizenship school distinctive is that the social environment is not governed solely by the management team and teachers in order to achieve the attainment of pupils and teaching staff, but that "all groups share the power and responsibility to create their social environment" (p. 62).

Moreover, the project conducted by the University of Wales acknowledged the essential role that courses in education for global citizenship within initial teacher education and training courses play in equipping teachers with the ability to make important contributions to cross-curricular and whole school approaches which develop citizenship values related to equal opportunities, social justice, local and global development. This acknowledgement reinforces the idea of the teacher being a "generator of new ideas and activist for change" as coined by Davies *et al* (1999, p. 101). There is a lack of research that explores the preparation and confidence of Scottish primary school teachers in relation to education for citizenship. Within the context of Scotland and the Scottish approach to education for citizenship, it would be valuable to explore the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of primary school teachers towards this developing curricular area. This is especially important if the Scottish approach is to be implemented effectively which can only be done if the professionals involved are confident in their teaching competence and share a conviction for it.

2.13 Conclusion

In light of this literature review, the research conducted for this thesis investigated the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards education for citizenship. It aimed to collect and examine teachers' own views and beliefs about the concept of citizenship, the aims and implementation of education for citizenship in the curriculum and how competent they felt about their own teaching knowledge and skills in relation to it. The next chapter will review and discuss the methodology used for the study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

3.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards education for citizenship. The two methods of research used were questionnaire and interviewing and the key subjects of the study were currently practising primary school teachers in Scotland. Various methodological considerations were required in order to devise a framework of data collection that was practical and realistic. It was particularly necessary to take into account the busy schedules of primary teachers in classrooms and to frame the data collection methods that would encourage teachers to participate in the study. This was aimed through the structure of the questionnaire and interviews themselves and the information provided beforehand to inform potential participants (see appendices 2-4).

To discuss the methodological approaches used for the study and the rationale behind them, this chapter has been divided into four sections. The first section discusses the methodological theories that underlie the approaches for data collection applied in the study. The second section discusses the sample used and the technique applied for inviting teachers to participate in the study. The third section examines the two key methods used for the study – questionnaire and interview – and the procedures that were employed to collect the data. This includes an exploration of why they were deemed to be the most suitable techniques. The final section explores the use of focus groups as another potential method that was considered but not employed.

3.1 Methodological theory

This section will present the philosophical considerations underlying the methods employed in the study. It will examine the paradigms that base the ontological,

epistemological and methodological considerations of the methods employed for data collection.

In all research studies, the methods employed by the researcher will always be based on assumptions which are usually implicit. Such assumptions may be based on the subjective reality of the researcher, the aspects that construct the knowledge of the reality and the most appropriate methods that should be used to create further knowledge of that reality. It is these assumptions that form the meaning of the term 'paradigm'. For Guba and Lincoln (1994), inquiry paradigms constitute three fundamental questions:

1. "The *ontological question* – What is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?
2. The *epistemological question*: What is the relationship between the knower and what can be known?
3. The *methodological question:* How can the inquirer go about finding out what can be known?" (p. 108).

All three questions are interrelated and demonstrate the relationships between methods and the philosophical issues that base them (Punch, 2009). The following sections will, therefore, present the philosophical basis of the present study in order to illustrate the relationship between the ontology, epistemology and methodology of the research conducted. This is significant for the study as "methods are ultimately based on, and derive from, paradigms ... conversely, paradigms have implications for methods" (Punch, 2009, p. 16).

Before exploring the application of the paradigms to the study, it will be valuable to explore those that were deemed most relevant to the field of education for citizenship which are interpretivism and constructivism. Positivism will also be analysed as it is a key paradigm within the research world and provides a structure for comparison to other paradigms with its scientific focus. Although positivism is not relevant to the present study as no aspect of it was adopted, it will be useful to examine it to allow

the understanding and appreciation of interpretivism and constructivism. The discussion of each paradigm will examine their assumptions with regards to ontology, epistemology and methodology and the implications of these assumptions on research.

3.1.1 Positivism

This paradigm is based on the belief the social world can be studied objectively just like the scientific world in order to establish invariant laws and objective knowledge. Although positivism has been articulated in various ways by social researchers, the main idea associated with this paradigm is that the only objective knowledge is scientific knowledge, and that such knowledge can only come from positive confirmation of theories through solid scientific study. Bryman (1988) attributes five main features to positivism:

1. Methodological naturalism – social research can be studied through employing the methods of the natural sciences;
2. Empiricism – only the phenomena that can be observed can be accepted as knowledge;
3. Inductivism – knowledge is developed through an accumulation of verified facts and is expressed as laws;
4. Deductivism – hypotheses are formed from theory and are subjected to empirical testing in order to prove or disprove that theory;
5. Objectivity – objective knowledge is obtained when scientists distinguish facts from values and do not let their own values influence their research.

3.1.2 Interpretivism

This paradigm emphasises the importance of observation and interpretation in the process of comprehending the social world. As Snape & Spencer (2003) report, the development of interpretivism can be traced back to the work of Immanuel Kant who published his writings *Critique of Pure Reason* in 1781 in which he claimed that there were various ways of learning about the world which people used all the time.

Kant, therefore, suggested that:

- "Perception relates not only to the senses but to human interpretations of what our senses tell us;
- Our knowledge of the world is based on 'understanding' which arises from thinking about what happens to us, not just simply from having had particular experiences;
- Knowing and knowledge transcend basic empirical enquiry;
- Distinctions exist between 'scientific reason' (based strictly on causal determinism) and 'practical reason' (based on moral freedom and decision-making which involve less certainty)" (Snape & Spencer, 2003, p. 6-7).

According to Snape & Spencer (2003), these beliefs have usually underpinned qualitative research and that those who adopt this methodology tend to place significance on the human perceptive aspects of learning about the world and emphasises the researcher's own interpretations and understanding of the issue being investigated.

3.1.3 Constructivism

This paradigm emphasises that reality is specific, constructed and intangible; it is socially and experientially based; is dependent on the individuals and can be modified with new incoming information (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Constructivism is a metaphor for learning, comparing the process of acquiring knowledge to the process of building or construction. The central claim of this theory, therefore, is that the acquisition of knowledge is achieved through a process of active construction.

Constructivism exists in many versions – Piagetian constructivism, neo-Vygotskian constructivism, Fellerstein's mediated learning, radical constructivism and social constructivism. Current constructivist models of learning and teaching stipulate that a learner learns not by absorbing information but by actively making sense of it. Constructivism is, therefore, an approach to learning in which learners actively try to

make sense of information by making internal connections or relationships among the ideas and facts being taught (Borich and Tombari, 1997). They also try to understand facts and ideas by making external connections between the new information and pre-existing knowledge.

3.1.4 The paradigms underlying the present study

The paradigms underlying the present study in terms of ontology, epistemology and methodology have been presented in Table 1 to illustrate the considerations taken. The table provides the theoretical assumptions of positivism, interpretivism, constructivism and the present study in terms of the ontology, epistemology, research objects, methods, theory of truth, validity and reliability of data. This table was developed in order to display the comparisons between the different paradigms and to illustrate the stance taken by the researcher for the thesis.

As can be seen from the table, the stance adopted by the present study is that of a mixed methods approach across two key paradigms considered the most relevant to education for citizenship – interpretivism and constructivism. The theoretical assumptions of the present methodology are neither solely interpretivist nor solely constructivist but are based on a number of key features from across the two key paradigms. For example, the ontology of the present study incorporates an interpretivist stance as the assumptions of reality are based on teachers' individual life experiences. It also adopts a constructivist view in that reality is also formed and constructed through education, personal and teaching experiences and professional training. Such examples of integration of both interpretivism and constructivism are evident throughout the analysis provided in the column 'present study'.

3.1.5 Approach to planning the thesis

Punch (2009, p. 19) identifies two broad approaches for planning a research project:

> "*Paradigm-driven approach* – one way is to begin with a paradigm, articulate it and develop research questions and methods from it;

> *Pragmatic approach* – the other way is to begin with research questions that need answers and then to choose methods for answering them."

Punch (2009) proceeds to say that although the research questions can derive from any source such as literature, theory and personal experience, in a professional field such as education, they will be developed from practical and professional issues and problems. This then means that a paradigm is not the basis for the study (paradigm-driven approach) but a problem that needs to be addressed or a question that requires answers (pragmatic approach). However, Punch (2009) believes that although many institutions demand that research adopts the paradigm driven approach, this is not the only necessary step. He also views the pragmatic approach as being more relevant and applicable to research in education.

With regards to the present study, the starting point was the identification of an issue that needed to be addressed within education for citizenship, forming research questions and then choosing methods that would be the most suitable for answering them. In this way, the question-method connection could be ensured. As Punch (2009) puts forward, the principle of question-method connections is that the questions and the associated methods should match each other as closely as possible and that the most effective way of doing this is to decide on methods after the formation of questions. The methods chosen will depend on the research questions as "quantitative questions require quantitative methods to answer them, and qualitative questions require qualitative methods to answer them" (Punch, 2009, p. 25).

This was the approach taken in the present study. The research questions devised enabled the selection of appropriate methods to be selected to answer them. Moreover, throughout the process of devising research questions and selecting appropriate methods, the paradigms identified in Table 1 in the column 'present study' were consistently at play. In other words, every decision made regarding the methodology and data collection was influenced by both interpretivist and constructivist ideologies. The researcher takes the view that every step taken in

research is always based on an underlying paradigm, irrespective of the approach to planning taken, be it a paradigm-driven or pragmatic driven approach.

3.2 Sampling

The target population for this study was primary school teachers who were currently employed in Scotland as permanent, part time or supply teachers. The first stage of the whole process of collecting such a sample was to seek permission from 15 Scottish councils by writing to the Director of Educational Services for each council. The written letters requested permission to approach schools within the councils to invite them to participate in the study. Ten councils replied to the requests in writing granting the permission for this approach as well as acknowledging that the onus was entirely on individual schools. With this permission granted, the head teachers of all primary schools were written to by email (see appendix 2) in which the purpose and methodology was outlined and sample questionnaires and interview information sheets attached (see appendices 3 - 5). All headteachers were informed that the participants would complete the questionnaires electronically and email them back to me. The questionnaires were distributed to 657 primary schools altogether – denominational and non-denominational – across ten Scottish councils.

Altogether, 138 questionnaires were received from 138 individual teachers. This included 117 teachers from 8 different schools in which most or all of the teachers within the establishment completed the questionnaires. Five of these eight schools were large establishments from which there was a significant return rate. For example, one school returned 32 questionnaires whilst another provided 18 completed questionnaires. Three out of these eight schools were small schools from which five, seven and eight questionnaires were returned. The remaining 21 questionnaires from the 138 received represented 20 different schools. In summary, this means that 28 out of the 657 schools contacted participated in the study.

Following their approval of the study, the headteachers distributed the questionnaires to the staff in either printed form or email. For seven of the schools who agreed to

participate and were within the same city as myself, my offer of personally handing in the questionnaires to the headteacher was readily accepted. The hand delivery of the questionnaires in printed form was a mechanism for avoiding any inconvenience for the headteacher or office staff to print out forms and organise them. I also offered to collect the questionnaires personally once they were completed. Again, this was to avoid any inconvenience for sending the questionnaires in terms of time and money. Although the postage of sending the questionnaires would not have been imposed on the schools but paid for by me, the advantage of personal collection was that of guaranteed collection whereas there is always a risk of failed delivery with postage. Altogether, 99 forms were hand delivered to seven schools. Out of these, six of the schools provided fully completed questionnaires (89 in total). The seventh school, which was given ten questionnaires, did not provide any completed forms. This was despite the fact that the headteacher had asked the teachers about their willingness to participate beforehand and obtained their approval before informing me about the number of questionnaires required. In a phone call to the headteacher, it seemed that the teachers later decided not to participate as a result of their busy schedules.

A headteacher of one school from a distant council, printed fourteen forms from the email and attachments sent to her, distributed them personally to her teaching staff who all completed them by hand. She then phoned me to ask for my home address and sent them to me by post. The remaining questionnaires received from other schools were all completed electronically by teachers and mailed back to me, accounting for thirty five of the total questionnaires.

Receiving 138 questionnaires altogether resulted from contacting all 657 schools on three occasions. Most participants took part in the study after contacting their schools in the first round whilst the rest participated after the second reminder. On the third occasion, all the schools that had not replied to any of the previous requests for participation were contacted but most replied saying that they could not take part due to a lack of time and commitment to other initiatives. The remainder of the schools contacted during the third round did not reply at all to my request.

Out of the 138 teachers that completed the questionnaires, 26 volunteered to participate in the follow up interviews. This sample represented 14 out of the 28 schools that participated in the questionnaires. However, only 17 out of the 26 volunteers actually participated, losing nine teachers for several reasons. Telephone appointments had been made with three of these nine teachers but when they were phoned, they were not available. When they were contacted again to re-arrange their missed appointments, they apologised for not being available and stated that they had forgotten about the interview. However, when further appointments had been made and the interviewees contacted again, they were still not available and seemed to have forgotten again. To avoid the impression of constant pursuit, they were not contacted again thereafter. Five other potential interviewees changed their minds about the interview as they claimed to be busy with other personal and professional schedules. One teacher emailed to say that there was a death in the family and was not in the frame of mind to be interviewed. Overall, the 17 teachers that were actually interviewed represented only 12 out of the 28 schools that participated in the questionnaire activity and 657 of the schools that were invited to contribute. This illustrates the low population sample that this study represents.

The fact that the sample of teachers who participated in the study was much smaller than the teachers who had been requested to participate raises the important issue of generalisability. The conclusions drawn from this study and how they could be applied require careful consideration. Some researchers construct descriptive conclusions of their study in which they apply the results of their survey only to the participants that took part in the study (Thomas & Brubaker, 2008). The conclusions are then interpreted as only representing those participants and do not consider the population in general. Other researchers draw and apply inferential conclusions to the wider population that were not involved in the study. The subjects involved are only a sample of the population to which the conclusions will be applied (Thomas & Brubaker, 2008). This is because "since the basic structures of social order are to be found anywhere, it does not matter where we begin our research. Look at any case and you will find the same order" (Silverman, 2005, p. 134). However, reporting the results of a group on which research has been conducted to a greater population will

always consist of bias as the studied group may not be a true representation of the wider population (Thomas and Brubaker, 2008).

3.3 Methods for data collection – questionnaire and interview

3.3.1 Overview of methods

In any research study, there will always be various ways that data can be collected but the decisions that the researcher makes about the strategy and method will be influenced by the research questions. However, in taking into account the advantages and disadvantages of any potential method, the key consideration should be the appropriateness of it to the research questions. The present study used both qualitative and quantitative measures for data collection. The questionnaires were predominantly analysed using the SPSS package (except the first question which asked respondents about the meaning of citizenship) whilst the interviews generated qualitative data and were content analysed using a method of categorising and coding themes and ideas. The designs of both methods used were designed to document the diversity of meanings that respondents would attribute to the field of education for citizenship. As Burgess *et al* (2006, p. 65) state:

> "our methods should allow us to document the ways in which meanings are constructed, negotiated within particular social contexts and become regarded as taken for granted."

In the initial part of the study, the participants were asked to complete a questionnaire that asked them about their own views and beliefs about the concept of citizenship, the aims and implementation of education for citizenship in the curriculum and how they felt about their own teaching knowledge and competence in relation to it (appendix 4). Secondly, a sample of these teachers then volunteered to participate in a follow-up telephone interview which allowed them to elaborate and discuss the responses provided in the questionnaire (appendix 6). The questionnaire and follow-up interviews allowed qualitative data to be gathered about the teachers'

own understanding, perspectives and attitudes towards education for citizenship and, therefore, answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers interpret the concept of 'citizenship' as an adult citizen of the U.K?

2. How important do teachers rate the aims of education for citizenship that have been devised by certain curricular documents and literature?

3. To what extent do teachers believe that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum and why?

4. How relevant do teachers regard education for citizenship to the different curricular areas and why?

5. Which general approach of implementing education for citizenship do teachers believe in – permeating citizenship throughout the whole curriculum or applying a specific time allocation to it in the school timetable?

6. To what extent do teachers feel confident in contributing to whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

7. What aspects and activities do teachers regard as whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

8. How competent do teachers feel about their knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and promoting education for citizenship?

9. What aspects and activities do teachers think contribute to their knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship?

10. What knowledge, understanding and skills do teachers feel are needed to increase

their competence in implementing education for citizenship?

11. What in-service training and CPD activities do teachers think are valuable and useful for developing professional competence in education for citizenship?

In order to consider and select the most appropriate methods of data collection for this study, the techniques used by researchers in the citizenship field for their research were reviewed. The methodology from research reported in journal articles, particularly those that investigated teachers' perceptions of education for citizenship (Robbins *et al*, 2003; Leighton, 2004) were considered and used to justify the methods employed for this study. This is because "one of the best ways to learn about the appropriate use of various methods is to read journal articles which report research carried out using the methods in which you are interested" (Clough and Nutbrown, 2002, p. 108).

The questionnaires and telephone interviews allowed direct data to be collected from primary school teachers who were employed as permanent, part time or supply teachers. The following sections will now discuss the structure of the questionnaires and interviews and the ways in which they collated data related to the research questions.

3.3.2 Questionnaires

As a tool for gathering information and opinions, questionnaires are valuable and efficient. They have been used in many research projects within the citizenship field, particularly with teachers and pupils. In this present study, a questionnaire was used as a starting point for the research which was later elaborated on with follow up interviews. Distributing a questionnaire may seem like a quick and easy method for collecting data but this will only be achieved if it is designed appropriately. Designing an effective questionnaire requires devising well defined questions that will obtain the data required for the research questions which requires more thought

and time than may be anticipated as it involves reflecting on the potential behaviour of the respondents in question.

The key purpose for using the questionnaire as one of the key methods was to reveal the status given to education for citizenship by teachers and was initially influenced by the study conducted in the School of Education, University of Wales, Bangor, in 2001 (see Robbins *et al*, 2003). It would allow the survey of a population of teachers and provide a broad picture and indication of their opinions, perspectives and experiences of education for citizenship. However, it was still necessary to conduct follow-up interviews to reveal the depth of these views as the questionnaires were unlikely to do so. The questionnaire was a useful instrument for collecting an impression of teachers' views and was easy to administer as they were electronically sent to the headteachers of schools which was quicker than sending them by post. It was also convenient for teachers who completed the questionnaires to do so electronically and email them back to the researcher. The whole process was designed to make it convenient and quick for teachers to participate in the study.

The questions devised (see appendix 4) were entirely based on the research questions of the present study. This ultimately resulted in specific and refined sub questions which aimed to elicit responses that would indicate teachers' understanding, perceptions and attitudes towards certain areas of education for citizenship. Using the research questions to define the questionnaire focus was necessary to ensure that an initial impression was revealed and would, therefore, provide an indication of the status given to this new curricular area. The data would then be utilised to inform and elicit in depth and underlying ideologies and opinions of primary teachers who chose to participate in follow up interviews. The nature of teaching as stressful and demanding of time, effort and energy had to be considered when devising questions for the survey. This is why the structure of the questionnaire was designed with simple tasks that did not involve abundant writing but which was still effective in revealing significant indications of teachers' views towards education for citizenship. The evaluation of a pilot study conducted with nine teachers in a Glasgow school provided an essential tool for revising the initial design of the questionnaire and was

used to refine the questions included (appendix 1).

The questionnaire consisted of three key activities for teachers to complete – an open-ended question, a rating exercise and a multiple choice activity (appendix 4). The first question was an open-ended one that required respondents to define the meaning of 'citizenship' in their own terms. The phrasing of the question was designed to elicit teachers' own understanding and perspectives of citizenship as practising citizens of the U.K. This aimed to reveal the individual teachers' perceptions and understanding of the phenomena of citizenship which is significant to the first research question (how do teachers interpret the concept of 'citizenship' as an adult citizen of the U.K?) as "narrative responses can reveal the unique patterning of different people's knowledge and attitudes" (Thomas and Brubaker, 2008, p. 179).

The second exercise asked teachers to rate a list of twelve aims for education for citizenship in terms of their importance on a scale of 1 to 5 with each number indicating an expression of the extent of importance from 'not at all important' to 'absolutely essential." As Thomas and Brubaker (2008, p. 177) state, "people's opinions are most accurately reported as positions along a dimension whose divisions represent sequential qualities, frequencies or amounts". Allowing teachers to rate the importance would provide a clear indication of the extent to which they valued each specific area of education for citizenship and would enable them to focus their thinking.

The third exercise in the questionnaire required teachers to select one word or phrase from a selection provided that best described their opinion on certain aspects of education for citizenship (the Likert Scale). The scale of opinions provided allowed teachers to reveal their own views about education for citizenship more accurately and focus their thinking.
This exercise was based on the system used in the study conducted by the School of Education, University of Wales, Bangor, in 2001. At the end of their initial teacher training course, students were asked to complete a short questionnaire which

measured attitudes towards education for global citizenship on an eight item scale. The Likert scale was used to rate each item as 'agree strongly, agree, not certain, disagree, disagree strongly'. However, the study conducted by the University of Wales used one sole method on which the conclusions were based. Using a further approach that reinforced the findings could have made this study more reliable. Using triangulation allows the different methods to corroborate each other and, according to some qualitative researchers, strengthens the reliability of a particular method (Silverman, 2005). For this reason, this present study also used interviewing as a method to reinforce and elaborate on teachers' responses collected through the questionnaires.

Out of the 657 schools within the 10 Scottish councils that were contacted, only 138 teachers responded to the questionnaire which was a comparatively low response rate. Many schools emailed to say that they would not be able to participate in the study due to other commitments such us school initiatives or HMIE inspections. Other headteachers said that they were not willing to ask the teachers as they were already very busy with other activities such as curricular initiatives and report writing. As for those who did participate in the study, the respondents were more likely to be those who took an interest in education for citizenship and value it as an important part of the curriculum.

3.3.3 Limitations of questionnaire

One of the key limitations of using questionnaire is that of the risk of very low response rates. In comparing this to the very low response rate of the questionnaires collected for the thesis, it is obvious that it was never going to be an accepted single method and that triangulation was essential. It should also be said that survey questionnaires are not a comprehensive means for collecting in-depth data which is one of the major reasons why it was only used as an initial mechanism for obtaining opinions and attitudes of teachers. Despite the efforts of designing a teacher friendly questionnaire that was anonymous and not time consuming but still collated significant information about their views towards particular areas of citizenship,

there was still a low response rate from the teaching population.

This problem of attracting participants for a study and ways of dealing with it was illustrated by Oulton *et al* (2004) who used focus groups and questionnaires to examine the extent to which teachers in England were prepared to deal with controversial issues in the classroom and faced similar issues. For their study, a questionnaire was devised to find out if the issues highlighted in the focus groups were also common in the general population of primary and secondary teachers. At first, some schools were asked if their staff members would be able to complete a questionnaire. However, schools found it difficult to commit to this. Although they expressed their interest in the research topic, they claimed to be tied down by other government initiatives, covering for staff absence, busy with OFSTED inspections and other commitments. For this reason, an alternative strategy for finding teachers was used. The questionnaires were then sent to teachers who were professionally known to the researchers as work colleagues or mentors. As Oulton *et al* (2004) state, the study sample was likely to consist of teachers who were very interested in citizenship. This means that the true level of preparation and readiness of the teaching population in general is likely to have been less than that reported in the study, which raises concern about the way controversial issues should be dealt with.

3.3.4 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured but choosing the most appropriate style will depend upon "the topic you are researching, how many people you wish to interview, the access and location of the interviewees, and how much time and resource capacity you have" (Burgess, 2006, p. 72). Such reflections influenced the strategies used for interviewing teachers for this study. The following points highlighted by Burgess *et al* (2006) regarding interviews were also considered when planning them for the present study to ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of data collection:

- *Access:* many institutions will require you to seek formal permission before

interviewing members of staff or students;

- *Confidentiality and ethical issues:* you should inform participants how the information they give you will be safeguarded;
- *Outcomes:* your interviewees should know what you intend to do with your research findings;
- *Location:* where you interview your research participants will be important;
- *Language:* the questions you ask should be posed in a language that will be fully understood by the interviewees and should be asked in a logical order;
- *Questions:* you should begin with questions that can be answered easily and put the interviewee at ease. The questions that follow should be open-ended, allowing interviewees to express their views and opinions, and at the end of the interview any loose ends should be tidied up;
- *Note-taking:* whether you tape-record or make notes of the interview, it should be done in as unobtrusive a manner as possible;
- *Prompts:* you might want to use cards containing scales or ranges of predetermined responses or perhaps vignettes for the interviewee to comment on;
- *After the interview:* reflect and make notes about how the interview went. Your observation of body language, hesitations and other contextual factors will enrich your data;

(Burgess *et al*, 2006, p. 73).

Taking these points into account and acting upon them was valuable in ensuring that the interviews were conducted in an appropriate, efficient and effective manner. The ways in which this was done is explored later in this section.

The key purpose of the follow up semi-structured interviews for the present study was to obtain in-depth information about the responses that teachers provided in the questionnaire that addressed the key research questions and to understand the deeper meanings of their views. The interview schedule (appendix 6) was designed to invite participants to discuss and justify the responses they expressed in their questionnaire and, thus, allowing a deeper insight into their understanding, perspectives and

attitudes towards education for citizenship. Interviewing enabled me to engage directly with the respondent and provided the opportunity to probe or ask follow up questions. It also allowed the respondents to freely express their opinions or impressions about the topic whereas asking them to elaborate in the questionnaire may have persuaded many to avoid answering due to the time and writing involved.

Seventeen teachers participated in the follow up interviews which were conducted over the telephone and lasted between 20 and 30 minutes. A few very enthusiastic teachers took about 45 minutes for the interview as they were very articulate about their views and experiences. With the nature of education for citizenship being a diverse topic with various strands of knowledge meant that it was important to structure the interview in order to focus the interviewee's mind and establish the relevant agenda. It was important to elicit the relevant information within a 20 minute time limit as had been promised in the interview information sheet provided prior to the interview. One of the key ways of ensuring a productive interview was to follow a semi-structured schedule (appendix 6) with specific open-ended questions that were designed to elicit teachers' responses about the focus areas tied to the research questions. The schedule guided the interview but was not prescriptive in the responses required. That is to say, the interviewees were allowed to describe practices or provide opinions on aspects they considered as relevant to citizenship education, even if these were officially categorized as other curricular areas. For example, some teachers would bring in enterprise, RME and PSD into the discussion about classroom activities. The responses of the interviewees were recorded in the form of handwritten notes by the researcher whilst the participants were talking. Given the nature of interviewing, the researcher was able to ask the participants to clarify certain points or repeat any that were expressed too quickly and not written down immediately. Straight after the interview, the notes were typed into the computer for analysis whilst the discussion was fresh in the mind. This guaranteed the recording of all key points raised by the teacher.

All interviews were conducted by telephone rather than face to face and all respondents were made aware of this prior to their participation by the interview

information sheet (appendix 5). This was to encourage teachers to agree to participate in the follow-up interviews as it was a less personal approach which would elicit more candid responses. A face-to-face interview might not have allowed individuals to articulate their opinions openly as they may have felt intimidated or provided entirely positive viewpoints due to loyalty to their school. Respondents were informed prior to conducting the interview that their responses would be written down. Using a method of recording the telephone conversation was not considered so as not to discourage participants to candidly discuss their views. As Hannan (2007) suggests:

> "It should also be taken into account that those you wish to interview may be more reluctant to take part or to reveal their true thoughts the more thorough the recording technique. Interviewees frequently say much more once the tape recorder has been switched off, or give an entirely different view when having a chat over a cup of tea in the staffroom than they do when confronted with a microphone."

Furthermore, the key points for planning interviews put forward by Burgess *et al* (2006, p. 73) were considered and applied to the present study in the following ways:

- *Access:* As a qualified primary teacher with an understanding of education ethics and professionalism, the requirement of seeking formal permission from the local councils before interviewing teachers was met by writing a formal letter to each council. After approval from the authorities to access schools, an email was written to the headteachers (appendix 2) to request participation which included confirmation that approval from the educational authorities had been obtained. This was to provide reassurance to headteachers that the participation of their school staff would be legitimate and acceptable.

- *Confidentiality and ethical issues:* In the questionnaire information sheet (appendix 3) participants were reassured that the names of individuals and

schools would not be named in the thesis. Further reassurance was given to interviewees prior to conducting the interview.

- *Outcomes:* Through the questionnaire and interview information sheets (appendix 3 and 5), all potential participants were informed of the purpose of the EdD study, the reasons for using follow up interviews as another method for data collection and that the information collected was for the purpose of writing an EdD thesis.

- *Location:* The interview would be conducted by phone and this was expressed in the email request for participation (appendix 2) and the interview information sheet (appendix 5). Telephone interviews were considered to be the most appropriate form of interview for this study as it involved interviewing teachers at their own convenient time and place. Prior to the actual interviews, all participants were contacted by their preferred method as indicated at the end of their completed questionnaires to arrange a suitable time to conduct a telephone interview.

- *Language:* the questions framed were based on the questionnaire completed. One of the advantages of this was that the teachers would ideally be familiar with citizenship related language used when discussing their ideas. They were also asked in the same order as the questionnaire themes. The order was also logical to the progression of ideas within education for citizenship by beginning the interview with questions that linked this area to the curriculum, classroom and whole school approaches and then talking about their own professional knowledge, competence and CPD training.

- *Questions:* In the interview information sheet (appendix 5), potential participants were informed that the interview would involve asking them to provide more detailed responses to the questions answered in the questionnaire. This meant that the interviewees already had a fair idea of what was going to be asked of them. All the questions asked were open ended

and allowed the interviewees to express their views and opinions.

- *Note-taking:* Prior to the interview, participants were informed that the notes would be handwritten and not recorded onto tape, which they were all comfortable with. Furthermore, the fact that the interviews were not conducted face to face and, therefore, interviewees were not observing the writing of notes, could have eliminated any feelings of intimidation which some people do experience when someone is writing notes about them and their professional practice.

- *Prompts:* The completed questionnaires were used as the main prompts for the interviewees. It was interesting to discover and examine the justifications behind the responses to the questionnaire.

- *After the interview:* The whole event of the interview was reflected upon and notes were made about particular comments that participants made. For example, some teachers commented that the interview made them think more about the importance of the issues raised in the interview. This meant that the interview contributed to their professional development and reflection in some way.

Studies in education for citizenship which focus on gaining insight into teachers' and students' perspectives have used interviewing as a key method for data collection. This indicates that interviewing is regarded as one of the most effective methods for obtaining data such as opinions and theoretical positions. For example, in their article that discusses what effective citizenship is and what effective citizens do, Westheimer and Kahne (2004) examined a two year study of ten citizenship programs in the United States that promote democracy. The researchers employed a mixed methods approach which consisted of qualitative data from observations and interviews, and quantitative data from pre/post survey data. They used methods that would most effectively allow them to gain in-depth knowledge and display these findings to relevant audiences. From all ten establishments in the two year study, the

researchers gathered four types of data – observations, interviews, surveys and documents devised by the teaching staff. The researchers observed practice over a two to three day period in classrooms and at service sites. Both students and teachers were interviewed over the two years. The interviews lasted between 20 to 45 minutes and were all taped and transcribed.

In his study of four secondary schools in England, Leighton (2004) aimed to analyse how some secondary schools approached the introduction of citizenship education. Data was collected through the method of interviewing. Interviews were conducted with promoted staff who had responsibility for citizenship in each school and the head of subject or department in schools A and B. In school A, eight teachers who taught citizenship and 30 pupils were also interviewed as well as six pupils from school C. Programmes of work, lesson plans and teaching materials in school A were also analysed for further data. This study illustrates the importance of interviewing to gain an insight into how teachers approached citizenship education and their attitudes towards it. The results of the study, as discussed in the literature review, demonstrated that teachers were open about their positive and negative views and attitudes as well as their levels of confidence with regards to citizenship education. Such in depth information was possible with the interviewing technique.

3.4 Possible alternative methods – focus group interviews

For this study, the focus group strategy was considered as a possible method for data collection as it is another qualitative method by which opinions and experiences of teachers are collected and have been used by several research studies. For example, through a combination of focus groups and questionnaires, Oulton *et al* (2004) investigated teachers' practices and opinions in relation to controversial issues in the classroom. The results of the study were used to pinpoint the support that could be given to teachers to enable them to tackle controversial issues more effectively. To examine the variety of existing practices and opinions of teachers, the researchers administered four focus groups and a questionnaire. The four focus groups consisted of 2 primary groups and 2 secondary groups, including teachers from various phases,

subjects and school locations. The researchers did not seek to select a representative sample of English teachers, as they aimed to collect a range of opinions that were reflective of most teachers across England. Since all the participants were volunteers, the focus groups more likely consisted of teachers interested in teaching controversial issues. The focus groups were made up of between five to eight teachers from both state and independent schools.

According to Hess (1968), as cited in Clough and Nutbrown (2002), the advantages of holding focus groups over individual interviews are:

1. *synergism* (when a wider bank of data emerges through the group interaction);
2. *snowballing* (when the statements of one respondent initiate a chain reaction of additional comments);
3. *stimulation* (when the group discussion generates excitement about a topic);
4. *security* (when the group provides a comfort and encourages candid responses);
5. *spontaneity* (when participants are not required to answer every question, their responses are more spontaneous and genuine).

The possibility of using focus groups for this study was considered because of these advantages. However, although the purpose of this method is to create an open, informal discussion about a selected topic in depth, on reflection it did not seem to be appropriate for the nature of this study. The aim of the thesis was to collect data about individual teachers' understanding, perspectives and attitudes towards key areas of education for citizenship. This is a new and developing area of the Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) which some schools have embraced at an advanced level, whilst some are still in the early stages. It was essential that all views were considered. In a focus group situation, particular individuals who have more competence and knowledge about education for citizenship than other teachers could have dominated a group discussion whereas those who lacked confidence or competence were more likely to refrain from admitting this to a group. In relation to 'security', the group in this case may not have provided comfort and encouraged candid responses. Rather, this could have

interfered with the 'stimulation' of the group where some participants could have felt intimidated as opposed to feeling excited about the topic. For this thesis, it was essential to obtain a true picture of teachers' views as far and as accurately as possible.

Although the use of focus groups could have been used as an additional method to the questionnaire and interview technique, the issue of practicability and willingness for participation amongst teachers was a key consideration. It was difficult enough to obtain a high participation rate from teachers for the questionnaire and interview and so it was thought that attracting a willingness to engage in focus groups would have been even more difficult as it would have required more of the participants' time and an ability to discuss issues openly with a group of other professionals.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the qualitative and quantitative approaches used for this study and presents the rationale and procedures applied for data collection.   The next chapter will report on the data collected from the questionnaires and interviews.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed account of the data collected from the questionnaires and interviews. The data will be presented in the sequential order of the research questions and the source of evidence used for each answer will be indicated. The two methods are equally significant for the study in that they both provide data that responds to the research questions. However, they are not equally responsible for each question. Each method has been allocated specific research questions to answer as appropriate to the nature of the enquiry and type of responses required. The answers to three of the questions will be derived solely from the questionnaires whilst six will rely on evidence from the interviews. The answers to two of the questions will be based on evidence from both methods. It is important to clarify which source of evidence will be used for each question in order to establish a clear picture of the ways in which the data collection methods were applied in the study.

The research questions that will be solely answered by the **questionnaire** responses are:

1. How do teachers interpret the concept of 'citizenship' as an adult citizen of the U.K?
2. How important do teachers rate the aims of education for citizenship that are presented in certain curricular documents and literature?
8. How competent do teachers feel about their own knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and promoting education for citizenship?

The **interview** discussions will enable the following research questions to be answered:

4. How relevant do teachers regard education for citizenship to the different curricular areas and why?

5. Which general approach of implementing education for citizenship do teachers believe in – permeating citizenship throughout the whole curriculum or applying a specific time allocation to it in the school timetable?

7. What aspects and activities do teachers regard as whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

9. What knowledge, understanding and skills do teachers feel are needed to increase their own competence in implementing education for citizenship?

10. What aspects and activities do teachers think contribute to their knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship?

11. What in-service training and CPD activities do teachers think are valuable and useful for developing professional competence in education for citizenship.

The research questions that will use evidence from both the **questionnaire** and the **interview** will be:

3. To what extent do teachers believe that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum and why?

6. To what extent do teachers feel confident in contributing to whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

It is necessary to report the results in order of the research questions to ensure a coherent sequence of data, evidence and ideas. Each section will begin by stating the research question and the source of evidence used.

4.1 How do teachers interpret the concept of 'citizenship' as an adult citizen of the U.K? (Questionnaire)

The first question asked teachers to define citizenship in their own terms and was designed to elicit teachers' own understanding and perspectives of citizenship as practising citizens of the U.K. Out of the 138 respondents, 136 answered this question. Two respondents left this section blank. All the responses were categorised into the nine distinct but interdependent elements of citizenship put forward by

Alexander (2001). For Alexander, all of these elements are necessary for effective citizenship and are much broader and deeper than formal, legal or traditional definitions of citizenship. This definition was chosen as a framework for analysing the definitions of citizenship expressed by the teachers in the research study because it is a comprehensive definition that embraces and integrates all the key elements of citizenship identified by the literature review of this thesis which makes it an ideal and useful universal concept.

For Alexander (2001), the nine distinct but interdependent elements of citizenship are:

1. *Membership* is fundamental and can only create effective citizenship with rights, a sense of personal power and other elements of this definition.

2. *A sense of personal power* – Citizens need self-esteem, confidence and a sense of personal power to exercise their rights and responsibilities.

3. *Democratic values* such as freedom, fairness, social justice, respect for democracy and diversity.

4. *Political and human rights* - These are support mechanisms for democratic values and give citizens the freedom to excel. These include the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Schools can also devise their own charter of rights.

5. *Civic involvement and responsibility* – This is one of the key aims of education for citizenship. Rights create the responsibility for citizens to acknowledge and fulfil their civic duties to the community.

6. *Accountability* – is an essential element of citizenship but is often ignored. For schools, strategies for accountability can include question time in class, pupil councils, assemblies, complaints procedure, school board and inspections as stated in various education acts.

7. *The knowledge and skills* are necessary for active participation in school, community and society.

8. *Participation* in democratic decision-making is a key aspect of citizenship.

9. *A constitution* comprises the rules that govern the institution, whether written or unwritten.

Overall, the definitions of teachers laid a major emphasis on particular single elements or a combination of elements. Sixty five percent of teachers stated particular elements of citizenship whilst 35% provided definitions that identified several elements (combined definition). The main elements identified by the teachers in both groups were membership, civic involvement and responsibility and knowledge and skills whilst no respondent identified or acknowledged accountability and only three teachers mentioned the constitution. No respondent expressed an in-depth or elaborate definition that included all or most of the elements identified by Alexander (2001). The following section will firstly report on the responses of teachers who identified only single elements of citizenship in their definition. The responses of teachers who identified several elements of citizenship will follow, thereafter.

1) Membership

For 20.6% of the teachers who answered question 1, citizenship was solely about belonging to a community and feeling part of it. Whilst more than half of this percentage stated this in simple terms with statements like 'belonging to and caring about a community', 'being part of a community' or 'a sense of belonging to a community', other teachers extended this view by the identification of other factors. About a quarter of this 20.6% percent expressed that this membership involved being a responsible and effective member of a community. Three respondents stated the aspect of having a role in society and fulfilling that role. Four respondents mentioned the notion of contribution and involvement in society. With reference to Alexander's (2001) definition, no respondent mentioned having a sense of personal power

although two teachers mentioned the importance of rights.

3) Democratic values

Two teachers identified the values of respect for diversity but in different forms. Whilst one teacher stated that citizenship was about understanding 'different beliefs, cultures and issues within our society and develop informed views', the other expressed it was about 'respect for others and having the correct values and morals that allow us to contribute to society as a whole'. A third teacher who stated that citizenship was about belonging and feeling part of a group or community also said that it was about "understanding different cultures, beliefs and being aware of diversity and celebrating it." However, no teacher in the study identified core democratic values such as freedom, fairness, social justice and respect for democracy.

4) Political and human rights

No teacher identified political, human or citizen rights as the main feature of citizenship but was mentioned in definitions that involved combinations of other elements.

5) Civic involvement and responsibility

According to 33% of teachers, citizenship was particularly about civic involvement and responsibility. It was about active participation and contribution to one's community and society which was a shared responsibility that should involve everyone. Involvement and responsibility should be exercised at all societal levels. For example, as one teacher wrote, citizenship is about "thoughtful and responsible participation in economic, political, social and cultural life" whilst another wrote "being an active, responsible participant in your community at all levels." More than one seventh of this 33% of teachers also expressed the importance of showing good conduct and respect for other people as part of being an involved and responsible citizen and, therefore, linking responsibility with positive behaviour towards others.

6) *Accountability*

Not a single teacher identified the aspect of accountability within the concept of

citizenship, either as a single or integrated element.

7) Knowledge and skills

According to 8.8% of the teachers in the study, citizenship was about possessing the relevant knowledge, abilities and skills necessary to actively contribute to society and be an effective citizen. As one teacher reported, it is about "having the knowledge, skills and responsibilities to play an active role in all aspects of society" whilst another stated "being able to be an active participant in society – culturally, politically, socially and economically and having the skills and capabilities to do so."

8) Participation

Although many teachers referred to civic participation in their definitions, only one teacher referred to democratic decision making as she wrote "engagement with the social, moral and political processes that are at work in our society and the wider world."

Combination of features in definition

For 35% of teachers in the study, the definition involved several elements that constituted citizenship. No teacher's definition included all of the elements that constitute Alexander's concept of citizenship but included a combination of some of the features. For example, one teacher's definition of citizenship was:

> "Being responsible for yourself in society. To be active politically and socially, using your vote and your voice to effect change. Being empowered as a person, aware of choices and options available to you and being well-informed."

In her concept, this teacher has identified the elements of civic involvement and responsibility, a sense of personal power and knowledge and skills.

Another teacher wrote:

> **"**Obey the laws of the country; have respect for everyone irrespective of race,

religion and colour; help each other especially people less well off; be active in the life of the community."

In this case, the teacher's concept involves the aspects of the constitution, democratic values and civic involvement and responsibility.

For one teacher, citizenship was about:

" ...... belonging. Being part of a wider community and having responsibilities towards others' civil rights, health etc. Also about having rights as an individual e.g. family, community, city, country, world."

This demonstrates that the basis of her concept was related to membership, civic involvement and responsibility and political and human rights.

Almost a third of this 35% of teachers included the aspect of civic involvement and responsibility in their combined definition whilst about a fifth included the importance of knowledge and skills. Four teachers referred to the aspects of having a sense of personal power. Three respondents mentioned the constitution in the form of adhering to laws and rules of the country and only one teacher indirectly mentioned the idea of participation in democratic decision-making in the form of having a 'voice' in society. Overall, eight of Alexander's nine elements were included in these teacher's definitions. No teacher identified the aspect of accountability as a feature of citizenship.

About a quarter of the teachers did not specifically mention any of the key elements of citizenship but instead provided a very broad characteristic of it. They referred to citizenship as behaving in a manner that is suitable, acceptable and helpful to the community in which one lives. Another two teachers simply referred to citizens co-operating and collaborating as a team and working towards a common goal.

Overall, although there was a commonality of language and terminology used, all

teachers expressed their own interpretations of citizenship. Whilst 65% of teachers identified particular single elements of citizenship in their definition, 35% acknowledged the multi-faceted aspects of modern citizenship and what it means to be a citizen in a democratic society by expressing a number of key elements.

4.2 How important do teachers rate the aims of education for citizenship that have been devised by certain curricular documents and literature? (Questionnaire)

All teachers completed the activity of rating the 12 aims of education for citizenship.

a) Social and moral responsibility
Almost all of the teachers indicated that promoting social and moral responsibility was a key aspect of education for citizenship with 84.1% stating it was absolutely essential and 14.5% stating that it was very important. One teacher indicated that it was fairly important and another stated that it was not very important.

b) Community involvement
Most of the respondents identified community involvement as being an integral part of education for citizenship with 40.6% saying that it was absolutely essential and 46.4% saying that it was very important. For 12.3% of teachers, it was fairly important and for one teacher it was not very important.

c) Political literacy
For 28.3% of teachers, political literacy was absolutely essential and was very important for 43.5%. It was fairly important to 25.4% and not very important to 2.9% of teachers.

d) Political participation
This aspect of education of education for citizenship was absolutely essential for 23.9% of teachers, very important for 42% and fairly important for 29.7%. However,

it was not very important for 3.6% of teachers and not at all important for one teacher.

e) Economic participation

Most teachers acknowledged this aspect as an integral part of education for citizenship as 78.3% identified it as absolutely essential and 17.4% stated that it was very important. It was a fairly important aspect for 3.6% of teachers and not at all important for one teacher.

f) Social participation

All teachers expressed that social participation was a key aspect of education for citizenship as 86.2% indicated that it was absolutely essential and 13.8% stated that it was very important.

g) Educational participation

All teachers acknowledged the importance of educational participation but in varying degrees as 42.8% rated this as absolutely essential, 44.2% as very important and 13% as fairly important.

h) Cultural participation

Almost all teachers identified the importance of this aspect as 38.4% rated this as absolutely essential, 42% as very important and 18.1% as fairly important. One teacher indicated that it was not very important and another stated that it was not at all important.

i) Knowledge and understanding

Most teachers expressed the importance of the attainment of knowledge and understanding within education for citizenship as 22.5% rated it as absolutely essential, 46.4% as very important and 26.8% as fairly important. For 4.3% of teachers, it was not very important.

j) Skills and competencies

All teachers expressed the significance of the development of skills and competencies required for effective citizenship as 73.2% rated it as absolutely essential, 23.2% as very important and 3.6% as fairly important.

k) Values and dispositions

All teachers identified the significance of developing values and dispositions required in citizens as 61.6% stated that it was absolutely essential, 34.1% as very important and 4.3% as fairy important.

l) Creativity and enterprise

For most teachers, this aspect was important in varying degrees. It was absolutely essential for 29% of teachers, very important for 49.3% and fairly important for 18.1%. For 2.9% of teachers, it was not very important while not at all important for one teacher.

4.3 To what extent do teachers believe that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum and why? (Questionnaire and interview)

Question three in the questionnaire asked teachers to express to what extent they agreed or disagreed that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum. Most teachers agreed with this statement as 44.9% circled 'strongly agree' and 48.6% circled 'agree'. However 4.3% were not certain about the priority and 2.2% said they disagreed with the statement.

In the follow up interviews, teachers were asked why they agreed or disagreed that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the curriculum. The following sections provide a summary of their responses.

Strongly Agree

Out of the 17 teachers that were interviewed, nine stated that they 'strongly agreed' that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the curriculum. When asked why they strongly agreed, eight of them all articulated the importance of educating children to become effective and responsible citizens in the future. For these teachers, children need to have an awareness of the role and social responsibility they have in society, be taught life skills as well as be included as citizens. Children are future citizens and will be leading society in various forms which makes it essential to incorporate education for citizenship into the educational process as it enables schools to examine social responsibility, self management and responsibility, co-operating with other people and contributing in the local community. Education for citizenship offers many opportunities to educate the whole child and allows other areas of the curriculum and topics to be incorporated and makes them more meaningful and relevant. Overall, all children should learn how to become effective citizens and schools are valuable institutions in which to teach them how to do so. Schools need to equip and train children to become citizens as young people cannot be expected to develop effective citizenship themselves. The remaining one teacher expressed that co-operation and collaborating with others effectively was very important because this would enable children to learn for life and attain all their personal goals. Furthermore, it was also important for children to celebrate diversity because we live in a diverse world.

Agree

For the seven teachers who said that they 'agreed' that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the curriculum, the justification was slightly more varied than those who strongly agreed. According to five of these teachers, it was important for the whole child to contribute to society and have a role within it. Furthermore, education for citizenship influences the behaviour and actions of the future generation and teaches them about social responsibility. One teacher expanded this by saying that it also gives them a feeling of belonging and a sense of empowerment. The remaining two teachers focused their justification on the aspect of membership as they expressed that it was important for children to feel part of the

society they lived in and develop a sense of belonging through education for citizenship, which begins in the classroom.

Disagree

For the teacher who disagreed that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the curriculum, education for citizenship has simply emerged as a result of society's problems and is being promoted to solve society's problems. Primary school is not a place for solving society's problems as other areas of the curriculum such as maths and language hold more importance.

4.4 How relevant do teachers regard education for citizenship to the different curricular areas and why? (Interview)

In the follow up interviews, teachers were asked if they thought that education for citizenship was relevant to all subject areas and why. If they were not, then what areas was it relevant to and why. Out of the 17 teachers interviewed, nine expressed that education for citizenship is relevant to all subject areas as citizens need to develop and apply various knowledge, understanding and skills to be effective citizens. All nine teachers provided similar justifications and identified the importance of children experiencing the whole curriculum and the need to teach all subjects in order for effective education for citizenship and to create a well rounded citizen with all the key skills required. Interlinking citizenship in all subjects is an integral part of education for citizenship. These teachers identified that all subjects were relevant in the sense that children need to possess academic and practical knowledge and skills in order to participate in future society as citizens at political, economic, social and personal level. For example, as one teacher stated:

> "Whatever subject or aspect you're teaching, that will involve citizenship because it can be used in everything that you do. The skills that children are learning can be used in other areas and will be required in their own lives. So education for citizenship is relevant to all areas of the curriculum."

Another teacher, who shares a similar view to the above, elaborated further:

"In experiencing the whole curriculum, pupils will show that they are respectful of others, willing to take part in all activities, careful with materials and able to tidy up. In a group situation pupils should be able to learn about a chosen topic, understand different lifestyles, make decisions and share personal views and opinions. In language, for example, children learn to reflect and develop ideas and stances. They can practise communicating their thoughts and feelings through talking and writing and learn to consider the thoughts and feelings of other people. In maths, for example, applying maths in other curricular areas helps children to develop their knowledge, understanding and use of sustainability. It also helps them make informal decisions in interpreting numerical information."

One teacher identified the typical view that many people may have of citizenship and what it actually is:

"We tend to think of citizenship as political. It's really a wide spectrum of social responsibility. It's important to get children to be literate and numerate so that they can engage in the world. For example, with my P2 class, I'm doing money with them and it's an important skill. Children need to have these skills of literacy and numeracy to engage in the world."

Like the others, this teacher identified the importance of children developing and possessing academic knowledge and skills that they will require and can apply as practising citizens of the country at all levels of society.

For seven of the teachers interviewed, education for citizenship was relevant to certain or most subjects in the curriculum but not all of them. Environmental studies was the main curricular area identified as the most relevant. Other areas deemed relevant were personal and social development, religious and moral education, science and health. Four teachers did not regard maths as relevant to citizenship at

all. In answering the interview question about the relevance of subjects to education for citizenship, one teacher stated:

"For most subjects, yes. For subjects like maths and science, no. What do they (maths and science) have to do with citizenship?"

Another teacher stated:

"In areas like maths, I don't see the links."

These teachers who did not perceive citizenship as interlinked with the entire curriculum or all subjects had some ideas as to what areas of the curriculum were related whilst being unsure about other areas. For example, as one teacher articulated:

> "It is probably more relevant to environmental studies. It can come into language as well. I would find it difficult to make the link with some subjects like maths. In language, children can get involved in research. Environmental studies is the one that has more relevance with its topics. There are probably links with other areas but I wouldn't be confident to make those links."

Unlike the respondents who believe that citizenship is relevant to all areas of the curriculum, these teachers did not seem to show the understanding of how all subject knowledge and skills would be relevant and applied as future citizens. For example, they regard maths as irrelevant because of its numerical nature and do not perceive it as a subject that all citizens require in order to engage in the world at personal and societal level.

One teacher did not explicitly express either view but was more broad in the articulation of her opinion. For this teacher:

> "Education for citizenship is part of how we treat each other and how we are as a person. Citizenship is not a stand alone subject. There might be times

when you address it as a stand alone subject. It is broader than that. It's part of a school ethos and how people are with each other."

This statement reflects the teacher's view of citizenship being more of an integral experience for children at subject and practical level. It is about the whole school experience of the child in terms of the explicit and implicit curriculum.

4.5 Which general approach of implementing education for citizenship do teachers believe in – permeating citizenship throughout the whole curriculum or applying a specific time allocation to it in the school timetable? (Interview)

In the follow up interviews, teachers were asked if they thought that education for citizenship should permeate the whole curriculum or if there should be a specific time allocation to it in the school timetable. Twelve out of the 17 teachers interviewed articulated that education for citizenship should be permeated throughout the whole curriculum. Six of these interviewees justified this opinion with the idea that if education for citizenship is to make a child an effective citizen, then it should permeate the whole curriculum because in experiencing the whole curriculum, children will develop all aspects of citizenship in terms of knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes. Furthermore, if citizenship education is embedded in the whole curriculum, it becomes relevant to children's daily interactions, activities and behaviour. As one teacher stated, education for citizenship:

"…. should be part of the school ethos and everyday education rather than stand alone …….. Children should be aware of citizenship in their everyday life rather than experiencing stand alone activities."

Other teachers had other justifications for allowing permeation across the curriculum. According to one teacher:

"Education for citizenship should not be put in the timetable as a subject. It should be part of developing attitudes. Things are always being added to the curriculum. Citizenship education is not teaching something new. It's about responsibility."

This response indicates the interviewee's belief that education for citizenship is simply but significantly entitling a practice that already exists in Scottish schools and is not an additional area of the curriculum. It involves developing positive attitudes and a sense of responsibility which cannot be taught effectively through timetabled lessons which is why it should be incorporated within the hidden curriculum.

According to one teacher, citizenship should not be given a timetable as teachers may not be consistent in their approach and may place different emphasis on different aspects of citizenship. On the other hand, two teachers acknowledged that there may be specific content that will be relevant and applicable to classroom teaching of separate lessons.

Five out of the 17 teachers interviewed believed that education for citizenship should consist of both the permeation throughout the curriculum and teaching it through specific lessons with a time allocation to it in the school timetable. Three of these teachers expressed the importance of time allocation in order to help teachers to identify the outcomes and content and ensure that they were teaching the relevant citizenship knowledge, understanding and skills. As one teacher expressed:

"There should be a time allocation to allow you to build it up effectively in the curriculum. There should be a breakdown of time. We should know the time allocation within that …….. You need to know the time allocations of citizenship in order to take it forward. It's not like the olden days where you had 2 hours and 20 minutes for one subject and 2 hours for another. It's become more flexible than that."

One teacher, who used to be an 'Education for Citizenship Development Officer' for Learning and Teaching Scotland, articulated the significance and benefit of

permeating citizenship throughout the whole curriculum and incorporating citizenship into specific timetabled lessons in all areas of the curriculum:

> "…… I have seen proof that education for citizenship works best when it is permeated in the whole curriculum and school. If it's brought through environmental studies, you can bring citizenship into all of the units. For example, in the topic of Victorian, you can study how children lived in those days and compare them to the lives of today's children and focus on human rights. You can bring it out in everything, the whole school ethos and the way children are invited to learn. There are times where citizenship can be given a time but it will still be difficult to isolate it from other areas of the curriculum. If it is time allocated then it might help teachers to identify the outcomes and content of it. In one school I worked in, once teachers became confident in this area, it helped them to incorporate it into other areas."

4.6 To what extent do teachers feel confident in contributing to whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship? (Questionnaire and interview)

4.6.1 Whole School

In the questionnaire, teachers were asked if they felt confident in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship and were required to select a word or phrase that best described their opinion to the statement '*I feel confident in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship.*' Most teachers felt confident in contributing to this approach as 32.6% indicated that they strongly agreed with this statement and 56.5% said that they agreed. One teacher did not feel confident and 10.1% were not certain about their confidence.

The follow up interviews asked participants to justify why they had expressed these opinions. The following sections provide a summary of their responses.

Strongly Agree

Out of the 17 teachers interviewed, two of them had stated in their questionnaire that they strongly felt confident about contributing to a whole school approach. In explaining why they felt so confident, both teachers talked about their previous experience and teaching posts and how they developed their knowledge and skills. Teacher A used to be an 'Education for Citizenship Development Officer' for Learning and Teaching Scotland and she discussed how the experience allowed her to visit many schools which provided her with a strong base for education for citizenship. However, she also stressed that she was confident before this post because of her experience in teaching. She used to engage in planning charity events where children would be involved in planning, devising and holding events as well as being responsible for pupil councils. She claims that it was the success of these projects that gave her the confidence.

Teacher B stated that she wrote the health and P.S.D programme for her school and talked about how developing curricular areas has made her very confident. This school was awarded with the best health review by the Quality Improvement Officer and so was pleased with the positive feedback about their practice.

Agree

The 13 interviewees who circled 'agreed' for the statement *'I feel confident in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship'* justified their choice by referring to the support of the whole school ethos and whole school activities; personal and teaching experience; in-service training conducted by the school and their own personal beliefs in citizenship. Five out of these 13 teachers discussed the influence that the school ethos placed on their confidence as they participated in many activities that promote citizenship such as assemblies, anti-bullying initiatives and charity events. The focus on citizenship in schools made the teachers focus on it and made them aware of how to integrate it into subjects. The whole school ethos and approach provided support to these teachers to promote citizenship. For one teacher, participation in the diversity and eco-working parties was also a basis for confidence in whole school approaches. For another school teacher, effective citizenship can be achieved by a whole school approach. In other

words, citizenship cannot take place without whole school approaches.

For another five of these teachers who felt they had confidence in whole school approaches to education for citizenship, personal and teaching experience played an important role in its development as well as the attendance and participation in school CPD and in-service courses on the curriculum for excellence and education for citizenship. Involvement in a variety of working parties was also a factor. When attending various courses, teachers engage in different discussions about their own experiences and share ideas with each other.

Three teachers justified their confidence on their personal belief system in relation to citizenship. Since citizenship and education for citizenship was important, they shared the enthusiasm for this developing area. They believed that everyone should be contributing to society and felt that they could make a significant contribution provided they possess the correct information.

Not Certain

Two out of the 17 teachers were not certain about their confidence. For one teacher, it was because she had not been trained in it and lacked knowledge about the subject of citizenship. She had not approached it before. For another teacher, it was because her school did not discuss citizenship at all. Although the school did have a working party, which this teacher was a part of, this was not approached as a whole staff.

4.6.2 Classroom

In the questionnaire, teachers were asked if they felt confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom and were required to select a word or phrase that best described their opinion to the statement '*I feel confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom.*' Nearly all teachers felt that they were confident as 36.2% strongly agreed with this statement while 59.4% agreed. There was uncertainty amongst 4.3% of teachers about their confidence levels.

Strongly agree

Generally, teachers felt more confident at promoting citizenship in the classroom than at whole school level. Five of the teachers interviewed strongly agreed that they were confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom and were varied reasons for this. For two of these teachers, it stemmed from the training they received on citizenship which involved full training days in the primary curriculum which explored the different ways that citizenship could be incorporated into the curriculum. They also referred to their own enthusiasm, personal emphasis on citizenship and the support they get from the whole school ethos. They also talked about the positive feedback they receive from children through end of term or annual evaluations in which pupils express the enjoyment of practical experiences and enthusiasm for them.

The other three teachers discussed their teaching experiences, knowledge and understanding to justify their strong confidence levels in relation to citizenship in the classroom. For these teachers, their own views, their role in developing the whole child, own teaching experiences and understanding of citizenship have made them confident to integrate citizenship in classroom lessons and experiences. These teachers also emphasised the importance of the ethos of the school as it permeates respect, roles and responsibilities of staff and children. One teacher said that she would know how to find resources such as books, lesson plans and people that could promote citizenship and that knowing where to find people such as UNICEF representatives, education officers and amnesty representatives was also important. It was because of her knowledge of where to find these people and other resources that made her confident about finding such links for citizenship.

Agree

The remaining 12 teachers who took part in the interview all indicated 'agree' in their questionnaire to the statement *'I feel confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom'.* Five of these teachers based the justification of their confidence levels on the employment of teaching approaches in the classroom and the delivery of the curricular areas in the classroom. They talked about the nature of

developing relationships with children and teaching them to respect others. Their teaching approaches were influenced by their personal pedagogies and their awareness of their role to extend children's awareness and understanding of the community and the world. They tried to relate and incorporate citizenship into social topics in environmental studies and science. For example, one teacher implemented a topic on 'Caring in the Community' with her primary 4 class and collaborated with her stage partner to discuss how different aspects of the topic could be linked to citizenship which included taking children to visit the community and a care home. The teacher articulated how this topic taught the children about their place in the community, how they could get involved and how they could help. The primary 4 children filmed the visit to the care home where they recorded their experiences, feelings and thoughts about the whole event. They then put the film into a pod cast and posted it onto the internet through the school web links. So for this teacher, it was through her implementation of existent curricular environmental topics that developed her confidence in approaches to citizenship activities.

For another five of these teachers, their confidence developed from their own knowledge as adult citizens and teaching experience. They commented on their own confidence being due to their enthusiasm about the subject and their varied personal life experiences in the U.K and in other countries as well as their various teaching experiences. For one teacher, her experience in teaching citizenship as a discrete subject helped her to permeate it into classroom activities. Confidence was a key component for effective citizenship education. As one teacher said:

> "If I'm not confident then it's difficult to do education for citizenship effectively."

Furthermore, one teacher commented that she knew of some teachers who weren't so confident and enthusiastic about education for citizenship as they felt it was just another activity added on to the day. She believed that this resistance was due to the lack of confidence and enthusiasm.

For one teacher, attending courses for critical thinking skills and whole school initiatives helped her to be confident in education for citizenship. She explained that the curriculum for excellence had demonstrated that citizenship activities were always being practised but were now being acknowledged and highlighted. The difference now is that citizenship has to be done in a more professional method and teachers now have to ensure that it is incorporated and implemented in each curricular area. For another teacher, being involved in a working party which is exploring how the school can begin global citizenship has made her realise that children are aware of their rights but not their responsibilities which has then reformed her teaching approaches in the classroom.

4.7 What aspects and activities do teachers regard as whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship? (Interview)

4.7.1 Whole School Activities and Approaches

In the interviews, teachers were asked about what aspects and activities they would refer to as whole school approaches. Fifteen of the interviewees all identified similar specific activities and programmes that they considered as whole school approaches. The responses can be divided into two categories – those that refer to a teacher's own knowledge and understanding and those that refer to the activities taking place in a teacher's own school. In other words, most of these teachers talked about the citizenship activities, systems and programmes that were embedded or being practised in their own school. They seemed to rely on practical events and observations to answer the question rather than reflect on their own knowledge and opinions. On the other hand, some teachers did not discuss observed practise but presented a more general overview of their ideology. According to the 10 teachers that based their responses on observed practice and experience, whole school approaches to citizenship included assemblies that rewarded good citizenship, successful learning and confident individuals; Circle Time; enterprise projects; fair-trade activities; different charity events; whole school shows; pupil councils; eco-

committees; inviting outside speakers to talk to children about culture and the environment; school trips and specific topic weeks such as the Anti-bullying Week, Diversity Week, Citizenship Week and Eco-Schools Week. On the other hand, another 5 teachers talked about their personal views based on their knowledge and understanding and did not refer to practices that took place in their own school. For them, whole school approaches involved the policies in place, the school approach to behaviour and discipline, reward schemes and promotion of positive behaviour, promoting citizenship at assemblies and circle time; charity events; pupil councils; how schools emphasise children's place in society, social responsibility; emotional literacy; citizenship related topics; fair trade projects; whole school ethos and the quality of pupil-teacher interactions. In her response, one teacher said:

" .... anything that involves the life of the school."

This indicates the teacher's perception that citizenship is a holistic experience for the child which can include a wide range of experiences and activities. For another teacher, whole school citizenship was not just about pupil-related tasks but also about teacher activities and the involvement of the whole staff, as the following quote suggests:

" ……. Schools need to have shared values which comes through ethos. There needs to be a mission statement which has been agreed by staff and the community. Values should be talked about regularly. It's also about having committees, working groups and assemblies. It's about active participation from children who also need to have a voice. The eco-committee is an example of this. Children also need to have an informal voice where they are encouraged to self evaluate and take their learning forward. The whole school needs to be committed to the global dimension and have international links. You need to have social justice, equality and fairness. It's also about establishing positive relationships with children. If you've got that right then you will have good citizenship in the classroom."

For one teacher, whole school approaches only comprised of teacher-related activities such as working parties, making planners for each stage and the provision of workshops for parents. She did not identify any pupil related activity. Another teacher claimed that her school was not doing any citizenship at all. She acknowledged that there was a need for its awareness amongst her school staff and an evaluation of the school policies.

4.7.2 Classroom Activities and Approaches

There were varied responses to the interview question about the aspects and activities that teachers would refer to as classroom approaches. Most of them provided a number of different activities and systems that they would categorise as classroom approaches to citizenship. Seven teachers discussed the aspect of classroom ethos, rules and discipline. They talked about citizenship comprising of class discipline and how a teacher deals with conflict amongst children and pupil-teacher interactions. Children need to be involved in learning, the ethos, classroom rules and the planning of learning and know about how to maintain respectful relationships, group work and develop skills required for group work and co-operation. Classroom ethos also involves pupil voice. Citizenship in the classroom is about children having a voice in aspects such as their classroom rules and reward systems as well as understanding that everyone else has a right to an opinion. It is also important to enable children to discuss and create class rules. It is through a positive classroom ethos that teachers can discuss what is acceptable within the class community and make children aware of these rules and responsibilities. Children must also be rewarded for doing their best and for positive and citizenship behaviour e.g. being awarded with 'citizenship of the month' certificates.

Five of the interviewees referred to P.S.D and R.E topics and lessons as involving considerable citizenship content and opportunities which enabled children to relate these topics to society. Many R.E lessons were about citizenship or can be linked to citizenship. They also acknowledged the idea of different curricular areas encouraging citizenship in children. For example, one teacher referred to a science topic she conducted about food with her P2 class. She amended some of the lessons

that were provided in the teaching pack to make them more effective and researched and used Oxfam resources about food. The P2 children examined different lifestyles and issues related to food.

Circle Time was also mentioned by seven interviewees as an effective strategy for promoting citizenship and exploring values such as respect and kindness and skills such as communication, problem solving and sharing ideas. They also learn how to deal with conflicts, feelings and strategies for resolving situations. One teacher talked about how circle time sessions are used at the beginning of the year to discuss and create classroom rules. She also used circle time throughout the year to discuss problems and remind the children about the people who are there to help them. Furthermore, it is used to remind them that they have their own responsibility for themselves and to each other.

Integrating citizenship into topics and units was also recognised as a classroom approach. Four of the teachers expressed the notion that different parts of curricular areas can always incorporate citizenship. For example, one teacher talked about the topic on 'electricity', and how she explored the idea of conserving fuel and linked it with Malawi and their scarce resources which brings in concepts of justice and fairness. She also talked about more specific topics such as the Scottish Parliament and the European Parliament studied in the upper primary stage and how these were environmental studies topics that can bring in stronger elements of education for citizenship.

Five of the teachers discussed the practice of giving children responsibility in class by the use of helper charts where individuals are allocated duties within the classroom such as table leaders and jotter helpers. The idea of children taking responsibility for their learning through ongoing decision making in the classroom and independent learning tasks was also mentioned. This involved systems like having independent task boards, working with partners and as a team and co-operating with others. Enterprise was also one of the methods through which children experienced independent learning and integrated citizenship. For example, one

teacher talked about her primary 4 class undertaking a charity project in which the children were involved in planning the activities and inviting external speakers to visit the class. This particular teacher seemed to view enterprise as intertwined with citizenship as she stated:

> "We're an enterprise school and it's built into our ethos. Citizenship is also there. It's so built in that it's hard to separate it."

Another teacher explained that when she is engaging in enterprise activities, she focuses on citizenship. For instance, for group tasks, she usually begins by discussing the group rules, expected behaviour and how children should interact with each other before starting their task. The actual enterprise tasks are also linked to citizenship.

Certain individual teachers also mentioned particular strategies that could not be categorised into the majority responses. One teacher mentioned the development of critical skills through a scheme available entitled 'Critical Skills' which encourages approaches to groups work for working out situations and tackling tasks. According to this teacher, critical skills are important as it enables one to take more responsibility for learning.

One teacher mentioned the fact that subjects themselves can be significant for education for citizenship in the sense that they develop key knowledge and skills that are required for a future citizen. This teacher gave the example of maths:

> ".... when studying money, I get the children to relate it to other people and link it to real life. It's not just about counting money, it's about showing children how to go out and participate in society."

The responses to the interview question *'What aspects and activities would you refer to as classroom approaches?'* can also, just like those of the whole school approaches, be categorised into two key sections – those that refer to a teacher's general knowledge and understanding and those that refer to specific activities and

systems that take place in the interviewee's own classroom. Firstly, 9 teachers named and discussed the general activities and systems that made effective approaches to citizenship in the classroom and presented a more general overview of their ideas. On the other hand, the other 8 teachers referred to activities and systems that they were practising in their own classrooms. In other words, they were more confident in specifying particular activities that took place in their own classrooms rather than present an overview of citizenship practice.

4.8 How competent do teachers feel about their knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and promoting education for citizenship? (Questionnaire)

In the questionnaire, participants were asked to rate their competence in education for citizenship by selecting either 'excellent, competent, satisfactory' or 'unsatisfactory' to complete the statement '*I believe my knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and promoting education for citizenship is ....'.* About 77% of teachers believed that they were very capable of teaching and promoting education for citizenship as 8.7% rated their knowledge, understanding and skills in this area as 'excellent' and 68.1% as 'competent'. For 21.7%, it was satisfactory and only two teachers said that it was unsatisfactory.

4.9 What aspects and activities do teachers think contribute to their competent knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship? (Interview)

In the interview, the teachers who had rated their knowledge, understanding and skills as excellent or competent in the questionnaire, were asked *'what do you think makes your knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship excellent or competent? Is it your experience, courses or interest in the area?'* The following sections report their responses under the ratings they applied to themselves.

4.9.1 Excellent

Only one of the teachers interviewed, who was professionally experienced, had rated her competence as 'excellent'. In response to the interview question, she justified this excellence with her experience of citizenship in schools. For half of her career, she worked in challenging schools in deprived environments and had to find various approaches to teaching and learning and how to engage with learners. Her experience taught her that the type of approaches that were relevant to citizenship were the ones that motivated the learners the most and were still effective today. She also talked about the effectiveness of pupil councils and her realisation that children knew what they wanted. There were elements of risk taking involved which was a positive aspect as risks need to be taken to see what works. The more you do, the more you learn about what works. This teacher also did a lot of reading and participated in whole school projects. However, this teacher later became a citizenship education officer for Learning and Teaching Scotland and attended the conferences that were organised by them which she found very effective. These conferences showed examples of good practice and documents that could be read. She also claimed that working for East Renfrewshire has also helped her because:

> "they like to do everything well and aim for effective practice. I went to various meetings and courses, saw so many people, travelled around the country, organised conferences and studied academic texts that have all made me confident and very competent."

4.9.2 Competent

Ten of the teachers interviewed had rated their knowledge, understanding and skills in citizenship as 'competent'. They were also asked the question *'what do you think makes your knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship excellent or competent? Is it your experience, courses or interest in the area?'* The responses received can be categorised into 3 particular areas – the attendance of professional courses; personal interests and experiences; support from staff and engagement in working parties and professional dialogue. All of the teachers talked

about a combination of these aspects and did not justify their competence with only one area. Six of these teachers referred to courses that they had attended with most specific to citizenship whilst others covered a mixed variety of topics such as teaching and learning strategies, class and pupil management. These courses ranged from inservice days, CPD courses and twilight courses. Two teachers stated that there were no citizenship courses available.

Five teachers talked about the whole school ethos and the support they received from other members of staff. For example, one teacher talked about the importance of the school ethos and that her school had a holistic approach to contextualised learning. She emphasised the collaboration and communication that existed in her school:

> "There's so much collaboration between staff members. The first stage (p1-3) teachers discuss and share resources, ideas and experiences. The p4-5 and P6-7 teachers also engage in collaborative participation. They get feedback from teachers about the delivery of the curriculum. They can introduce their own ideas and get feedback from pupils – positive and negative. The feedback is part of the four aspirations of the new curriculum."

Other teachers talked about the value of working with stage partners and receiving a lot of support and guidance from experienced staff. For one teacher, being involved in a working party made her more aware of resources and initiatives about certain aspects of citizenship.

Six teachers also discussed the importance of their own teaching experience and interest that made them competent in implementing citizenship. As one teacher stated:

> "There are not enough courses in the world that makes you interested. If you're not motivated then you're not going to do it effectively. Motivation is a key to learning anything."

However, one teacher raised the issue of the importance of having a shared definition of citizenship:

> "I would like a definition of citizenship, not just the one I've made up. Although I know what citizenship involves from my understanding, I could be wrong. I feel that I need a definition of citizenship from the authorities. I want to know what I'm suppose to be doing and covering in citizenship education. The definition of citizenship could cover all sorts of things. I could probably apply a variety of activities that covers citizenship. We need to be given guidance on the definition from local authorities and the Scottish Office. We need to be doing the same thing. We need to have a commonality of practice."

This teacher's comment demonstrates the significance of an established and shared concept or definition of citizenship to provide a basis for the practice of education for citizenship.

4.10 What knowledge, understanding and skills do teachers feel are needed to increase their competence in implementing education for citizenship? (Interview)

In the interview, the teachers who had rated their knowledge, understanding and skills as 'satisfactory' or 'unsatisfactory' in the questionnaire, were asked *'what knowledge, understanding and skills do you feel you need in order to increase your competence in education for citizenship?'* The following sections report their responses under the ratings they applied to themselves.

4.10.1 Satisfactory

In the interview, all of the five teachers who rated their competence in education for citizenship as 'satisfactory' in the questionnaire, expressed their need for more training and courses in this curricular area. Although they already had some knowledge of the different aspects of education for citizenship, they still felt they

wanted to learn more and have clearer guidelines. One teacher talked about having more CPD, greater reading and understanding of theory and peer monitoring where she could go into other classes and observe the practice of other teachers and compare this with her own. She could then use these observations to evaluate her own teaching and learning and be able to assess the effectiveness of her practice. Doing this would develop her confidence in her own practice. Another teacher stated that topics for discussions on inset day and a CPD drive would increase her competence in education for citizenship.

One teacher discussed the issue of her definition of citizenship and how an established definition would make her more confident and competent in implementing education for citizenship:

> "My definition of citizenship could be right or wrong. No one's actually presented me with a definition by the Scottish Executive or Glasgow City Council. If there was a definition presented, I would feel much more confident of the citizenship topic as a discrete subject and know more about the resources and materials available. I don't feel that it has got that status if I don't know much about it. It links with enterprise because of the skills that are developed and applied in real life. I've heard more about enterprise than citizenship."

This teacher shares a similar view to the one expressed above about the significance of an established and shared concept or definition of citizenship to provide a basis for the practice of education for citizenship.

4.10.2 Unsatisfactory

One teacher who felt that her competence was unsatisfactory referred to not having any knowledge about what education for citizenship entails and that she needed some policies and statement of aims to learn about it. She claimed that although she had knowledge about what made an effective citizen, her information could be incorrect. Because of this, she expressed her need to have more training and information.

4.11 The correlation between the evaluation of competence and confidence in whole school and classroom approaches

		Confidence in whole school approaches				
		strongly agree	agree	not certain	disagree	Total
Belief in own knowledge, understanding and skills	Excellent	9	2	1	0	12
	Competent	34	56	4	0	94
	Satisfactory	2	20	8	0	30
	Unsatisfactory	0	0	1	1	2
Total		45	78	14	1	138

Table 1

Correlation between belief in own knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship and confidence in whole school approaches

A crosstabulation exercise conducted by the SPSS package showed that a significant correlation exists between the belief that teachers hold about their own competence in implementing education for citizenship and the level of their confidence in contributing to whole school and classroom approaches within this area. Firstly, in terms of confidence with whole school approaches, the crosstabulation above in Table 1 shows that the teachers who rated themselves as 'excellent' or 'competent' also show very strong confidence levels. For example, 73% of teachers who rated themselves as 'excellent' or 'competent' either 'strongly agreed' or 'agreed' that they were confident in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship whereas 16% of teachers rated their competence as 'satisfactory' and agreed that they were confident. This is reinforced by the fact that about 6% of teachers whose competence was 'satisfactory' were uncertain about their confidence levels. For most teachers, the higher they rated themselves in terms of competence, the higher their confidence levels. The correlation apparent from the inspection of the table is statistically significant, with the chi score (X^2 (9, N = 138) = 101.483α, p < 0.001).

| | | Confidence in classroom approaches | | | |
		strongly agree	agree	not certain	Total
Belief in own knowledge, understanding and skills	Excellent	10	2	0	12
	Competent	38	55	1	94
	Satisfactory	2	24	4	30
	Unsatisfactory	0	1	1	2
Total		50	82	6	138

Table 2

Correlation between belief in own knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship and confidence in classroom approaches

The crosstabulation table above in Table 2 also shows that the teachers who rated themselves as 'excellent' or 'competent' demonstrate very strong confidence levels in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom. For example, 76% of teachers who rated themselves as 'excellent' or 'competent' either 'strongly agreed' or 'agreed' that they were confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom whereas 19% of teachers rated their competence as 'satisfactory' and agreed that they were confident. Again, the higher that teachers rate themselves in terms of competence, the higher their confidence levels. The correlation apparent from the inspection of the table is statistically significant, with the chi score (X^2 (6, N = 138) = 39.650α, p < 0.001).

4.12 What in-service training and CPD activities do teachers think are valuable and useful for developing professional competence in education for citizenship?(Questionnaire and Interview)

4.12.1 The provision of adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities for education for citizenship

In the questionnaire, teachers were asked to select 'agree' or 'disagree' to the statement '*my school has provided adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities in education for citizenship.* The valid percentage of teachers that agreed with the statement was 69.2% whilst 30.8% disagreed. Out of the 138 teachers who completed the questionnaire, five chose not to answer this question for various reasons. Two teachers indicated that they were new to the school and so felt unable to comment. One teacher felt that in-service training and CPD in citizenship was more the role of the authority rather than the school whilst another teacher said that although the in-service training regarding the Curriculum for Excellence had touched upon citizenship, she did not have the opportunity to be involved in such training.

In the follow up interviews, the teachers who agreed that their school provided adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities in education for citizenship were asked the question *'what in-service training / CPD activities in education for citizenship has your school offered that has been beneficial to you? In what way do you think the activities / courses you have just specified were helpful?'* The teachers who did not agree that their school had provided adequate training were asked the question *'what in-service training / CPD activities would you like your school to offer you in education for citizenship in order to develop your competence?'* The following sections will now report on the responses that each of the two groups provided.

4.12.2 Training and experience offered by schools

Six of the teachers interviewed had agreed in the questionnaire that their school provided adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities. The teachers all particularly referred to in-service days, CPD, PAT nights and collegiate meetings that had been scheduled or offered within their schools. Professional dialogue was also recognised as an important medium for exploring and learning about education for citizenship. However, teachers were open about the types of courses offered by their own councils and there were differing views about the type of support different councils offered.

One teacher commented on her local authority and stated that it offered a range of courses and the freedom of choice. She felt that the courses had been helpful in that they provided different ideas and resources that could be used. However, she had not undertaken any courses on citizenship from the school itself but was already included in projects and activities such as the anti-bullying and eco-schools initiatives. She further added that there were so many aspects in citizenship that teachers in her school had had training in but they were not explicitly aware of it. For example, they had received citizenship training through courses and activities such as Circle Time, Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PASS) and conflict resolution and mediation.

A teacher from another local authority stated that it had offered many courses in citizenship to all teachers but due to time constraints, she had not been on any. However, another teacher from a different authority said that the CPD offered by this council was limited and had offered no courses for the year 2008/2009. Her current school was engaging in and promoting education for citizenship considerably and was taking an integrated approach to it in terms of whole school ethos and initiatives. It seemed that this particular staff of teachers were independently promoting their school as a citizenship school without the guidance and encouragement from their council.

Individual teachers made particular points that could be considered significant in the development of effective education for citizenship. For example, one teacher articulated that discussions with other teachers about how they use citizenship education as part of the curriculum was helpful for her development. Although courses were useful, discussions with other teachers are more beneficial because it allows better ideas about the implementation of education for citizenship to be shared. She also stated that she had not been to any council courses entitled with the words 'citizenship education' but had attended related courses such as science and P.S.D. Furthermore, another teacher who also claimed that she had not actually attended any courses specifically entitled as 'citizenship education', there were courses she attended that could be linked to this area. All courses were trying to promote citizenship by either teaching how it could be taught or incorporated into lessons and methodologies.

For one teacher, the interview triggered some questions about what the authorities define as citizenship and the level of their guidance. It also made her evaluate and reflect on her own genuine knowledge and understanding about it.

"I'd like to know what the authorities are defining as citizenship. What do they define as citizenship? I would like to know what they want us to do. It would be easier to build up from there. How much time throughout the year should we be spending on it? I'd like them to tell us how much time in the year we should be spending on education for citizenship. We need some guidance on whole school approaches, classroom focus and time allocation. It wouldn't be that difficult to bring citizenship into children's program of work. It could be an approach to things. The more you have asked me questions, the more I doubt myself because of the lack of guidance. Your questions make me doubt how much I really know."

4.12.3 Preferred training and CPD activities by teachers

Eleven of the teachers interviewed had disagreed in the questionnaire that their school provided adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities. Nine of these teachers all expressed their desire for more continuous professional development and in-service training that involved external speakers from local authorities to visit schools and train staff about the implementation of citizenship education and the resources available. The importance of exploring whole school approaches was mentioned where citizenship training is conducted in such a way that it applies to all members of the school community. As one teacher articulated:

"A whole school approach is better because it enables you to apply it throughout the whole school and in other classes and would reinforce the idea of school community. You get some teachers saying things like 'Oh, I don't need to do that course because I've got a P__ class. It's got nothing to do with me'. We have a responsibility to equip ourselves and broaden our approaches rather than focusing on our own stage because teachers are given a different class every year. The courses can be applicable at any time in future classes. "

Another teacher discussed the fact that her staff wanted to focus on citizenship which involved the whole staff – teachers, support staff and catering staff – as they all needed to be aware of the school focus and next steps. For this reason, she felt that there needed to be a whole school in-service that involved the whole school community.

Teachers also mentioned the significance of professional dialogue. They desired the opportunities for discussing education for citizenship and how to implement it in order to raise awareness of it and share ideas.

The issue of the availability of resources was also mentioned. One teacher raised her concern about finding resources that had interesting and stimulating activities. She acknowledged that although resources were available, they had to be searched and were not immediately available. Another teacher had searched the LTS website but

could not find any resources about it and any examples of good practice. She made the point of wanting more access to online resources. However, the LTS website does have a complete section on citizenship in which it focuses in detail on the concept of citizenship and what it means for Scottish schools and provides case studies of effective practice as well as creative teaching ideas and a management toolkit.

The responses of the remaining two teachers did not seem to share the above issues. One teacher actually felt that there was no need to focus on citizenship because her school staff were already interested in it:

> "We are a diverse school with diverse staff with an interest in education for citizenship so we feel no need to focus on it or to make it a target. We have a lovely ethos in the school."

This view clearly demonstrates complacency in the field of citizenship and reinforces the point made by the teacher quoted above who stated that some teachers feel that they do not need to undertake particular courses because they feel that it is not relevant to their stage.

The other teacher claimed that her school could do a lot more for education for citizenship awareness, particularly in terms of categorising the existing practice. She explained that her school actually practised a lot of citizenship education but that it was not categorised as such and that teachers did not realise they were implementing it. This implies that the school required an audit or evaluation of existing practice and resources as advocated by Learning and Teaching Scotland (2002).

4.13 Conclusion

The data collected for this study reveals key issues regarding the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of primary teachers regarding particular aspects of education for citizenship and has provided evidence of the correlations that exist

between certain areas of teacher professionalism such as competence and confidence levels. The next chapter will explore the significance of the revelations behind teachers' views and the potential effect of these on education for citizenship.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses and discusses the data reported in chapter 4 and will be presented in the same order. It is important to emphasise that generalisation is avoided in this study, especially because of the sample size and the fact that any study will not necessarily represent the opinion of the general population. This study, however, does highlight particular conditions necessary for the effective establishment of education for citizenship and suggests the need for ensuring that such conditions are met amongst the teaching profession.

5.2 Teachers' conceptions of citizenship and the aims of education for citizenship

The exploration and interpretation of Scottish primary school teachers' differing conceptions of citizenship and the varying importance they place on particular aims of education for citizenship presents a number of curricular and pedagogical issues because "various perspectives on citizenship also have significantly varying implications for curriculum" (Westeheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 238). The implications of this statement are that if educators focus on particular key concepts of citizenship in their planning, curriculum design and methodology and emphasise particular aims in their curricular programs, they will implement education for citizenship that is specific to these conceptions and aims. The present study data shows that every participant tended to have differing perceptions and understandings about the concept of citizenship. Such individual interpretations can potentially influence and shape teaching practice. Teachers' understanding of citizenship and the emphasis on particular aspects will significantly influence the education for citizenship they provide in the classroom. In the general teaching population, every teacher will adopt his or her own style in the classroom that has been shaped by his

or her personal and professional knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, belief structures and interpretation of the world around them. For education for citizenship in the classroom, this means that the teaching and experiences provided are more likely to centre upon particular or biased conceptions and aims. For example, with reference to Alexander's (2001) nine elements of citizenship, the participants of the present study did not mention any aspect of accountability in their own definition of citizenship but mentioned other elements in varying degrees. This could either mean that accountability was not viewed by the participants as being directly relevant to citizenship or that, due to the precedence of other elements, the importance of accountability was minimised to the extent that it was not worth mentioning it as a characteristic of citizenship. Either way, it seems contradictory that teachers are unaware of this significant aspect of citizenship as they themselves abide by their personal and professional lives by accountability. In the school setting, they are professionally accountable to the headteacher and the local authorities for their classroom practice. In their personal lives, they are accountable to the government for their behaviour and actions. It is, therefore, surprising that teachers in the study did not seem to show awareness of accountability being a constituent of citizenship. As a consequence, these teachers are less likely to incorporate the importance of accountability in their own education for citizenship programme, which creates a missing link in the preparation of children for effective citizenship.

This analysis has been influenced by the findings of a key study conducted by Westheimer and Kahne (2004) which illustrates the potential effect that the differing views of teachers may have on education for citizenship. The research conducted by Westheimer and Kahne (2004) reports on two citizenship education programs that were studied in the U.S.A. One program focused on developing participatory citizens and the other justice oriented citizens. Both the quantitative and qualitative data showed that the decisions made when devising these programs usually affect the politically significant outcomes in terms of the ways that students interpret society and their roles as democratic citizens. Both establishments reported in the study were successful in achieving the outcomes consistent with their visions of citizenship. However, the qualitative and quantitative data from the research illustrated

significant differences in impact. One program, which was consistent with a vision of participatory citizenship, seemed to greatly impact on students' abilities and commitment to civic participation. The other program, which was consistent with a vision of justice-oriented citizenship, appeared to impact on students' capacities to address issues of social justice and the root causes of problems.

The findings and analysis of Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) study can be used to identify significant indications of the findings of the present study. In terms of the Scottish approach to education for citizenship, the data of the present study regarding the varying interpretations of citizenship amongst teachers shows that an established and shared definition of citizenship and set of aims within schools is significant. This is to provide an education that promotes the development of well qualified citizens with essential and consistent knowledge, understanding, skills and values required for social and moral responsibility, community involvement, political literacy, political participation, economic participation, social participation, cultural participation, creativity and enterprise. Consistency in practice can only be achieved if teachers are established in their own professional knowledge, understanding and skills that are conducive to an effective education for citizenship.

5.2.1 The significance of a universal concept of citizenship

The findings of Westheimer and Kahne (2004) illustrate the key issue of establishing a universal concept of citizenship within Scottish education as this is the basis for an effective education for citizenship. This issue was highlighted by three teachers in the present study interviews who stated that they would like their local authorities to provide a definition of citizenship as this would enable them to understand the activities they should be undertaking and content that should be taught in the classroom. Having such knowledge would make them more confident at implementing education for citizenship. This perspective is reinforced by Annette (2009) who argues that a differentiated but universal concept of citizenship, which promotes citizenship values and participation while sustaining individual freedom

and allows for cultural pluralism, will allow the understanding of citizenship that is most relevant to an education for citizenship and democracy.

However, as the literature review of this thesis identified, the definitions put forward by key literature and documents about Scottish education lack consistency and so do the teachers in the study. Even though the definitions of teachers shared some similar principles, they did not all identify the same key elements. As has been discussed, the adoption of different definitions and aims can lead to significant differences in classroom practice and learning outcomes. According to Biesta (2008), the Scottish approach to education for citizenship, particularly the 2002 Education for Citizenship Paper, promotes all three visions of Westheimer and Kahne (2004) and that the concept of citizenship that particularly underpins the Scottish approach is the personally responsible citizen with a significant role on participation. In other words, the concept of citizenship is particularly based on the personally responsible citizenship and participation is the main approach to becoming such citizens.

5.2.2 The significance of shared aims

The findings of Westheimer and Kahne (2004) also illustrate the key issue of establishing clear and focused aims of education for citizenship which can be shared by all schools. In this present study, although most teachers gave high ratings to all the aims of education for citizenship, the aims that were related to social participation and responsibility were given particularly high value and importance. A considerable percentage of teachers gave great importance to the aims related to the social aspects of citizenship as 100% of teachers stated that 'social participation' was absolutely essential or very important and for 'social and moral responsibility', this percentage was 98.6%. A lower percentage of teachers rated 'political literacy' and 'political participation' as important. For example, 71.8% of teachers in the study stated that 'political literacy' was either absolutely essential or very important and for 'political participation' this percentage was 65.9%. Furthermore, in their definition of citizenship, 32.4% of teachers solely focused on civic involvement and responsibility. For them, it was about active participation and contribution to one's

community and society and did not mention any of the other aspects that comprise citizenship.

This emphasis on social activity is also evident in key documents in Scottish education as highlighted by Biesta (2008) who points out that the Curriculum for Excellence document does not overtly place citizenship qualities on political and democratic aspects but focuses mainly on social activities. The HMIE Education for Citizenship (2006a) document also follows this lead as the articulation of citizenship is mainly towards society and the importance of pupil involvement in decision making at school level is stressed. This shows that the HMIE regard the school as the key environment and experience for developing citizenship and the most effective methodology is active involvement and participation. Little connection is made between citizenship and the political dimension. The HMIE document, therefore, places significance on the social aspects of citizenship. However, Biesta (2008) shows concern about too much emphasis on the social dimension. He argues that an entire focus on the social dimensions of citizenship and active involvement can potentially lead to the neglect of the political dimensions of citizenship. This can make citizenship appear irrelevant to politics and consequently children are left unequipped to politically participate in society (Biesta, 2008). This risk is also reflected in the present study in terms of the concept of citizenship and the aims of education for citizenship as viewed by the primary teachers in the research. The various interpretations of citizenship and the varying degrees of importance given to each aim of education for citizenship is significant in terms of the development of citizenship schools in Scotland and the type of citizens that will be created from such schools. This is because:

> "varied priorities – personal responsibility, participatory citizenship and justice-oriented citizenship – embody significantly different beliefs regarding the capacities and commitments that citizens need for democracy to flourish; and they carry significantly different implications for pedagogy, curriculum, evaluation and educational policy" (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 263).

The argument presented by Biesta (2008) about the focus on social activities is a

significant concern that should be given due consideration as it implies the importance for education for citizenship in Scotland being able to provide a balanced approach in which the different levels and areas that make up a society are explored. This can be exemplified by the CCC (1986, p. 49) who state that:

"social understanding has many facets: economic, geographical, political, historical, sociological and psychological."

This demonstrates the conviction of the CCC (1986) that the development of the ability to live together as a community involves the understanding of the different levels of society and that this understanding is necessary to participate effectively in society. This statement also incorporates an element of global citizenship in that the economic, geographical, political, historical, sociological and psychological aspects of local and national communities children live in will have been influenced and shaped by events around the world. Furthermore, it encourages the idea of viewing, placing and interpreting individuals within these important contexts of society and recognises that humanity is influenced by many factors. This makes the understanding of the economic, geographical, political, historical, sociological and psychological aspects of citizenship in society a significant component of education for citizenship. In light of this, to enable teachers to achieve this balance in the classroom, it will be important for a school to establish a shared set of aims to ensure that all children receive a balanced approach to education for citizenship and to avoid the risk of placing too much emphasis on social activity.

5.3 Priority of education for citizenship in the primary curriculum

Most teachers in the present research study (93.5%) agreed that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum. This included 16 out of the 17 teachers that were interviewed. This high percentage of teachers acknowledging the importance that education for citizenship has on the curriculum is the initial indication of their awareness of the positive impact it can have on children as citizens. Further indications were provided from the interviews. The responses of the 16 teachers interviewed that believed education for citizenship was a priority in

the curriculum, all related to developing children into effective and responsible citizens and equipping them with relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and sense of responsibilities. These responses also reflect the teachers' awareness and understanding of the importance of education for citizenship and the relevance of it in the primary curriculum.

The rationale that teachers provided for education for citizenship in the curriculum can be analysed in terms of the approaches identified by Wilkins (2000). As he suggests, the role of education for citizenship in schools can be analysed using three broad approaches – conforming, reforming and transforming. The teachers in the present study justified the importance placed on education for citizenship by these three approaches. According to their responses, the role of education for citizenship is a 'conforming' one where moral values and respect for society's institutions are taught in order to preserve social order. The role is also a 'reforming' one in which education aims to reform society through the development of knowledge, understanding and tolerance but also acknowledging conflict in society. Finally, the teachers also applied the 'transforming' approach in which citizenship education equips individuals with the skills to improve their material circumstances.

The responses of teachers also placed much emphasis on the awareness and development of social responsibility as a key rationale for citizenship education. This echoes the aims of education for citizenship outlined by LTS (2002) who advocate that promoting active and responsible citizenship is part of creating a society of democratic participation and that for the benefit of both individuals and society, citizenship rights and responsibilities should be understood. Although social responsibility has been identified as a key area of education for citizenship by key documents and publications in the literature review, the emphasis placed on this by the teachers in the present study reflect the same issues identified by Biesta (2008) who raised concern over the immense focus on the social dimension in the Curriculum for Excellence and the HMIE (2006a) document and the potential effect this can have in terms of neglecting the political dimensions of citizenship. Furthermore, studies into teacher attitudes and experiences in relation to citizenship

education demonstrate that they tend to highlight the moral and social behaviours as opposed to the political and democratic behaviours in education for citizenship programmes (Devine, 2002). This neglect of the political dimension is also evident in teachers' responses in the present study to the priority of citizenship in the curriculum as nobody mentioned this aspect in their rationale for education for citizenship. The respondents' particular focus was on the social dimensions of citizenship rather than the political. As discussed in the previous section, this is an important issue as it is important for children to receive a balanced approach to education for citizenship so that they develop the ability to participate effectively in society at personal, political, social, economical and cultural levels. This cannot be achieved if education solely focuses on a particular dimension.

The rationale provided by the teachers also reflected their awareness and understanding of the importance of society requiring effective and active citizens but did not acknowledge the nature of democracy. Huddleston and Kerr (2006) state that the key rationale for citizenship education is based on the nature of democracy and that effective democratic societies rely on active, informed and responsible citizens. Teachers in the present study did acknowledge that children were future citizens who would be leading society in various forms which made it essential to develop citizenship related knowledge, understanding and skills, but they did not mention any aspect of democracy in the explicit form. This could be an indication that although teachers implicitly know that they are living in a democratic nation, they perhaps do not realise that the nature of education for citizenship in Scotland is designed for democracies, rather than a country or society that practises other systems. The realisation that education for citizenship, as outlined by the LTS (2002) and other relevant documents, is for application in democracies raises significant implications for classroom and school practice. In effect, for schools to promote true citizens that are well equipped to participate in democratic societies, they will need to become democratic schools themselves. This viewpoint can be supported by Osler (1994, p. 149) who states that "democracy is best learned in a democratic setting". This statement suggests the importance for examining the impact of a participatory, democratic culture and practice in the classroom on pupils' attitudes and dispositions

and the impact of giving pupils a voice on the methodology and content of the curriculum. This idea of learning democracy in democratic settings is further reinforced by Alexander (2006) who argues that schools can play a significant role in the process of changing society through democratic citizenship. By regarding children as citizens and developing a democratic ethos, schools can provide future citizens with a stronger and more effective influence in society than ever before. Moreover, at its best, citizenship education is a process of transforming into a 'democratic learning community' (Alexander, 2006, p. 14). However, the process of such a transformation and the establishment of a democratic setting in the classroom will surely require teachers who believe in, understand and practise true democracy themselves.

Devine (2002) also promotes the idea of regarding children as citizens and establishing a democratic ethos as she argues that although curricular programmes that include citizenship education are necessary, it is essential that education for citizenship is not solely contained in curricular content but is structured on the recognition that children are actual citizens, not potential citizens. In order for education for citizenship to be successful, it needs to explore issues of identity and must take account of the nature of power and control between teachers and pupils (Devine, 2002). Schools continue to be structured and organised in hierarchies, with empowerment, democracy and children's experiences usually thought of as threatening teachers' authority and control (Spencer, 2000).

5.3.1 Education for citizenship and its commitment to social change and redistributions of social power

Following the discussion above about teachers' awareness of the need for effective and active citizens in society and the role of schools in changing society through education, it is important to explore the extent to which education for citizenship is intrinsically committed to social change and the redistributions of social power. Carleheden (2006) provides an insightful discussion and many examples of the ways in which education for citizenship can facilitate such a change.

According to Carleheden (2006), the main purpose of education has never solely consisted of the teaching of worldly facts but has always been to deliver and transfer societal norms and values to forthcoming generations. However, this aim is not achieved if learners simply learn about the established norms and values. Carleheden (2006) further argues that education must persuade learners to believe in and abide by them and that this makes teaching a political socialisation of society.

> "From a functionalistic perspective one could say that the school is one of the most important instruments that a modern society has to reproduce itself normatively" (Carleheden, 2006, p. 521).

This demonstrates the significance of schools as core educational establishments that form, shape and change society. Thus, educational knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes developed in children at school will transfer to the society that exists outside the school and consequently determine its structure at political, social, economic, personal and geographical level. Society is organised according to the norms and values that underpin it. However, since such norms and values can consistently and inconsistently change according to evolving belief systems and cultures, so does the structural make up of society at all levels. Carleheden (2006, p. 521) reinforces this idea by stating:

> "As society changes the content of political socialisation also changes."

In terms of education for citizenship, this statement implicates the significant influence schooling can have in shaping future societies. By developing children's knowledge and abilities in education for citizenship, schools will contribute to influencing the construction of a positive society in which all citizens are able to participate at all levels.

Furthermore, Carleheden (2006) expresses that democratic values are not developed naturally within children nor can it be taught solely by parents. He refers to 'democratic socialisation' (p. 537) as being a matter and responsibility of the public and should be regarded as a necessary condition for the durability of modern

societies as well as a condition for freedom and equality. For this reason, schools should make education for citizenship a fundamental duty.

As well as learning about tolerance and respect for others, learning to become a democratic citizen is also about "how to co-operate, to co-ordinate one's action with the other, to solve conflicts without violence or any form of external force" (Carleheden, 2006, p. 537). This implies that if children leave school with such abilities and skills, then the various levels of society will constitute citizens with well developed social skills that will ideally eradicate all forms discrimination and violent means of attaining political agendas. Ideally, schooling will have taught children to accept that their own views may not reach the constitution, even after long deliberations with opposing views, but still continue to strive for their cause and beliefs. Carleheden (2006) asserts his belief that a citizen is able to exercise both acceptance and criticism of societal values and norms as he states that "obedience to laws on a social level is a virtue of democracy as much as criticism of laws on a cultural level. A democratic citizen recognises the difference" (Carleheden, 2006, p. 537). This implies the type of education for citizenship necessary in that it should develop children's abilities to judge the differences between obedience and criticism of law. For society's citizens to be able to posses such skills, schools need to ensure that their curriculum enables this development to take place.

5.4 The relevance of citizenship in curricular areas

The responses to the question about whether teachers thought education for citizenship was relevant to all subject areas, can be divided into two main groups. The first group (category 1) consists of half of the teachers interviewed that expressed their awareness and understanding of education for citizenship being relevant to all subject areas and the application they all have for future citizens. These teachers identified the importance of children experiencing the whole curriculum and the need to teach all subjects in order for effective education for citizenship and to develop a citizen that possesses all the key knowledge and skills required for complete participation in society at political, economic, social and personal levels. These teachers seemed to share the stance adopted by LTS (2002)

who argue that children's study of all the curricular topics and subjects enables them to develop and apply the knowledge, skills and dispositions necessary for being active and responsible citizens. For example, as LTS (2002) suggest, aspects of sociology, politics and economics can be studied through the social subjects part of environmental studies. The attainment outcome 'people in society' is directly linked to several knowledge and understanding learning outcomes of education for citizenship. In RME, the attainment outcomes 'other world religions' and 'personal search' develop awareness of other cultures and allow the exploration of relationships and moral values. The topics in PSD and health develop knowledge, understanding and awareness of areas related to citizenship such as personal and community safety, making informed decisions, personal relationships, conflict resolution, independence and interdependence. Expressive arts enables children to express feelings, ideas, thoughts and solutions, develops group co-operation and communication to varied audiences. In language, listening, talking, reading and writing can be taught within citizenship contexts which will contribute to the development of effective citizenship e.g. learning to discuss a school issue (LTS, 2002). However, the LTS (2002) document does not provide an example for maths which perhaps indicates that it does not acknowledge the direct relevance of it to citizenship. According to the teachers in category 1, maths was also relevant to citizenship in that children need numeracy skills in order to participate in society. Maths is a key citizenship subject explicitly identified by the new Curriculum for Excellence as successful learners are able to "use literacy, communication and numeracy skills" (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 12). As discussed in the literature review, all four aspirations develop the key requirements for effective citizens. The teachers in category 1 demonstrate this understanding of how different curricular subjects are applicable to being a citizen, how citizenship can be relevant to all subject areas and how different topics or aspects can be contextualized within citizenship.

The second group of teachers (category 2) interviewed for the present study acknowledged that certain or most subjects in the curriculum were relevant to citizenship such as environmental studies, personal and social development, religious

and moral education, science and health. Four teachers found maths to be completely irrelevant to citizenship. These teachers did not share the same awareness and understanding as those in category 1. They did not demonstrate their understanding of how all subject knowledge and skills would be relevant to the development of future citizens. This perception is similar to the one articulated by Gilchrist (1999) who examined 5-14 guidelines to identify curricular areas that developed the knowledge, skills and values particularly relevant to citizenship. The four areas he identified were people in society (environmental studies); personal and social development; religious and moral education; and education for work. The teachers in category 2 need to be made aware of the relevance of all subject areas to education for citizenship and how they are required by all citizens. It could be useful for them to have a more thorough examination of the new Curriculum for Excellence document since it promotes the notion of all subject areas as being important for developing the four capacities. The document demonstrates this through the presentation of the purposes of the curriculum. For example, successful learners are able to "use literacy, communication and numeracy skills' use technology for learning; link and apply different kinds of learning in new situations" (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 12). Responsible citizens are able to "develop knowledge and understanding of the world and Scotland's place in it; understand different beliefs and cultures; evaluate environmental, scientific and technological issues" (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 12). The achievement of such capacities requires knowledge, understanding and skills of all the key areas of the primary curriculum, including maths. If teachers can acknowledge the strong links between education for citizenship and the Curriculum for Excellence, it may help them to understand the relevance of all subjects to being an effective citizen. The present study adopts the view that an educated citizen that possesses knowledge, understanding and skills in all areas of the curriculum is well-prepared to participate in society at all levels.

5.5 The permeation of citizenship in the whole curriculum and time allocation

Twelve out of the seventeen teachers interviewed articulated that education for citizenship should be permeated throughout the whole curriculum as by experiencing the whole curriculum, children will develop knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes related to citizenship. Furthermore, by embedding citizenship education in the whole curriculum, children's daily interactions, activities and behaviour become significant in the development of citizenship. These views reflects the teachers' awareness and understanding of citizenship education being more complex than simply involving a series of lessons and that it requires much more meaningful systems if it is to create effective citizens. Citizenship here is considered more as a concept and process rather than as a subject or topic. This perception will be more conducive to an effective education for citizenship as indicated by Leighton (2004, p. 169) who states that, "citizenship education appears to be understood by many outside classrooms and staffrooms as a fact or a skill, rather than as a concept, a process or an ideological artefact." According to Leighton (2004), this perception of citizenship education he puts forward is evident in the QCA guidelines and the comments of teachers collected in his own research study of four secondary schools in England which examined how schools approached the introduction of citizenship education. However, thirteen out of the seventeen teachers interviewed for the present study did not share the views expressed by Leighton (2004). Instead, their perceptions reflect the importance of a 'citizenship school' as coined by Alexander (2001) in which the whole curriculum enhances young people's understanding of life, society and themselves – past, present and future.

Four out of the seventeen teachers interviewed articulated that education for citizenship should both be permeated throughout the curriculum and involve the direct teaching of lessons within a time allocation in the school timetable. These views show that these teachers view the specific teaching of content as essential but must be incorporated with whole school and practical experiences. They share the approach to education for citizenship promoted by LTS (2002) which is that it

involves a variety of activities experienced in daily school life, curricular subjects, cross-curricular experiences and community involvement.

However, the fact that three of these teachers mentioned the importance of having a time allocation to help them to identify the outcomes and content to ensure that they were teaching the relevant citizenship content shows that they are concerned with meeting specific targets in the correct approach. It indicates that they desire an evaluation and guidance tool that they can utilise to ensure they are achieving the relevant outcomes and check that they are meeting the required criterion. It also points out that the possibility that these teachers are not so confident about taking on a new initiative in their own creative ways and would prefer to be guided.

5.6 Teachers' confidence in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship

Eighty nine percent of the teachers in the present study felt confident about contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship. The interview responses of the teachers who felt strongly confident demonstrated that their considerable teaching experience and knowledge and involvement in a variety of school related activities contributed to the development of their confidence.

The teachers who felt confident about contributing to whole school approaches provided various reasons related to the comfort of the whole school ethos and whole school activities; personal and teaching experience; in-service training conducted by the school and their own personal beliefs about citizenship. Not only do these responses highlight the significance of these aspects that develop teachers' confidence but they indicate the variety of experiences identified by teachers themselves as important factors that enable their development. There is also evidence of the reliance of teachers upon the whole school ethos to provide professional and curricular support. The fact that five of the teachers interviewed felt that the whole school ethos and approach provided opportunities for them to participate in citizenship related activities such as assemblies, anti-bullying events and charities

displays the reliance that teachers like to have on the whole school as a support system for professional development. This notion is also expressed by a teacher who was not certain about her confidence because her school did not discuss citizenship at all. This, therefore, indicates that whole school systems can operate as important support mechanisms for teachers' professional development and confidence. Another five of the teachers interviewed attributed their confidence to personal and teaching experience as well as the attendance and participation in school CPD and in-service courses on the Curriculum for Excellence and education for citizenship. This indicates the reliance that teachers have on professional education and training to enable them to develop confidence and competence. This notion is also demonstrated by another teacher who was not certain about her confidence because she had not been trained in education for citizenship and, therefore, lacked knowledge about it.

5.7 Teachers' confidence in contributing to a classroom approach to education for citizenship

Most teachers (95.6%) felt either strongly confident or confident about promoting education for citizenship in the classroom. The data also showed that teachers were more confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom than at whole school level.

Varied reasons were identified for confidence in the classroom which included CPD training courses on citizenship; enthusiasm; personal emphasis on citizenship; the support received from the whole school ethos; teaching knowledge, understanding and experience; employment of teaching approaches in the classroom; pupil-teacher relationships; experience of integrating citizenship into curricular areas. Most of these responses focus on teachers' own competence and engagement with classroom activities and pupils. In other words, their confidence is developed from their own direct interactions with children and involvement with daily classroom activities and systems. However, receiving support from the whole school ethos is also welcomed as having a support mechanism that reinforces the confidence in classroom practice. These findings raise a significant issue related to the sources of teachers' confidence.

It shows that developing teacher confidence in education for citizenship cannot rely on one source or activity. For example, one cannot say that simply providing teachers with more training through CPD will develop confidence in the classroom. As has been implied by the teachers in the study, this development requires many strategies. From the analysis of the interview responses, it can be argued that development of confidence requires a balance of opportunities to establish pupil-teacher relationships, employ appropriate activities and teaching approaches and knowledge of how to integrate citizenship into curricular areas. Furthermore, the identification of whole school support playing a key role in teachers' confidence in the classroom suggest the significance of co-operation and collaboration between all members of staff and the management and the importance of having effective structures in place that allow teachers to practise citizenship in the classroom such as curricular programmes and guidelines from management. It also demonstrates the importance of linking whole school approaches to classroom approaches which is a concept that has been emphasised by Shallcross *et al* (2007) who present a holistic view of the ideal approach to developing environmental education and education for sustainable development at whole school level. This concept is presented as a five-strand model below:
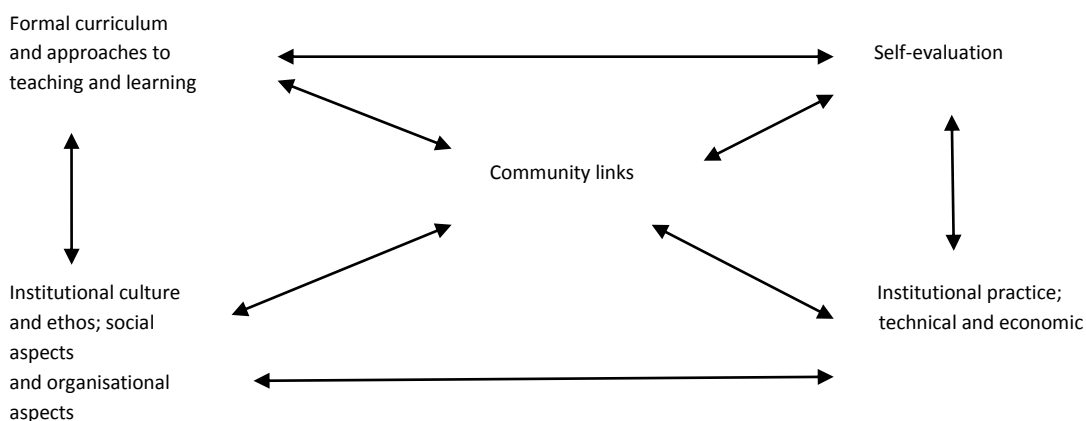

Figure 1: The five strands of a whole school approach to EE/ESD
(Shallcross, 2003, as cited in Shallcross *et al*, 2007, p. 74)

Although this model is not directly related to citizenship, it can be a useful tool for analysing the ways that the different structures and levels of schooling and community are interlinked which is an integral part of education for citizenship. As

the model displays, the five strands necessary for a whole school approach involve the formal and informal curriculum as well as organisational dynamics and professional evaluation. It is ultimately a communication and relationship between all five strands. As well as environmental education and education for sustainable development, this model is a valuable structure for the implementation of education for citizenship. As the present study literature review advocates, education for citizenship is at its best when it operates at whole school, classroom and community level and there is a relationship between the three. The above model could be applied to this area of the curriculum as an integral structure and basis for theory and practice.

The analysis of teachers' responses in the present study suggests that they would perhaps find this model useful for understanding and basing their practice in education for citizenship. This is because the model incorporates some of the systems they identified as desirable aspects required for being confident to implement education for citizenship in the classroom. Even more so, this model can be used to represent the responses provided by teachers in the study about the sources they identified as contributing to their confidence such as CPD training courses on citizenship; enthusiasm; personal emphasis on citizenship; the support received from the whole school ethos; teaching knowledge, understanding and experience; employment of teaching approaches in the classroom; pupil-teacher relationships; experience of integrating citizenship into curricular areas. Not only do these examples provided by the teachers themselves show their awareness and understanding of the types of activities and experiences necessary to enhance their own professional development but they also highlight the notion that teacher enhancement is more complex than simply providing them with training courses as is thought generally amongst the teaching profession. All schools and councils provide their teaching staff with training courses that can be attended after school hours and on inservice days. However, the responses of the participants in this study suggest that for teachers, professional development requires a lot more strategies that are varied than simply receiving advice on how to do things. It is also about the implicit messages they receive from the whole school ethos, the professional opportunities provided and the way citizenship is promoted within the school at all structural

levels. In other words, teachers learn in many different ways, implicitly and explicitly and rely on different methods to enhance their teaching practice and confidence. Their professional development and confidence in promoting education for citizenship is based on varied experiences, support and opportunities provided to them.

The Curriculum for Excellence is one key area through which education for citizenship can be promoted at all levels in a school. For one teacher in the present study, the Curriculum for Excellence has demonstrated that citizenship activities were always being practised but were now being acknowledged and highlighted. The difference now is that citizenship has to be done in a more professional method and teachers have to ensure that it is incorporated and implemented in each curricular area. Although only one teacher mentioned this aspect of the Curriculum for Excellence, it is a significant interpretation in terms of the development of citizenship in Scottish schools. This comment demonstrates the significance that the new curriculum has for the implementation of education for citizenship and the strong connection between the two in that the new curriculum enables the development of successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors to society which are key qualities for effective citizens. This comment also shows that although education for citizenship has always been practised in Scottish schools in varying forms and to varying degrees, the official recognition of it will further enable its progression by opening up a discourse of the possible methodology and approaches that could be employed to enhance the development of this area. This suggests that the entire implementation of the new curriculum in a school can contribute to teachers' professional development as it will provide a structure on which to develop citizens effectively. This in turn can contribute to teachers' confidence in implementing citizenship in the classroom, especially if they rely on the whole school support system to enhance this. In other words, a truly citizenship school can be a significant mechanism for providing support, confidence and ideas for implementing citizenship in the classroom. The development of confidence is essential for teachers if they are to develop citizenship effectively, as reflected in the following comment by one teacher:

"If I'm not confident then it's difficult to do education for citizenship effectively."

5.8. What aspects and activities do teachers regard as whole school and classroom approaches to education for citizenship?

5.8.1 Aspects and activities of whole school approaches

Fifteen of the teachers interviewed all identified similar whole school activities and programmes that were relevant to the development of citizenship. Ten of these teachers based their responses on observed practice and experience, thus again indicating their reliance on the whole school environment and practice to interpret and understand whole school systems rather than displaying any knowledge and understanding of the processes that constitute education for citizenship. The examples they gave consisted of specific activities that took place in their own school. This shows an underlying uncertainty about what education for citizenship may entail at whole school level and so the participants provided examples to answer the interview question rather than reflect on the philosophical aspects of whole school practice. Their exemplifications also show that they perhaps have seldom paid much attention or given any thoughts to this area of the curriculum which creates their uncertainty.

The reliance on observed school practices as a basis for displaying knowledge was further demonstrated by one teacher who claimed that her school was not doing any citizenship at all. She acknowledged that there was a need for its awareness amongst her school staff and an evaluation of the school policies. She did not express any ideas about what aspects and activities she considered as whole school approaches. This response implies that the participant did not seem to have awareness and understanding about the ways in which education for citizenship has always been and still is evident in the Scottish curriculum (HMSO, 1965; CCC, 1986; SOED, 1993) and, therefore, was not able to identify aspects and activities that related to education for citizenship at whole school level. It was highly likely that her school did practise

education for citizenship in many ways but was not made explicit. Consequently, the participant could not identify these practises. This issue creates the necessity to raise the awareness through continuous professional development of the ways in which existing school practice can be categorised into education for citizenship.

On the other hand, five teachers based their responses on their own knowledge and understanding and did not rely on examples of their own school. For them, whole school approaches involved the policies in place, the school approach to behaviour and discipline, reward schemes and promotion of positive behaviour, promoting citizenship at assemblies and Circle Time; charity events; pupil councils; how schools emphasise children's place in society, social responsibility; emotional literacy; citizenship related topics; fair trade projects; whole school ethos and the quality of pupil-teacher interactions. These examples were more centred on citizenship related knowledge, understanding, skills, values and dispositions which show that these five participants seemed to have more awareness and understanding of education for citizenship at whole school level than those referred to in the previous section.

Either way, the 15 teachers were able to identify appropriate and relevant activities that promoted education for citizenship as discussed by key documents in the literature review. The most significant aspect about the activities identified is that they all consisted of pupil participation, pupil voice and decision making, in varying degrees. Activities like pupil councils, eco-committees and enterprise projects are clearly dominant in pupil participation, pupil voice and decision making whilst others such as Circle Time, assemblies and positive behaviour systems are more focused on developing key skills and values related to citizenship whilst also involving pupils. The nature of the activities identified indicate that the teachers in the study do have an understanding of the type of activities or systems that are most relevant to developing citizenship at whole school level. In particular, it reflects their views of participation and pupil voice as a key aspect of citizenship. Furthermore, the wide variety of activities identified demonstrates the flexibility of approaches accepted as active citizenship by the interviewees in the present study.

This developing approach to education for citizenship is also acknowledged by HMIE (2006a) who state that schools are enabling pupils to participate more in decision-making, especially through pupil councils. Consequently, pupils are further developing an understanding of the basis of democracy and their role as active citizens.

A study conducted by Ross *et al* (2007) also demonstrates this emphasis that teachers place on participation. Through the examination of 14 case study reports of active citizenship, the authors found that the reports described various activities that allowed young people to participate, with the most common activity mentioned in all case studies being the school council. Many primary schools reported on a variety of activities that involved children in order to demonstrate their participatory environment. Such activities included paired reading schemes, buddy schemes, peer counselling, home-school networks, Circle Time, classroom responsibilities, independent and after-school study and monthly newsletters. Ross *et al* (2007) describe the participation in the case study reports as active citizenship and that the establishment of school councils along with a wide variety of activities demonstrates the flexibility of approaches accepted as active citizenship in Scottish schools.

5.8.2 Aspects and activities of classroom approaches

The variety of responses regarding the type of activities and systems that could be considered as related to citizenship demonstrated that the teachers in the study have appropriate knowledge, understanding and awareness about aspects that promote education for citizenship. The identification of activities and systems that promote citizenship in the classroom means that they are able to contribute to education for citizenship in the ways suggested by LTS (2002) which are teaching content and methodology; developing positive relationships with children, listening to and considering their views. However, LTS (2002) also state that teachers can promote citizenship by making connections between principles and social and community experience – an aspect that was not identified by any teacher. It is not appropriate to make a judgement about this finding since the interview question focused on

classroom activities which perhaps led teachers' assumptions about the specificity of classroom approaches. The responses of teachers also reflect their awareness of citizenship education being more than simply just pupil activities and that it involves the daily interactions and systems in the classroom.

However, as the literature review of the present study shows, citizenship in the classroom is much more complex and intricate than the teachers in the study express. Due to the nature of data collection, it is not possible to provide a critical overview of the methodologies and systems that teachers use in the classroom as this would require detailed observation. It is, therefore, not appropriate to comment on the ways that teachers use these systems. For example, although teachers said that they promoted citizenship through classroom ethos, rules, discipline and pupil-teacher interactions, it is not possible to judge the complete effectiveness of this in their classrooms and the impact this has on pupils as this would require another study. Another example is that although teachers claim to promote citizenship through Circle Time, this would have to be carefully observed to evaluate the ways in which a teacher does this. For the purpose of exploring the general attitudes, perceptions and understanding of education for citizenship, it is more appropriate to comment on the type of activities and systems identified by teachers. In this case, the nature of activities and systems identified show that although the teachers in the study were able to identify appropriate citizenship related activities, the literature review demonstrates that citizenship approaches involve more depth, creativity, challenge and development of critical thinking. This is because the qualities required in a well developed citizen are very challenging and specific. The complexity of the qualities required of an effective citizen is expressed by many authors in the citizenship field. For example, Potter (2003) reports on the seven dimensions of learning power that are required for effective learning and an effective citizen which are "changing and learning; making meaning; critical curiosity; creativity; learning relationships; strategic awareness and resilience" (p. 9). Furthermore, to facilitate the development of education for citizenship, "the curriculum should be inquiry-based, that is, it raises questions for critical investigation, rather than present facts for uncritical consumption" (Smith, 2003, p. 14).

As identified in the literature review, Alexander (2001, p. 63) puts forward 12 key aspects that constitute an empowering classroom and curriculum:

1. Developing a sense of self as a person, learner and agent in the world;
2. Partnership with parents;
3. Sharing responsibility for learning;
4. Clarifying values and virtues;
5. Learning to learn;
6. Emotional literacy and understanding feelings;
7. Thinking skills, applied to real as well as hypothetical and historical problems;
8. Inquiry and research skills, testing ideas against evidence;
9. Communication skills, including listening, drawing, writing and discussing;
10. Skills of participation and action, including team-work, negotiating, decision-making and planning;
11. Acquiring socially powerful knowledge;
12. Self-assessment and evaluation of the work of others.

These aspects identified by Alexander (2001) demonstrate the variety, challenge and complexity of citizenship related or democratic teaching approaches required in the classroom which was not evident in the responses of the teachers in the present study.

Only one interviewee in the present study recognised that education for citizenship was incorporated into her school's existing practice but was not categorised accordingly and the teachers in her school did not realise they were implementing it. This suggests the possibility that teachers are not aware of the idea that education for citizenship encompasses existing effective educational practice and that it is not an additional area of the curriculum but a re-categorisation of the whole schooling experience for both teachers and pupils. It involves the re-categorisation of the approaches for teaching and learning, developing positive classroom and whole school ethos and social relationships that instil citizenship related qualities in children. This raises the need for a discussion about what makes education for

citizenship distinct from 'good' education. It can be argued that if education for citizenship incorporates existing effective educational practice, then what is the point in creating this new curricular area and initiating institutional changes. The present study makes the assertion that there is an important distinction between education for citizenship and 'good' education and will present this discussion by exploring the question 'what makes a citizenship classroom?'

5.8.3 The key features of a citizenship classroom

This section will draw upon Alexander's (2001) elements of an empowering and citizenship classroom and curriculum as the approaches put forward are practical and relevant to citizenship in the classroom. Many of the approaches will be familiar to teachers as they themselves employ them in their own classrooms but may not have specifically identified their links to citizenship. The elements put forward by Alexander (2001) demonstrate and exemplify the ways in which existing practice can be categorised as education for citizenship. The literature review includes all of these elements as integrative of education for citizenship at classroom and whole school level. The elements comprise a broad range of experiences that reflect the qualities that develop an effective citizen of a democracy. On the contrary, in light of the literature review and the importance place on pupil voice in democratic schooling, it is surprising that Alexander (2001) does not even mention pupil councils in his list of approaches. This is particularly significant as this is the key aspect that is pertaining to education for citizenship and distinguishes it from the mainstream curriculum.

In an ideal democratic classroom, pupils are given opportunities to exercise their voice to evaluate existing practice in the classroom and express ways that teaching and learning provided to them could be improved. As the literature review illustrated, certain writers (Maitles and Deuchar, 2006; Barber, 2009) express concern about the way pupil councils are not used as they should be in that pupils are simply consulted and informed but little change occurs as a result of children's suggestions which makes the use of pupil councils merely as an activity to record on to official paper and tick the relevant boxes. This results in the hierarchy remaining unchallenged.

However, in an ideal democratic classroom, such an issue would be minimised as every child's voice would count and change would be implemented within reason.

Another aspect that distinguishes education for citizenship from mainstream education is the notion of classrooms being a mini-society that reflect the society that exists outside the school. A classroom should be a place that operates as a mini-society in which children learn and practice core skills and values required for being effective citizens. Furthermore, the classroom should be a representation of an ideal democratic society. For example, by understanding and conforming to rules of the classroom and the school, children learn that in a society, laws must be abided by and that they are there for a reason. A classroom should be a reflection of the democratic society that exists in Britain and, in this respect, children should be regarded as actual citizens of society rather than citizens in the making. True education for citizenship regards the child as an actual citizen which creates significant implications for the way a learner should be regarded and treated in the classroom. It should give a new and enhanced dimension to pupil-teacher and pupil-pupil relationships. As citizens of the classroom, children should be involved in decision making through democratic processes and the resolution of conflicts. This could help children to learn and apply citizenship related skills in the society outside. Furthermore, the teacher is a significant role model of authority and leadership to the society created in the classroom. The teacher's relationship with the pupils, behaviour, provision of learning experiences and the environment created in the classroom will be a significant learning model of citizenship for the children. As Osler (1994, p. 149) states, "democracy is best learned in a democratic setting." For this reason, it is essential that the classroom reflects a truly democratic society through the establishment of democratic systems within the classroom itself.

In a citizenship classroom, children would also learn that change cannot be achieved instantly but realistically through discussion, negotiation, compromise, conflict and collaborative decision making as pupils will express varying opinions about particular issues as often happens in a democratic society. Conflict is a typical state that exists in the real world which is ideally resolved through various safe means

available to citizens. In a true democratic society, such means of resolutions can consist of peaceful negotiations, demonstrations, debates, meetings, writing of letters and public protests. The ability to engage in such strategies is a key quality for democratic citizens as it is never going to be possible to have a unanimous agreement on a single issue. The existence of such citizens will also be essential in a classroom setting where it is unrealistic to expect every child to agree with the same aspect or issue which leads to the important point that children will need to learn how to live in a democratic classroom through citizenship related skills such as negotiation and compromise.

In situations where children disagree with the teacher, certain strategies could be employed to express this disagreement but this would require the understanding and support from the teacher. For example, the teacher could establish a classroom council which would operate in the same way as a school council but would pertain to the interests of the classroom. Children would inform the class representative about their concerns and disagreements verbally or in writing which would then be presented at an allocated debate time and open for classroom discussion. The outcome of the debate would be an agreed resolution to the concern. If change cannot be made to the disagreement, then the children would have to understand that sometimes this can happen as the interests of all people need to be taken into account and that the teacher needs to be considerate to everyone's views. However, if the disagreement is unanimous, then it is only fair that the teacher responds to this and should not feel that his / her status is being weakened but in fact strengthened as a democratic leader of the classroom.

The discussion about the key aspects that distinguishes education for citizenship from mainstream education raises the question about why such a distinction should exist in the first place. Surely, a well structured, coherent and progressive curriculum in a democratic society should dutifully incorporate the development of education for citizenship and, therefore, making this area an integrative element of the Scottish curriculum. As the literature review presents, education for citizenship has always been present in varying degrees in the Scottish curriculum but not so explicitly

stated. The review illustrates a marked progression in what education for citizenship should now entail by exploring key citizenship related approaches such as pupil voice and democratic classroom cultures.

The emergence of the new Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004) marks a change from implicitly stating citizenship related practices as reflected in previous curricular documents (HMSO, 1965; CCC, 1986; SOED, 1993b) to making direct links to the development of citizenship related qualities that are presented in the form of the four capacities. The inclusion of education for citizenship in the Curriculum for Excellence indicates a shift of thinking about this area in that the development of citizenship is now a key feature of Scottish educational practice and the whole curriculum. The fact that this new area has not been entitled as 'citizenship education', which denotes the teaching of specific lessons about citizenship, illustrates the perspective of the Scottish Executive (2004) that the teaching of citizenship involves much more than the delivery of lessons. Education for citizenship, on the other hand, denotes the significance of classroom and whole school ethos, practices and relationships for developing effective citizens and it is this notion that seems to be adopted by the Scottish Executive (2004).
It is an aspiration of the present study that education for citizenship will eventually be embedded in the Scottish curriculum so that it will become an integrative element of it, rather than an enhancement. Aspects that have been identified as distinct from 'good' education such as pupil voice and the operation of classrooms as mini-societies should gradually become expected and key features of the Scottish approach to education rather than be additional approaches that could be employed optionally in schools.

5.9 Perceived competence in education for citizenship, sources and strategies for professional development

The majority of the teachers in the study (77%) believed that they were very capable of teaching and promoting education for citizenship. When interviewees were asked

about what made their knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship excellent or competent, they all responded by talking about a combination of six particular areas:

- The attendance at professional courses;
- Personal interest;
- Teaching experiences;
- Support from staff;
- Participation in working parties;
- Engagement in professional dialogue.

For these teachers, these six areas have been significant in shaping their attitudes and perceptions towards education for citizenship. This, therefore, shows that according to these teachers, a variety of strategies are significant in the development of qualities that are required in teachers to enable them to effectively implement education for citizenship.

The importance placed on the six areas identified by the teachers resembles the justifications made for the confidence teachers have for contributing to whole school and classroom approaches. For example, those teachers who felt confident about contributing to whole school approaches did so because of the whole school ethos and activities; personal and teaching experience; in-service training conducted by the school and their own personal beliefs in citizenship. These aspects were also included in the justification teachers made for their confidence in classroom approaches to education for citizenship. These similarities highlight the emphasis and significance teachers place on professional courses, personal interest and teaching experiences and support from whole school staff. The teachers in the study seem to have a strong reliance on these six areas for the development of their teaching qualities and confidence. This suggests that teachers' continuing professional development in the citizenship field should explore and build on these areas. For example, a school development plan that aims to introduce or expand an education for citizenship program could include an increased attendance at CPD or in-service

courses on citizenship; opportunities for widening teaching experiences and extending whole school support and initiatives; and more working parties that encourage professional dialogue and sharing of ideas.

These implications can be reinforced by the five teachers interviewed who rated their competence in education for citizenship as 'satisfactory' and one teacher who rated it 'unsatisfactory.' These teachers all expressed their desire for more training and courses. Furthermore, participants also demonstrated the comfort and support they seek from the whole school system and their colleagues. Professional dialogue and sharing of ideas is one theme that the teachers in the present study have consistently mentioned when they talk about the sources of their confidence and their competence in citizenship teaching. This has important implications for the way that teachers could be educated about education for citizenship and the structure of CPD that could be provided which is explored in depth in the recommendations chapter.

On the other hand, a minority of teachers demonstrated contradictions in their perceptions of their competence and their confidence. In the case of whole school approaches, out of the 16% of teachers who rated their competence as 'satisfactory', 1.4% stated they 'strongly agreed' that they were confident with whole school approaches whilst 14.5% 'agreed'. Likewise, in the case of classroom approaches, out of the 19% who rated their competence as 'satisfactory', 1.4% stated they 'strongly agreed' that they were confident in classroom approaches whilst 17.4% 'agreed'. It seems contradictory for teachers who believe that their competence in education for citizenship is not of a high standard to declare that they are very confident or confident in implementing whole school and classroom approaches.

This leads to an important question about whether these teachers are aware and understand the knowledge, understanding and skills that are essentially required of them to implement education for citizenship effectively. As the literature review has identified, there are specific qualities that teachers should possess in order to create a citizenship classroom. It has already been suggested that the teachers in the present study seem to demonstrate their lack of awareness of the complex nature and the

elements required to create a citizenship classroom. The elements of an empowering classroom and curriculum identified by Alexander (2001) and the seven dimensions of learning power discussed by McGettrick (2003) reflect this complexity. As Smith (2003) argues, embedding citizenship in the curriculum does not simply comprise teaching about citizenship but involves the exploration of key questions relating to concepts of diversity, equality and democratic participation in society as well as the enquiry about citizen rights and responsibilities which is the essence of a citizenship program. As a result, an effective inquiry-based citizenship curriculum requires the following key characteristics within teachers:

- "A basic training in human rights and responsibilities;
- An interest and knowledge of social, cultural, civic, political, legal, economic, environmental, historical and contemporary affairs;
- A disposition towards inter-disciplinary learning;
- A commitment to inquiry-based learning;
- Skilled in facilitating experiential learning;
- Ability to draw on multiple resources;
- Confidence in addressing controversial issues;
- Sensitive to the emotional dimensions of learning;
- Ability to assess student learning outcomes" (Smith, 2003, p. 15).

These views articulate the depth required in a citizenship classroom as does much of the literature in the literature review. In the light of this, it is necessary to reflect on the extent to which teachers share these insights. In the case of the teachers who expressed their low level of competence but high confidence, leads us to question whether they are aware of and appreciate the true complexities of citizenship in the classroom or whether they are confident because they perceive education for citizenship to be simplistic in nature. It could be that both situations co-exist – some teachers may not be aware of the depth required for promoting citizenship in the classroom and, therefore, regard it as a simple task that involves a few steps. The last case presented is more likely to be the case as a situation can only be judged intelligibly with the possession of associated knowledge and understanding. The

literature review identifies some of the complex issues involved in implementing education for citizenship in the classroom. Such awareness was not evident amongst the participants of the present study.

Such concerns about teachers' awareness and understanding of a citizenship classroom can also be just as applicable to the group of teachers that rated their confidence and competence at a high level. It would be significant to explore whether these teachers who rated themselves highly are aware and understand what truly constitutes citizenship in the classroom. As discussed previously, although most teachers were able to identify appropriate and relevant activities and systems that promoted education for citizenship in the classroom, they did not identify those that involved depth, creativity, challenge and critical thinking which have been identified in the literature review as essential in citizenship related approaches. This poses a further question about whether the teachers who rated themselves highly in their confidence and competence would do so had they had the thorough knowledge and understanding of what constitutes an effective citizen, a citizenship classroom and the key skills required in teachers to develop education for citizenship. One teacher's interview response indicates the importance of enabling teachers to evaluate and assess their knowledge and understanding of citizenship and education for citizenship before incorporating it into the classroom:

> "The more you have asked me questions, the more I doubt myself because of the lack of guidance. Your questions make me doubt how much I really know."

5.10 What in-service training and CPD activities do teachers think are valuable and useful for developing professional competence in education for citizenship?

5.10.1 The provision of adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities for education for citizenship

Out of the 133 teachers that answered the question regarding the provision of in-service training and CPD opportunities by their school, 69.2% of teachers agreed that this was provided whilst 30.8% disagreed. The interview gave some insight into the type of training teachers found helpful and what they would like to be offered to help them develop their competence. Out of the 17 teachers interviewed, six had circled 'agree' and eleven had circled 'disagree' to the questionnaire statement *'My school has provided adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities in education for citizenship'*.

5.10.2 Training and experience offered by schools

The six teachers who expressed that their school provided such professional development were asked about the training and activities offered by their school that were particularly beneficial to them and the ways in which these had been helpful. They all referred to in-service days, CPD courses, P.A.T nights and collegiate meetings as well as professional dialogue. This shows the importance that these teachers placed on learning through a variety of methods. Three teachers discussed the fact that whilst they had not attended courses specifically entitled with the words 'citizenship', they had attended those that were related to citizenship. Although this demonstrates that these teachers are aware of curricular areas that can be linked to citizenship education, it also points out that 'citizenship' is perhaps not acknowledged as a key area of the curriculum in these schools. The benefit of professional dialogues was once again brought up as one teacher commented that although courses were useful, discussions with other teachers were more beneficial

because it allowed better ideas about the implementation of education for citizenship to be shared. The effectiveness of professional dialogue was also highlighted by many teachers with respect to the reasons for having confidence and competence in citizenship approaches. The continuous reference to professional dialogue and the sharing of ideas by teachers in the present study indicates that they find discussions with other members of staff very useful and regard it as an important learning medium.

The various responses provided with regards to courses offered by local authorities showed that different councils are approaching education for citizenship in various ways. One particular significant point that was made about the provision offered by councils was regarding the definition and approaches for citizenship. One teacher wanted the authorities to provide a definition of citizenship and guidance on time allocation, whole school and classroom approaches. This demonstrates an underlying assumption that if education authorities provide well established guidelines about all aspects of education for citizenship, teachers will be more confident and knowledgeable about how to develop this area. This develops a concern about the appreciation of autonomy by teachers that Scottish education allows them to posses to some extent. Although the Scottish curriculum documents that have been discussed in the literature review provide clear guidelines as to the content that should be taught and how it should be taught, these are not prescriptive in detail. Teachers are not bound to follow the guidelines word for word and, therefore, some autonomy and personal preferences in teaching style and methods are allowed. For this reason, it is a bit surprising for any teacher to suggest that they would like a prescribed outline of how to approach a curricular area considering that Scottish teachers have always enjoyed a degree of personal judgement, choice and autonomy in the classroom.

5.10.3 Preferred training and CPD activities by teachers

The points made by teachers who agreed that their school did offer citizenship training are further supported by the points made by those who disagreed about the

provision. Eleven of the teachers interviewed who disagreed were asked about the in-service training and CPD activities they would like their schools to offer in education for citizenship in order to develop their competence. These teachers expressed that they wanted more CPD and in-service that involved external speakers from local authorities which supports the discussion in the previous section about the importance of receiving professional development through a variety of methods and the significant contribution that education authorities can potentially make towards teacher development. Further reference to the significance of professional dialogue as a means for discussing and sharing ideas about education for citizenship and how to implement it again demonstrates the emphasis teachers place on this as a method of learning. The issue of the availability of resources was also mentioned by a few teachers which highlights the importance that these teachers place on them to help them implement education for citizenship.

Overall, two key points emerge from the responses of the teachers in the present study interviews, whether or not they felt their school provided adequate training. The first key point is that teachers find the employment of particular and various strategies effective and relevant to learn about citizenship and citizenship education, particularly those that can be classified under the categories of 'training courses' and 'professional dialogue'. The second key point is that teachers regard the local education authorities as having initial responsibility for providing information and training about citizenship and education for citizenship. These key points create significant implications about the type of activities that teachers need to experience in order to develop the characteristics required to enable them to develop a citizenship based classroom.

5.11 Conclusion

The analysis of the data shows the particular conditions identified and highlighted by the teachers in the study that they find necessary to develop confidence and competence in education for citizenship. The next chapter will discuss the conclusions and implications of these views upon the teaching profession and the

ways in which competence in education for citizenship could be developed in teachers.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Significance of the conclusions and implications

This chapter will conclude the main findings of the present study and discuss their implications on education for citizenship in Scotland. This study avoids generalisation from the data collected which is especially important to do with a considerably low participation rate. In comparison to the 652 schools contacted for permission and the number of teachers this potentially consists of, the percentage of participants cannot be representative of the teaching population at large. However, in relation to the participants of the research, the study does provide significant revelations about their own perceptions, understanding and attitudes towards education for citizenship at its various levels. These relate to the conception of citizenship; aims of education for citizenship; classroom and whole school approaches and evaluations of their own competence and confidence in professional practice and development. The implications of the findings mainly pertain to the curriculum and teacher development. This section will discuss what the results of this study suggest about the citizenship curriculum and its structure as well as strategies for the development of teachers. The discussion will adopt an integrated approach as the curriculum and the teachers who implement it are interdependent with each other and cannot be separated into two individual entities.

6.2 Teachers' conceptions of citizenship and the aims for education for citizenship

Overall, the theory and practice of the different aspects of education for citizenship collated in the study elicit the existence of varying perceptions, understanding and attitudes towards this key area of schooling. Firstly, no teacher in the study expressed an in-depth definition of citizenship that included all or most of the key elements identified by Alexander (2001). This finding points to a lack of explicit

understanding of the concept and multi-faceted nature of citizenship amongst the teachers involved in the research. This is further acknowledged in the interviews in which some teachers presented their desire to be given an agreed and established definition of citizenship by their educational authority. More interestingly, they expressed that the availability of a definition was significant for developing confidence and competence in education for citizenship which, therefore, shows their awareness of definitions and concepts as an important basis for practice. This idea is also reinforced by the literature review as many writers argue that citizenship schools can most effectively be achieved through the establishment of an agreed concept of citizenship. The same issue also arises when considering that the teachers in this study indicated that although they gave high ratings to all the aims of education for citizenship, these aims related to social participation and responsibility and were given particularly high value and importance. Not only can this indicate the bias involved within teachers towards certain aspects of citizenship, but also their understanding and perception of certain areas being more important than others. Furthermore, although most teachers placed a high priority of education for citizenship in the curriculum, the teacher interviews demonstrated the emphasis on social responsibility as a key rationale for education for citizenship as opposed to giving equal consideration to all aspects. The particular emphasis ascribed to certain areas of citizenship and education for citizenship by teachers raises the concern of the potential neglect of other areas considered to be significant for development. For example, the emphasis on the social aspects of citizenship will mean that the political, economic and cultural dimensions of it can be neglected and consequently left underdeveloped in children. This notion can be reinforced by Biesta's (2008) argument about the predominantly social focus within the new Curriculum for Excellence which leads to his concern about children being left unequipped for political participation in society. As the literature review identified, the preparation of a well equipped citizen involves the development of knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes in relation to the political, social, economic, educational cultural and personal level. This illustrates the necessity for schools to establish a guided definition of citizenship and set of aims for education for citizenship that

encompasses a comprehensive overview such as the nine distinct but interdependent elements advocated by Alexander (2001).

The perceptions and belief structures of teachers in the present study also highlight the importance of a guided definition and shared set of aims to be embedded in all schools as an initial structure for education for citizenship. This is a key aspect for all educational councils and schools because, as the literature review has shown, varied perceptions and understanding of such aspects will have varying implications for pedagogy, curriculum, evaluation and educational policy. A guided definition and set of aims for education for citizenship established by local councils can provide a key starting point and foundation for practice in all schools. This was certainly the stance taken by three of the participants in the study who suggested the need for a definition (in different sections of the interviews) to help them guide their practice and direct their teaching to ensure they were approaching all key aspects of education for citizenship. A guided definition would enable teachers to understand the concept of citizenship that would underpin the teaching and learning approaches employed and could be one of the criteria used for evaluating the effectiveness of their professional practice. A definition could help teachers form relevant learning outcomes that equip children with citizenship related knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes. As the participants in the present study implied, a definition could also provide a foundation for teachers to build on and ensure that they are following the ideal direction for implementing education for citizenship in their classroom. It could be used as a guidance tool for gearing educational practice as well as a quality indicator for teachers. As far as the teachers in the present study were concerned, such a guidance tool and quality indicator is needed to help them structure and evaluate their approaches.

6.3 Priority of education for citizenship in the primary curriculum

Although nearly all the teachers in the study acknowledged the priority of education for citizenship in the curriculum, the data also raised the issue of whether teachers in the study were aware of the nature of democracy which can have significant

implications for classroom and school practice. Authors such as Maitles and Deuchar (2006) and Alexander (2001) strongly argue that democracy is most effectively learned in a democratic environment and that schools can play a key role in the process of changing society through democratic citizenship. However, in order to create such a 'democratic learning community', as coined by Alexander (2001), and to do so competently, requires the relevant knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes from teachers which creates implications for teacher development. For schools to promote effective citizens of the future that are well prepared to participate in democratic societies, they will need to transform into democratic schools themselves which surely require teachers who believe, understand and reflect true democracy.

6.4 The relevance of citizenship in the curricular areas and the permeation and time allocation of education for citizenship within the curriculum

It is important for teachers to be aware of the relevance of all subject areas to education for citizenship and how they are required by all citizens. A more thorough examination and appreciation of the Curriculum for Excellence could be a valuable approach in enabling them to do this as the curriculum promotes the notion of all subject areas being important for developing the four aspirations. Furthermore, it may also be valuable for teachers to use the Curriculum for Excellence guidelines as an evaluation and guidance tool for developing education for citizenship to ensure they are meeting the relevant professional standards and targets as the respondents in the study indicated their preference in being guided with new initiatives. This suggestion is made on the conviction of the author of the present study that the Curriculum for Excellence is an essential context for education for citizenship.

6.4.1 The Curriculum for Excellence as a context for education for citizenship

As discussed in the literature review, the Curriculum for Excellence is a valuable context for education for citizenship by developing children's capacities as successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and contributors to society – key qualities that create a democratic citizen. In the classroom, the development of the four capacities will be influenced by:

> "- the environment for learning;
> - the choice of teaching learning approaches;
> - the ways in which learning is organised" (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 13)

As the new curriculum embraces, successful learning begins from positive relationships and schools can promote respect, responsibility and tolerance by putting them into practice within their own communities. It states that by setting high goals for all children, school can help them develop confidence and ambition. Teaching and learning approaches need to be selected carefully to achieve the learning outcomes. Learning will need to be organised through a variety of contexts such as environmental studies, science, technology, history, social studies, economics, politics, maths, language, the arts, culture and sports. The daily experiences of school life, as well as out-of-school activities, events and celebrations will also be learning approaches and these various experiences should enhance and enrich learning (Scottish Executive, 2004).

The values, aims, outcomes, principles and the structure of the new curriculum essentially contributes to the development of future citizens because they are founded upon similar principles that the literature on education for citizenship shares and promotes. The curriculum guidelines base their structure and content upon the principles of education for citizenship promoted by the literature review. In embedding the curriculum in its entirety, teachers will be able to ensure the democratic nature of their citizenship classroom. This idea can be illustrated using

the example of the principles of curriculum design. According to the Scottish Executive (2004), the principles of curriculum design are as follows:

Challenges and enjoyment **-** Learning should be challenging, engaging and motivating for children of all aptitudes and abilities. The curriculum should set high expectations and goals for all. Support for sustaining effort should be provided.

Breadth - All children should have access to a broad range of experiences. The organisation of the curriculum should be conducive to learning and development through various classroom and community contexts.

Progression - With a single curriculum from 3-18, all children's learning should have continuous progression. The rate of progression should be tailored for meeting individual needs and aptitudes.

Depth - The curriculum should enable all children to develop their potential for different types of thinking and learning. As they improve in their learning, they should develop and apply their increasing cognitive abilities to explore and extend their levels of understanding.

Personalisation and choice - All children's needs should be met and specific aptitudes and talents supported. The curriculum should offer them increasing opportunities for making their own choices as they progress through their school life. Once they achieve the learning outcomes of various curricular areas, they should be given more options for learning.

Coherence - Children's learning experiences throughout school life should be coherent. Clear links must be established between the different areas of children's learning.

Relevance - Children should understand the rationale for their activities. They should understand the value of the teaching content and its relevance to them.

These principles support the nature of education for citizenship that has been advocated by the literature review. These principles are, therefore, the key conditions necessary for the development of future citizens. A school that embeds such principles within the curriculum and whole school experience can ensure that children receive an education that promotes the development of citizenship related qualities. The present study is, therefore, suggesting that one of the most effective ways a school can implement an education for citizenship is by embedding the Curriculum for Excellence at all levels. With 93.5% of the teachers in the study indicating their belief that this area should have a high priority in the curriculum suggests that they are more likely to welcome such a change in their school and perceive it as a significant area. This would be important for the school as any change is strengthened by the support received from staff and makes it a smoother transition.

Many schools are in the process of transforming their curriculum into the new Curriculum for Excellence whilst others are in the initial stages. Either way, it is important for schools to realize and acknowledge that in doing so, they are in effect also in the process of developing into citizenship schools. The understanding of this idea is essential particularly for those teachers who may regard education for citizenship as a new burden or addition to an overcrowded curriculum. The implementation of the new curriculum can also facilitate opportunities for teachers to develop their own competence within this field through an understanding and appreciation of the teaching approaches required. The next section will explore the teaching qualities required for the successful implementation of the new Curriculum for Excellence as implied by its guidelines which can, therefore, play a significant role for the development of education for citizenship.

6.5 Teachers confidence in contributing to a whole school and classroom approach to education for citizenship

The interview responses highlighted the significance of various factors that develop teachers' confidence and indicated the variety of experiences important for

professional development. The data also revealed the reliance of teachers upon the whole school ethos to provide professional and curricular opportunities and support.

The development of confidence requires a balance of opportunities to establish pupil-teachers relationships, employ appropriate activities and teaching approaches and knowledge of how to integrate citizenship into curricular areas. The co-operation and collaboration between all members of staff and management is significant and it is important to have effective structures in place that allow teachers to practise citizenship in the classroom such as curricular programmes and guidelines from management. Links between whole school and classroom approaches should also be made.

6.5.1 The role of the school in developing teacher competence in education for citizenship

One of the key implications to emerge from this chapter has been the concept of change as a key process for schools that will enable teachers to develop professionally through their involvement in the transformation and whole school activities. With the emergence of the Curriculum for Excellence and the Citizenship Paper, many Scottish schools are currently in the process of developing into citizenship schools. However, many studies have also examined the concept of teacher involvement in the process of change as an essential experience for teachers such as Turnbull and Muir (1999) and Frost (2000).

As Turnbull and Muir (1999) argue, the implementation of education for citizenship should not be viewed as an extra burden but regarded as enabling reform in education that will also help teachers as well as children. Developing citizenship in children can stimulate and expand teaching and learning approaches that deal with rapid change and multiculturalism (Hargreaves and Evans, 1997, as cited in Turnbull and Muir, 1999). The concepts of 'mainstreaming citizenship' and 'learning organisation' are promoted by Turnbull and Muir (1999) to refer to the ways that education can become more diverse as well as enhancing the educational process.

'Mainstreaming citizenship' aims to tackle disadvantage without ignoring difference which suggests that teaching citizenship would not emerge from one curricular area but mainstreamed through various subjects. In the context of this present study, this would be significant for those teachers who expressed that education for citizenship was relevant to certain or most subjects in the curriculum but not all of them. 'Learning organisation' promotes the idea that although people experience learning, their collective learning can be displayed through organisational changes. A learning organisation develops through a continuous process. The ideas of reform can seem a daunting task. The ability to co-operate and aim towards a shared goal is an essential step for effectiveness but the attainment of this relies on dealing with change at a number of levels (Knight, 1995, as cited in Turnbull and Muir, 1999).

More important to the discussion of teacher development is the active role they can play in teacher-led school improvement – a strategy strongly promoted by Frost (2000) – which is a significant implication for practice by the present study in response to the whole school support that teachers' look upon in their own professional development and confidence in citizenship. Teacher-led school improvement also goes beyond the typical training courses that teachers are used to in that it involves them actively in the process of transformation. This means that the change to citizenship schools can be teacher led and through this process, teachers can develop more creative ways to enhance their competence in education for citizenship rather than rely on management to provide them with the opportunities through whole school experiences as was the case in the present study. Active involvement in the process of change will also mean that teachers can become the role models for critical, questioning, independent and responsible citizens they ought to be for children. This is a prime consideration as the study data revealed an inconsistency in teachers' attitudes with self improvement and their own professional role of encouraging successful learners and responsible citizens. Although a teacher's role is to educate children into becoming critical, questioning, independent and responsible citizens, the study found that teachers prefer to be instructed on how to teach and implement curricular programs rather than exercise their own personal enquiry based and independent learning by studying literature, documents and

guidelines to enhance professional knowledge, understanding and skills. Thus, becoming involved in whole school and classroom change can potentially shape attitudes and enable them to practise what they teach.

6.6 Identification of whole school and classroom approaches

The 15 teachers interviewed were able to identify appropriate and relevant whole school activities that promoted education for citizenship as discussed by key documents in the literature review. Although the teachers in the study were able to identify appropriate citizenship related activities in the classroom, the literature review demonstrates that citizenship approaches involve more depth, creativity, challenge and development of critical thinking. This is because the qualities required in a well developed citizen are very challenging and specific.

This study avoids making judgements on the true knowledge and understanding of teachers of education for citizenship approaches. It can only confirm that the teachers in this study did not explicitly acknowledge this complexity through their interviews which raises the question of whether teacher confidence in classroom approaches can be registered as genuine. A teacher that possesses superficial knowledge of citizenship approaches may assume that he or she knows what constitutes such methodology and attribute this knowledge to experience or the attendance of related courses. The question is whether such a teacher will be just as confident if presented with reflective and detailed strategies of how to create a democratic classroom and the implications this has on the professional qualities required to enable the establishment of such a democratic learning community in the classroom. With the acknowledgement of the numerous and in depth approaches and teaching qualities required for the establishment of such a democratic learning environment, it would be interesting to discover whether the participants in the study would rate their confidence highly in the same way. This analysis is not assuming or confirming that the respondents' knowledge and understanding was insufficient but is suggesting an area of further exploration. Through continuing professional development in its

various forms, teachers should be provided with the opportunity to evaluate their knowledge and understanding and identify the areas they need to develop.

6.7 Perceived competence in education for citizenship, sources and strategies for professional development

The study raises the question about whether any of the participants were aware and understood the knowledge, understanding and skills necessary for them to implement education for citizenship effectively. The question about the ability of teachers to make accurate and fair judgements on what constitutes education for citizenship and the basis of their confidence can be further supported by the expression of their personal beliefs in competence for teaching and promoting education for citizenship. Overall, the higher the teachers rated their competence, the higher they rated their confidence levels and such confidence was attributed to the attendance at professional courses; personal interest and teaching experiences; support from staff and engagement in working parties and professional dialogue. On the contrary, a minority of teachers believed that their competence in education for citizenship was not of a high standard but declared that they were very confident or confident in implementing whole school and classroom approaches. This data also questioned whether these teachers were aware of the qualities required in a teacher to practise education for citizenship effectively and whether this data would be different if they demonstrated a thorough knowledge and understanding of what constitutes an effective citizen, a citizenship classroom and the qualities required within a teacher in order to achieve this. However, true self evaluation can only be achieved when there are explicit outcomes to be measured against. This illustrates the importance for the establishment of key qualities required for teachers to create a citizenship classroom. These reflections make the link to the provision of adequate in-service and CPD training offered in Scottish schools which were valuable approaches for professional development and learning for the teachers in the study.

6.7.1 Teaching qualities that could be conducive to effective education for citizenship

As has been presented in this study, the aims and practice of education for citizenship should reflect the Curriculum for Excellence aims, outcomes, values, principles and the development of four capacities as these are inextricably linked to education for citizenship and provides key contexts for learning to become an ultimate citizen. It is, thus, important to structure the discussion about the qualities required in a teacher for effective education for citizenship upon the implications that the new curriculum has on teachers' thinking and practice.

The structure of the new curriculum places a major focus on child-centered learning and encompasses the concept of learners taking more responsibility for and participating in active learning. The new curriculum illustrates the teacher's role as being strongly geared towards a more active role as a facilitator. In the context of education for citizenship, this implies that teachers are required to develop and display various skills, understanding and attitudes about child-centred and constructivist learning. It suggests that they need to understand that knowledge is constructed and modified, not passively absorbed or discovered. They should view learning as a joint cognitive venture and focus teaching on the construction of knowledge, not a solitary or teacher-controlled activities. They need to facilitate more collaborative and co-operative learning activities and consider pre-existing knowledge, beliefs and attitudes when planning and facilitating learning experiences. Metacognition, self-evaluation, self-regulation, self-reflection and self awareness through activities and methodologies are encouraged in children. Effective teachers also pass more responsibility and control of learning to learners themselves and adopt the role of mentors or facilitators. They also use teaching strategies such as scaffolding and reciprocal teaching for effective teaching and learning and provide more opportunities for apprenticeship learning. Attainment targets and learning outcomes are devised by learners in negotiation with the teachers.

The author suggests that the constructivist teaching approaches and qualities that are

developed through or for the delivery of the Curriculum for Excellence, are just as applicable to the promotion of education for citizenship since the two areas are inextricably linked. In other words, to be skilled in implementing the new curriculum is to be skilled in implementing education for citizenship.

6.7.2 The relationship between constructivist teaching approaches and the Curriculum for Excellence / education for citizenship

Teaching that focuses on the construction of knowledge is a joint cognitive effort rather than a solitary or teacher-controlled activity. A joint cognitive venture focuses on clear learning outcomes and the various aspects of the venture are conducted by learners, peers and teachers. Cognitive instructional theory suggests that genuine knowledge cannot be constructed by learners working individually in isolation from peers and adults (Borich and Tombari, 1997). The Curriculum for Excellence promotes this idea of effective learning being a joint cognitive effort as opposed to teacher-controlled activities. This, therefore, implies that the development of future effective citizens cannot be based on or achieved by a single teacher simply conducting a series of lessons in the classroom but on a variety of interactive, collaborative and integrated classroom, whole school and community experiences and well organized activities. HMIE (2006a) provide a comprehensive example of this in action in one primary school in which all members of the school and community were involved in dealing with citizenship issues. One class explored the values of themselves and others by interviewing various school members and writing to members of the local community, Lord Provost, politicians and members of the royal family. The collection of responses was an important source for critical thinking and discussion for children. Meetings were held by the pupils for their peers and adults in the community to hold discussions about the relationship between the values of the school and the community. Pupils were also involved in finding 'good citizens' of the community and engaged in a campaign that invited the public to nominate 'good citizens'. The campaign was backed by the support of local shops, business, the church and families. The pupils were involved in examining the nominations and deciding on who should receive the recognition. The pupils then

arranged an awards ceremony for members of the local community at which the good citizens were given recognition from the school. Such examples illustrate that effective education for citizenship also relies on joint collaboration and co-operation of professionals from the classroom, whole school and the community in order to create complete learning venture that will create effective citizens of the future.

Constructivist teaching methodologies include cognitive strategies that teach learners skills in how to learn. This aim of teaching is referred to as enabling learners to become 'intentional learners' (Bereiter, 1990, as cited in Borich and Tombari, 1997, p. 185) which occurs when they discover and use their own ways of achieving learning outcomes. To become an intentional learner, a student needs to be able to find and utilize resources, overcome difficult situations in learning and know how to continue their effort. Intentional learners regard themselves as being responsible for their own learning and sustaining effort. According to cognitive psychologists, they need to accept responsibility for their own learning (Borich and Tombari, 1997). 'Self-regulated' learning is when learners take responsibility for their own learning and has three main characteristics – awareness of thinking, use of strategies and sustained motivation (Paris and Winograd, 2001). The Curriculum for Excellence strongly promotes and encourages learners to become intentional and self-regulated learners which is an essential quality for future citizens to possess if they are to become successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors to society.

The aims and key principles of the Curriculum for Excellence focus entirely on the learners themselves and encompass the concept of learners taking more responsibility for and participating in active learning. The curriculum also embraces the role of teachers as educational facilitators who must identify a child's current stage of development and learning readiness and facilitate activities through which a child can actively process new and more advanced thinking and concepts. It also acknowledges the complex nature of learning and teaching and establishes a correlation between learning processes and the planned curriculum. The new curriculum has more emphasis on the attainment of broad educational outcomes

through child-centered learning and teaching.

The type of learning experiences advocated by the new curriculum leads to the importance of considering pre-existing knowledge, beliefs and attitudes when planning and facilitating learning experiences. The use of pupil voice is a fundamental part of this process. As strongly advocated by the literature review, pupil voice is an essential aspect of the development of citizens and should form an integral part of a citizenship school. Many studies (Davies, 1999; Maitles and Deuchar, 2004) illustrate that young people have a pre-existing understanding and interpretations of the characteristics that constitute a citizen, the nature of democracy, the democratic process and controversial issues which emphasises the importance of examining pre-existing knowledge, beliefs and attitudes in relation to citizenship when planning and facilitating citizenship learning experiences.

The development of such qualities could be made easier with the whole school support system, as has been expressed by the teachers in this study. The participants identified a combination of factors that they felt gave them confidence in education for citizenship and made their knowledge, understanding and skills in this area competent. These included the support of the whole school ethos and whole school activities; personal and teaching experience; participation in working parties; engagement in professional dialogue; support from staff and the attendance at professional courses and in-service training. This implies that in the process of establishing the new curriculum and education for citizenship at whole school level, teachers can be directly and indirectly influenced by this and, in effect, can evaluate and reform their teaching practice accordingly. As the responses of the participants in this study suggested, teachers rely on the whole school support mechanism to guide their own practice. This implies that the whole school curriculum change can positively influence teachers practice in the classroom which will, consequently, reflect the development of the teacher. Furthermore, the fact that the participants interviewed identified the whole school as a support mechanism that contributed to their confidence in the classroom illustrates the strong link between whole school and classroom approaches and shows the importance of co-operation and

collaboration between all members of staff and the management of the school. This also reinforces the idea that the influence of the whole school curriculum can contribute to a teacher's own development and practice.

Overall, this section has explored the ways that citizenship related teaching qualities can be developed in teachers through the implementation of the Curriculum for Excellence. It is also important to consider other ways that a school can directly develop such qualities in a teacher and transform into a citizenship school. This discussion has reflected the importance of a continuous interaction between whole school change and teachers' practice that facilitates the change in both aspects. This demonstrates the significant role the whole school ethos and activity can have on teacher development. The following section will now examine explicit ways that a school can develop teacher competence in education for citizenship.

6.8 In-service training and CPD activities valued by teachers for continuing professional development in education for citizenship

The responses collated in the study illustrate that teachers find the employment of particular and various strategies effective and relevant to learn about citizenship and citizenship education, particularly those that can be classified under the categories of 'training courses' and 'professional dialogue'. It also demonstrates that teachers regard the local education authorities as having initial responsibility for providing information and training about citizenship and education for citizenship. These key points create significant implications about the type of activities that teachers need to experience in order to develop the characteristics required to enable them to develop a citizenship based classroom.

As well as training opportunities, teachers emphasised the importance of professional dialogue for learning and sharing ideas. Teachers' responses in the study strongly indicated that they were reliant on such training methods to be taught about new initiatives and did not engage in active independent learning which suggests several implications for this study. Firstly, training courses must be designed to enable

teachers to learn about the nature of education for citizenship in terms of exploring and establishing the definition of citizenship, aims and definitions of education for citizenship and how to create a citizenship classroom. The teachers in the study expressed that although citizenship related courses and training were available across councils, these were not necessarily specifically labelled as such but were integrated or referred to within other curricular courses. This implies that courses that aim to educate teachers must be structured with key content that will empower teachers with the strategies and offer more opportunities that allow them to engage in professional dialogue. Learning about how to create a citizenship classroom also leads to the importance of increasing knowledge about the key characteristics required in a teacher to be able to establish such a classroom.

Although the key document available for teachers is the Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002), it does not address many of the issues raised by the respondents of the present study, particularly regarding those about the diversity of the definition of citizenship and the implications of this on curriculum practice; the specific characteristics required in teachers to promote effective citizenship; and the approaches that should be taken in order to prepare educators to take on such a challenging role. Although the document suggests broad strategies for citizenship, the data results indicate that teachers desire more specific guidelines that they could practically apply in their own classroom without having to interpret ambiguous meanings from such broad guidelines. More significantly, the responses of teachers also suggested that most teachers do not engage in independent reading for professional development but rely on training that requires being taught by another professional. No teacher in the study suggested any ideas about having more literature, documents or guidelines available for teachers to study which suggests the lack of focus on such methods of learning. Rather, they prefer the attendance of professional courses; support from staff; participation in working parties, engagement in professional dialogue and learning from personal teaching experiences. This has significant implications about the consideration of the structure of teacher development that could be provided in order to meet their professional requirements. It will be valuable to explore the possible structure and content that

such development activities or training could comprise. After all, continuous professional development should be applicable to teachers' professional needs in a way that they can all respond to and appreciate as effective learning approaches.

However, throughout this argument, an inconsistency can be detected between the attitudes of some teachers towards their own professional development and the qualities they are supposed to instil within children through the Curriculum for Excellence. On the one hand, teachers are supposed to follow the aspirations of the curriculum and educate children to become critical, questioning, inquisitive, independent and responsible citizens. On the other hand, as this study shows, some teachers prefer to be instructed on how to teach and implement curricular programs rather than take the initiative to engage in the study of literature, documents and guidelines which aim to help professionals to enhance their teaching knowledge, understanding and skills. This paradoxical element in teachers demonstrates their lack of appreciation of teacher autonomy and the immense benefits this can potentially have on themselves as professionals and on their pupils as learners. It is important for the teachers that seem to be reliant on being instructed on approaches to education for citizenship as opposed to using their own initiative and autonomy to recognise that professional independence can enhance teaching and learning experiences and they should not be afraid to explore new fields. It is, therefore, suggested that exercising more autonomy in education for citizenship will consequently enhance teaching and learning approaches within this area.

As a consequence, it has been considered necessary to explore the potential methods that could be employed in schools that enable teachers' development and that would especially encourage them to take on more of an independent role in their own learning and become more active in making changes at classroom and whole school level. As Oulton *et al* (2004) argues, pre-service and in-service teacher training for citizenship should be a national priority.

6.9 Conclusions

This chapter has discussed the main findings of the present study and their implications on education for citizenship in Scotland in relation to the curriculum, teaching qualities and teacher professional development. The recommendations chapter will discuss five possible approaches that could be adopted in Scottish schools to enable effective professional development for teachers that incorporate the preferred learning methods identified by the participants in this study.

CHAPTER 7: RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 Summary of recommendations

In the present study, not only did the teachers simply provide insight into their own knowledge and understanding of particular aspects of education for citizenship, they also expressed their opinions about particular measures that could be adopted in primary schools in order to enhance the professional development of teachers. It is these personal suggestions that influence the recommendations made in this study. Listening to these practitioners, compiling and responding to these suggestions are paramount if changes are to be accelerated in Scottish schools because the teacher is the key facilitator for children's learning. This means that whole school and classroom change ultimately begins with the teacher and on this note, the recommendations made in this study will be reflective of the preferred methods of learning that the participants in this study have identified.

This section makes four key recommendations and each will be discussed in detail throughout the chapter. The recommendations can be summarised as follows:

1. It is necessary for teachers to acknowledge that education for citizenship has always been practised in schools and by themselves but within different contexts. This has been demonstrated in the literature review by the analysis of the Primary Memorandum (HMSO, 1965), Education 10-14 (CCC, 1986) and the 5-14 Curriculum (SOED, 1993b). Education for citizenship should not be regarded as an extra area of the curriculum but a re-categorisation of existing practice.

2. Scottish schools should acknowledge the essential context that the Curriculum for Excellence provides as a strong basis for developing education for citizenship.

3. Teachers need to consider the features that make a citizenship classroom and use these to evaluate their professional practice.

4. Schools could adopt the ten key strategies of Frost's (2000) Reflective Action Planning Model to help them transform into citizenship schools. This is because the strategies involve teachers as change agents.

5. The existing structure of CPD in education for citizenship should be evaluated and modified, if necessary, to ensure that teachers are given opportunities to collaborate and share ideas with their colleagues as a way of sharing effective professional practice. A guided definition of citizenship should be established by the local authorities to allow an initial basis for developing education for citizenship. This definition would not be prescriptive but a guideline. The aspects that make an effective and ideal citizenship classroom should also be explored and should be inclusive in the citizenship CPD programmes. Teachers should be encouraged to adopt more of an independent approach to their own professional development and view autonomy as a significant part of enhancing education for citizenship.

7.1 Education for citizenship as a re-categorisation of existing educational and professional practice

The first key recommendation of this study is that teachers need to be aware and appreciate that education for citizenship is not an additional area of the curriculum that is imposed on them and that they will have to learn. It is a significant emerging area of the curriculum that identifies with all areas of the curriculum in direct and indirect ways. Education for citizenship should be considered as a re-categorisation of existing professional practice. Schools have been practising education for citizenship for many years but under different classifications. It will be valuable to examine some of the ways that schools have been implementing education for citizenship prior to the emergence of the Citizenship Paper by LTS (2002) and the Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Executive, 2004).

The 5-14 curriculum provides numerous examples of the way this area has been integrated into Scottish education which can be categorised into specific education

for citizenship strategies and outcomes. Such examples could provide a valuable source of guidance for embedding education for citizenship within the context of the Curriculum for Excellence. Within the 5-14 curriculum, aspects of sociology, politics and economics could be studied through the social subjects parts of environmental studies. The attainment outcome 'people in society' was directly linked to several knowledge and understanding learning outcomes of education for citizenship given in the Citizenship Paper (LTS, 2002, p. 12) such as:

- the rights and responsibilities underpinning democratic and other societies;
- people's material and spiritual needs and wants and the implications of these for issues such as the environmental sustainability and social justice;
- decision making processes in society and the role of the media and marketing in these processes.

In RME, the attainment outcomes 'other world religions' and 'personal search' developed awareness of other cultures and exploration of relationships and moral values. The topics in Personal and Social Development and health develop knowledge, understanding and awareness of areas related to citizenship such as personal and community safety, making informed decisions, personal relationships, conflict resolution, independence and interdependence. Expressive arts enabled children to express feelings, ideas, thoughts and solutions and developed group co-operation and communication to varied audiences. In language, listening, talking, reading and writing could be taught within citizenship contexts which would contribute to the development of effective citizenship e.g. learning to discuss a school issue.

7.2 All curriculum subjects contribute to the development of a effective citizenship

Another approach through which education for citizenship has always been delivered in schools to the present day is through the teaching of all key subjects of the curriculum. Whilst the previous section exemplified curricular areas such as Environmental Studies, PSD and RME as areas that specifically developed citizenship related qualities, this section will examine the ways in which all curricular subjects, even though they may evidently not use citizenship related aspects, are also significantly relevant to education for citizenship. It is important to make such an argument to illustrate the ways that education for citizenship applies to existing professional practice and, therefore, enable teachers to appreciate and value their own teaching qualities and acknowledge that they have always implemented education for citizenship.

Firstly, the key areas of the 5-14 curriculum - Maths, English, Environmental Studies, Expressive Arts and Religious and Moral Education – have been well established in Scottish schools as the main areas of study in order to develop an overall education for all pupils. Within the context of education for citizenship, it should be widely acknowledged that such areas of the curriculum are essential subjects for study as they develop knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes necessary to participate in a democratic society at personal, economic, social, educational, political and cultural levels. For example, the development of literacy, numeracy, Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and other core skills are required for employment. The development of expressive arts education will enable the participation in the arts, sports and leisure aspects of life as well as providing media and means of expression to explore society.

Furthermore, the aspects that have been identified by LTS (2002) as necessary for active and responsible citizenship can be learned in each subject of the curriculum. For example, LTS (2002) state that some of the skills and competencies necessary for active and responsible citizenship are:

- "to work independently and in collaboration with others to complete tasks requiring individual or group effort as appropriate;
- locate, handle, use and communicate information and ideas, using ICT as appropriate;
- question and respond constructively to the ideas and actions of others in debate and / or in writing;
- contribute to discussions and debate in ways that are assertive and, at the same, attentive to and respectful of others' contributions" (p. 13).

There is much scope in lessons and learning experiences in all areas of the curriculum to develop the citizenship skills above. In this respect, the lack of development within the curricular subjects will mean that one cannot be well-equipped to engage as a fully skilled citizen of the country. For this reason, all subjects need to be valued in the curriculum by all teachers for the purpose of developing education for citizenship. Maths, Language and Expressive Arts are just as relevant to citizenship as is Environmental Studies, Personal and Social Development and Religious and Moral Education.

In light of the discussion presented in this section, teachers should acknowledge that in the delivery of the curriculum throughout their career, they have enabled their pupils to develop citizenship related qualities that they require to become active and responsible citizens. With its specific references to education for citizenship, the new Curriculum for Excellence can be used to enable teachers to recognize, evaluate, classify, modify and appreciate their existing professional practice.

7.3 The Curriculum for Excellence as a context for education for citizenship

This section will be a significant link and extension to the previous section as it talks about the new emerging context within which education for citizenship will be developed – the Curriculum for Excellence. The literature review of the present study analysed the way the new curriculum encompasses and develops education for

citizenship. It is on this basis that the next key recommendation is made which is that Scottish schools should acknowledge and appreciate the Curriculum for Excellence as a strong basis for developing education for citizenship.

7.3.1 Using the Curriculum for Excellence to develop citizenship schools

In implementing the Curriculum for Excellence, schools can effectively develop themselves into citizenship schools. This is because the structure of the Curriculum for Excellence in terms of its aims, principles and aspirations allow the development of key knowledge, understanding and skills required in a citizen. The emergence of education for citizenship does not require schools to devise major initiatives or regard it as an additional burden. In embracing the new curriculum, schools will ultimately be embracing education for citizenship. This will involve schools examining their existing practice and identifying the aspects and activities that they are already doing and classifying them appropriately under the relevant citizenship related areas. This idea can be reinforced by the response of one interviewee in the present study who explained that her school actually practised a lot of education for citizenship but that it was not categorised as such and that teachers did not realise they were implementing it. This implied that the school required an audit or evaluation of existing practice and resources and this is strongly advised by Learning and Teaching Scotland (2002).

7.4 Challenges for teachers to enhance education for citizenship in their classroom

When exploring the approaches for implementing education for citizenship such as those identified and discussed in the literature review, teachers will be able to claim that they already employ many aspects of this curricular area in their existing practice. Teachers should use the Curriculum for Excellence as a valuable document to evaluate the ways in which they currently address citizenship in the classroom. It will allow them to appraise and appreciate the activities and systems they already

employ in the classroom that aim to develop citizenship related qualities. Likewise, it will also enable them to critically assess themselves and make a judgement on where they need to enhance their professional practice and the strategies for doing so. However, this study identifies several aspects of practice that may challenge many teachers into changing their thinking as well as their approaches.

One of the key challenges for teachers has been explored in chapter 5 in which the study discussed the importance of classrooms being a positive reflection of the democratic society that exists outside the school through the establishment of a democratic classroom. The implications for this on the teacher in terms of his or her relationship with the pupils, behavior, provision of learning experiences and the classroom ethos were also discussed as was the challenge of enabling the use of pupil voice.

The issues raised leads to the important question of the ways in which teachers can be best educated to deal with such changes, especially that of pupil voice. The potential problems with establishing this change can be illustrated by writers such as Ruddock and Flutter (2004) who state that the consultation process can fail to benefit pupils because of existing power issues in the school structure and even the strategies for pupil consultation.

Perhaps one of the ways to address the issues identified above by Ruddock and Flutter (2004) is by emphasising the importance of teacher voice in suggestions for change and enabling teachers to make changes in schools themselves through democratic means. This study argues that it is important for teachers to be involved in bringing about change as change agents as opposed to being the objects of change. If teachers are involved in the transformation process by actually suggesting the changes, being responsible for bringing about the change and evaluating them then they are more likely to enhance their own development and professional opinions since they are assigned the responsibility. It is important that teachers feel that their voice is heard and that they are also involved in a democratic society. It is hoped that by enabling teachers to go through such democratic processes, they will appreciate

the need for a democracy in the classroom and understand the processes involved. This could consequently enable teachers to feel less threatened by the changes involved in creating a citizenship classroom since they will have experienced the importance of democracy themselves at teachers' level. This leads to the key question of how school managers can enable teachers to become change agents which will be addressed in the section 7.6.

The discussion also raises another significant issue in relation to teacher development and that is the concept of teachers as citizens. In order to teach a curricular area, a teacher must be knowledgeable about it. Surely it can be widely accepted that one cannot teach something that he or she does not have any knowledge of. In this case, for teachers to implement education for citizenship effectively in the classroom, they must be effective and responsible citizen themselves. To teach children about how democracy operates in society and how to become 'good' citizens, teachers must have the relevant knowledge about it. This carries the implication that teachers need to be taught how to develop education for citizenship in the classroom through continuous professional development. Even more significant to this is the notion that teachers should practise what they teach. In other words, for teachers to develop effective citizens, they need to be effective citizens themselves so that it can transfer into their professional practice. As the present study demonstrated, there is inconsistency in knowledge about citizenship and education for citizenship amongst teachers. The participants in the study did not identify the same key elements of citizenship and placed an emphasis on particular aims of education for citizenship. This demonstrated the possibility that these participants did not have an in-depth knowledge and understanding of citizenship and education for citizenship which can consequently lead to inconsistent practice amongst the profession. In light of this, the present study makes the recommendation that the continuous professional development programme should involve teaching teachers about citizenship and what it means to be a citizen. Teachers should be encouraged to then evaluate their own citizenship and make personal reformations where necessary. For example, there may be teachers who deliberately do not use their vote for political and personal reasons. Voting is an essential method of democratic participation and so it

would be valuable to encourage a reformed perception within teachers towards voting so that they can take a greater role in improving society as a British citizen. Encouraging teachers to become better and well informed citizens should, therefore, be an integral part of a school's continuing professional development programme. It would be an aspiration of such a programme to enable teachers to transfer their reformed practice into the classroom. For example, in the case of teachers who may recognise the value of voting through their CPD programmes, such teachers may consequently see more value in pupil councils and, therefore, encourage more consultation and participation from pupils to the classroom and school environment.

Whilst the idea of continuous professional development that supports the development of citizenship within teachers may sound radical and revolutionary, it would provide an invaluable dimension to teacher development. However, this idea does raise a potential issue about its establishment. The present study argues that the success of such CPD programmes will be more likely if schools are democratic institutions themselves where teachers experience democracy and are able to contribute to school change. It is unlikely for schools that tend to impose structures and policies on teachers to be able to successfully encourage them to improve their own citizenship without resentment for the contradictory teachings. Continuing professional development programmes should also be an opportunity for the management team to evaluate the extent to which the school is democratic for teachers.

In light of the arguments above, the present study recommends the employment of the Reflective Action Planning Model by Frost (2000) in schools as a way for involving teachers democratically and actively in policy implementation and change.

7.5 Adopting ten key strategies of the Reflective Action Planning Model

The present study recommends that schools could adopt the ten key strategies of Frost's (2000) Reflective Action Planning Model as a way of transforming into

citizenship schools. This is because the strategies involve teachers as change agents.

Frost (2000) puts forward the 'reflective action planning model' as a possible approach to teacher-led school improvement. This model is based on the principle that it is the actual teachers who are in the most appropriate position to enhance their understanding of the way their school is organised and use this information to decide on a strategy for change and improvement. Frost (2000) promotes the reflective action planning approach as a strategy to enable teachers to bring about change and to become 'active agents' as opposed to being the 'objects of change strategies' (p. 17). This approach is based on four main assumptions, as put forward by Frost (2000) – that teachers need to adopt the role of change agent which comprises the application of leadership and strategic thinking, planning and action to enhance the effectiveness of education; that schools need to empower teachers to become change agents through the provision of structures and management systems; that teachers require a support structure to allow them to undertake systematic, enquiry-based development activities; that the higher education sector is in a strong position to provide such a support structure.

Frost (2000, p. 17) explains the reflective action planning approach as a list of ten key strategies:

> "1. The school invites members of staff to play an active part in development work and review their management arrangements to ensure that change agents have opportunities to exercise leadership.
>
> 2. Participants are provided with a framework of support for systematic, inquiry-based, development work.
>
> 3. Participants are expected to engage in personal vision-building and to make their priorities explicit in the form of a personal development plan which can be shared with colleagues and negotiated in the context of the school's development agenda.

4. Participants are expected to plan their interventions systematically and make their intentions explicit in the form of written action plans that can be negotiated with colleagues and other key stakeholders within the school.

5. Critical discourse is fostered and guidance provided through the provision of a jointly planned and led programme of twilight workshops / seminars.

6. Independent work is supported through the provision of a booklet containing guidelines, formats and facsimiles of teachers' planning documents and through the provision of individual tuition.

7. Critical discourse and the sharing of ideas are fostered through membership of regional, national and international networks, ideally including a dedicated network of participants from other schools.

8. Participants are expected to keep a portfolio of evidence of the development work together with explanatory commentary so that the process is fully documented and can be reviewed with colleagues.

9. Participants are invited to reflect on the process of change and to analyse it in the form of a critical narrative that is added to the portfolio for the purposes of a deeper reflection supported by academic tuition.

10. Participants are invited to present their portfolios to the HEI for assessment for the purposes of accreditation."

The present study recognises the reflective action planning model by Frost (2000) as a significant approach to transforming the classroom into a democratic learning community, ensuring the awareness of the Curriculum for Excellence as an essential context for citizenship and providing opportunities to develop the qualities required in a teacher for effective education for citizenship. For example, through the engagement of personal vision building and producing a personal development plan

for citizenship related teaching and learning in the classroom, teachers can ensure that they plan and engage in activities that will meet the gaps in their own professional knowledge and understanding. Through personal vision building, which is the first stage, teachers can articulate and negotiate the main focus of their professional development. The model also involves setting up a reflective action planning group which consists of workshop activities that allow teachers to examine their values, beliefs, interests, aspirations and career development. In the education for citizenship context, this activity would be the ideal opportunity to reflect and evaluate the qualities for citizenship teaching in the classroom and explore the ways for improving them or introducing more effective strategies. Furthermore, such workshop activities would be an ideal opportunity to engage in professional dialogue with other teachers. Through the reflective action planning model, teachers can also engage in critical discourse and receive guidance through the attendance of twilight workshops and seminars. The effectiveness of professional dialogue was highlighted by many teachers in the thesis interviews. They expressed that these dialogues contributed to the confidence and competence in citizenship approaches which demonstrated that they found these as very useful and important learning media.

The reflective action planning model could provide teachers with a creative and effective approach to professional development and help them to become active agents in initiating and sustaining change within their schools in terms of developing a citizenship school. The adoption of this model in Scottish schools could be an immensely beneficial and creative approach for not only change but enhancing teachers' professional qualities that are required in a citizenship classroom. It could offer a different and more challenging way of using the school to enhance the characteristics required to promote education for citizenship effectively. It could encourage teachers to become more independent in their professional development because they would ideally regard themselves as change agents rather than being the objects of change. Furthermore, it could enable them to view the role of the whole school approach to teacher learning in a more active and independent stance rather than rely on the school to provide a support mechanism and confidence in their own professional development as was the case for some interviewees in the present study.

According to Frost (2000, p. 19), "reflective action planning seems to have a vital role to play in supporting the process whereby individuals exert their human agency and take on leadership roles in relation to particular development initiatives." These leadership roles will be a crucial step for teachers in terms of their own development and making changes within their classroom and school because "the choices we make have consequences for the kind of society we ultimately help to create" (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 265).

7.6 The structure of continuous professional development in education for citizenship

The final recommendation of the present study relates to the possible strategies and approaches that could be provided to teachers within their CPD programmes in order to educate them for effective education for citizenship. The recommendations made respond to the six areas identified by the research participants in the study about the aspects that make their knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship competent. Such aspects identified were the attendance at professional courses; personal interest; teaching experiences; support from staff; participation in working parties; and engagement in professional dialogue. The study suggests that the existing structure of CPD related to citizenship should be evaluated and modified, if necessary, in order to devise a programme that includes the six areas above in its structure and content. The study is not devaluing the existing structure of CPD in Scottish schools but is essentially suggesting a possible revised programme that could be provided to primary school teachers.

7.6.1 The existing provision of CPD

Continuing Professional Development in Scotland has progressed greatly from being a series of in-service courses to a more diverse and elaborate programme of professional enhancement. This is especially due to the McCrone Agreement (*A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century)* in 2001 which outlined key strategies for

enhancing the professional development of teachers. These included the following provisions to be made:

- Continuing professional development was to be an integral part of the teaching career in which all teachers would be expected to have a commitment to CPD, negotiate individual CPD plans once a year with their manager and record all CPD activities undertaken;

- CPD was a valuable opportunity for staff that was to be taken by every teacher;

- Local authorities were responsible for providing a wide range of CPD activities and teachers were responsible for exercising the agreed plan of CPD;

- Chartered Teacher Programmes were to be established for teachers who had relevant experience and continuing CPD portfolios. The programme would allow teachers to gain a recognised qualification.

The progression that Scottish schools have made in organising, structuring and implementing CPD can be illustrated in an television interview given by Jim O'Brien, Vice-Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University of Edinburgh and an expert on Scottish CPD, to 'Teachers TV' (www.teachers.tv/videos/scotland-cpd). During the interview, O'Brien states that CPD has allowed Scottish teachers to have a number of opportunities for career development. As well as the opportunity to gain a formal qualification through the Chartered Teacher Programme, teachers are able to receive CPD in school and attend course and conferences. More significantly, he articulates the way CPD has changed in that it is not just simply about the attendance of courses:

> "It's about doing different types of things differently. It's about working with one's peers, experimenting in the curriculum and its success has been

underpinned by an awareness that you have to have a whole lot of bottom-up issues here rather than a top-down 'we know best and you're all going to have CPD done to you' which, unfortunately, has been a model in the past and which we're moving away from."
(www.teachers.tv/videos/scotland-cpd)

Not only does this statement encompass a progressive approach to CPD that involves a variety of learning experiences for teachers but points to the importance of staff being able to exercise an element of choice and contribute to the process of delivery itself. This means that CPD is not merely about management or authorities delivering an instructional set of courses but an approach that involves a responsiveness to teachers' professional needs, interests and choices.

7.6.2 Possible outline of CPD provision in Scottish schools

The present study acknowledges and appreciates the progression in CPD that Scottish schools are in the process of making or have made and does not devalue the immense effort that has been exercised by local authorities and professional staff. However, it suggests particular approaches that can be taken for enhancing existing CPD provision in education for citizenship. From the responses of the research participants of the present study, it was gathered that different local authorities are approaching education for citizenship in various ways and to varying degrees, with some offering courses directly linked to 'Citizenship' whilst others include citizenship in linked areas such as Personal and Social Development and Enterprise.

A possible outline of CPD provision in education for citizenship suggested by the present study takes into account the learning methods identified by the teachers in the study as contributing to their professional development in education for citizenship as well as the personal preferences of what should be involved in any form of professional development programmes. The suggested CPD programme in education for citizenship can be summarised as follows:

1) A series of courses should be devised specifically for educating teachers about the aims and approaches for education for citizenship. For the content and structure of such courses, a definition should be established by the local authorities to allow a basis on which to develop education for citizenship practice. This would not be prescriptive but a guided definition that would be formed in accordance with prevalent documents and literature influential in the education for citizenship field such as that by the Scottish Executive (2004), LTS (2002) and HMIE (2006a and b). The courses should allow the exploration of the features that make an effective and ideal citizenship classroom. Following this, teachers should be assisted in evaluating their own existing practice and appraise the activities and systems they already have in place that promote education for citizenship. Teachers should also be encouraged to exercise a degree of autonomy when implementing education for citizenship as this will encourage an expansion of teaching and learning opportunities in this area. An emphasis on autonomy may help alleviate the contradictory attitudes that were found in the participants of the present study where a paradox of two states existed between the duty of developing independent citizens in the classroom and the preference to be instructed on pedagogical issues.

As well as the management team of a school, the CPD courses should be provided by key figures that specialise in education for citizenship from various agencies such as the local authority, Higher Education Institutions and the local community. Teachers interviewed for the present study expressed their desire for receiving CPD from external speakers from local authorities to visit schools and educate staff about education for citizenship. Similarly, the school-based respondents in the study conducted by Warwick *et al* (2004) expressed that support for teachers undertaking CPD in citizenship would be best provided by course facilitators such as local authority or HEI representatives, other teachers involved in the process of CPD and local advisers in Citizenship, although the support of headteachers and schools leaders were also considered essential.

2) The structure of CPD courses and activities should provide teachers with opportunities to engage in professional dialogue so that they are able to discuss and

share personal ideas and experiences of effective and ineffective practice in their classroom.

Not only did the participants of the present study express the significance of such approaches, but also by the teachers who participated in a study conducted by Warwick *et al* (2004) which aimed to "determine the form and content of a CPD in Citizenship Programme" (p. 5). The teachers in their study expressed many ideas about the teaching and learning methods that would structure an effective CPD programme. Participants emphasised that teachers can potentially learn considerably from each other by sharing effective and ineffective professional practice; observing colleagues; discussing their progress within the CPD programme and ways to meet assessment criteria. Many stressed the value of face-to-face meetings with mentors and colleagues. Local and collegiate activities would give teachers the opportunity to learn about best practice from each other. The idea of observing citizenship lessons as a useful learning mechanism was also suggested by a few teachers. Although it could be difficult to arrange for classroom observations in real time, video recordings of actual lessons would be just as valuable.

It is, therefore, apparent from the present study and that conducted by Warwick *et al* (2004) that teachers view collaboration as significant for learning development. The present study views this as a positive notion and favours the adoption of such a perspective amongst teachers as a progressive route to achieving high educational standards. The potential disadvantage of adopting an individualistic view of teacher learning is concisely expressed by Kennedy (2008, p. 843) who states that:

> "when teachers are encouraged to view professionalism in individual terms, resulting in individual as opposed to collective accountability, the opportunities for, and desirability of, a collaborative concept of professionalism become limited."

This indicates that allowing teachers to have a collaborative learning experience with their colleagues will be an essential and positive feature of a CPD programme in

education for citizenship.

3) Within the provision of CPD structures, teachers should be allowed to exercise choice based on their own interests and career development.

According to Warwick *et al* (2004), when considering the varying experience and practice in citizenship and the differing school settings, teachers should be able to exercise a degree of choice in following particular areas of interest. The common characteristics of a programme may include an audit or evaluation of existing school provision in citizenship; self and peer evaluation of practice; reviewing changes required, tried and tested; and a consideration of future steps. However, based on the responses of the participants in the study, Warwick *et al* (2004) suggest that a CPD programme should allow teachers to develop their knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and learning as well as exploring approaches for enabling pupils to exercise their voice in issues related to them.

4) The potential benefits of including Higher Education Institutions in the CPD structure should be acknowledged more and recognised as having an essential role in developing teacher professionalism.

Although the present study did not explore teachers' opinions about the contribution of HEIs, they are considered important in a research study conducted by Warwick *et al* (2004, p. 7), in which "respondents viewed Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) with existing expertise in Citizenship as key players in the development and design of a CPD programme." This suggests that this area would be worth exploring in the education for citizenship field.

HEIs can provide the official recognition of CPD content and courses and accredit them in order to provide a nationally recognised qualification on successful completion of CPD. This could also be achieved through the Chartered Teacher Programme. The remit of professors and lecturers based in HEIs essentially involve the participation of new research and initiatives that aim to extend the quality of

teaching and learning in schools. Because of this, they will possess more theoretical and practical understandings of professionally related topics and policies. In this respect, HEIs can provide theoretical and practical groundings and innovative ideas. They can also provide an official recognition and validation of courses and, therefore, make a valuable contribution to a teacher's CPD portfolio.

7.7 Contributions of the study to professional knowledge and understanding

The literature review acknowledged the lack of research that explored the preparation and confidence of primary school teachers in education for citizenship. It identified the value of exploring the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of primary school teachers towards this area as they could play the key role in its implementation at classroom and whole school level. HMIE (2006a) also expressed that further continuing professional development was required to educate all staff in how to actively implement and reinforce education for citizenship. These points inspired the purpose of this study which adopted the view that if education for citizenship was to be implemented successfully in Scottish schools, then the perspectives, understanding and attitudes of the teachers, who would ultimately be the key players in the delivery of education for citizenship, needed to be examined to evaluate their readiness and motivation for re-formation and transformation. This study also attributed importance to every teacher's view and anticipated that such expression of opinions could provide useful suggestions for the most effective ways to enhance teacher development within education for citizenship. These views could also provide ideas for practical activities and learning opportunities that teachers can be most responsive to and find valuable for their professional development.

The findings from this study can make several important contributions to the field of continuing professional development within education for citizenship as it provides valuable indications of teacher discourse and professional opinions. One of the key points that makes this study a valuable and practical project is that the sources of evidence collated were entirely based on the statements provided by teachers

themselves. Although the participation rate was considerably low in comparison to the general teaching population, the teachers that took part in this study can be viewed as representatives of their profession to some degree. This is because the sample used were currently practising primary school teachers who also expressed the general views and perspectives of their staff as well as their own. They were able to provide an indication of what the general feeling or opinion was amongst the teaching profession towards particular aspects. More significantly, this study was based on the conviction that every opinion counts and that even one teacher can provide a revolutionary idea which may be his or her own or formed as a result of teacher dialogue in staffrooms or general discourse.

The evidence collated was useful in providing answers to the research questions. The conclusions presented highlighted the participants' own perceptions, understanding and attitudes towards education for citizenship at its various levels which relate to the conception of citizenship; aims of education for citizenship; classroom and whole school approaches; and evaluations of their own competence and confidence in professional practice and development. These findings give rise to important implications about the influence of varying understandings, perceptions and attitudes on the implementation of education for citizenship, the professional qualities and approaches required in teachers to be able to develop effective citizens of the future and the structure of teacher development and education. The participants of the study have suggested new ideas for practical activities and learning opportunities that teachers could be most responsive to and find valuable for their professional development. These findings can provide a significant basis for re-examining the way continuing professional development is regarded and delivered. It highlights the notion that teacher enhancement is more complex than just the delivery of a series of courses and presentation of guidelines. This study suggests that teachers like to improve their teaching through a variety of methods which indicates that continuing professional development should perhaps comprise varying structures and activities. The findings of this study and the possible outline of CPD given in the recommendations, therefore, can help to revise and enhance the existing structure of CPD provided to teachers.

The findings of this study also highlight the important issue of considering teacher voice. If pupil voice should be considered as a way of evaluating and reforming educational provision, then the same argument should be applied to teachers. Teacher voice should also be used to evaluate and re-form the provision of continuing professional development as this could potentially improve the motivation, preparation and competence of the teaching profession. This is because self improvement has been influenced by the consideration of teachers' opinions and suggestions.

This notion of using teacher voice to take the provision of teacher development forward has underpinned one of the key approaches recommended for schools to potentially enable their teachers to develop and enhance education for citizenship. This key approach involved the use of the 'reflective action planning model' devised by Frost (2000) as a possible strategy for teacher-led school improvement which enables teachers to bring about change and to become active agents rather than being objects of change. This recommendation was particularly made in light of the opinions of teachers that participated in the present study. The participants expressed that they learned about education for citizenship by being actively involved in whole school activities and working parties. The recommendation of the reflective action planning model was also influenced by the significance of teacher voice that arose from this study. As Frost (2000) argues, if teachers are to effectively contribute to school development, they need to liaise with various colleagues, particularly in the management team but the power relations may not allow the teacher to express his or her own view. Being part of a reflective action planning group would allow them to discuss their values, beliefs, interests, aspirations and career development (Frost, 2000). The expression of such views would not create tension between professionals in a school as the model "conceptualizes personal professional development and school development, not as in conflict with one another, but as mutually interdependent" (Frost, 2000, p. 20).

The notion of teachers being active agents may be a radical or new concept for many schools and, in particular, many continuing professional development programs offered by Scottish Councils. The recommendations made in this study should

encourage the re-examination of the existing structure and content of CPD provided and revise it to become more teacher-centred in that it gives teachers the opportunities to evaluate, appreciate and develop their existing practice; engage in professional dialogue with colleagues; exercise choice according to their interests and experiences; improve their own personal citizenship; and become active change agents in the process of transforming their schools in to citizenship schools.

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Table 1: Application of paradigms to present study in terms of ontology, epistemology and methodology

Theoretical Assumptions	Positivism	Interpretivism	Constructivism	Present Study
Ontology *(what reality is like)*	The researcher is separate from reality. Only objective knowledge is scientific knowledge.	The researcher cannot be separated from reality. Knowledge is formed through perceptions and interpretations through senses.	Reality is specific, constructed and intangible; they are socially and experientially based; is dependent on the individuals and can be modified with new incoming information.	Reality is based on the subject's individual life experiences. It is formed and constructed through education, personal and teaching experiences and professional training.
Epistemology *(the relationship between the researcher and that reality)*	Objective reality is external from the human mind. Researcher and subjects are separate making the relationship between them objective. Researchers distinguish facts from values and do not let their own values influence the subject or their research.	Knowledge of the world is formed and understood by personal experiences, perceptions and interpretations and reflecting on these. The researcher's observation and interpretation of data is influenced by his/her personal experiences and understanding of the social world.	The acquisition of knowledge is achieved through a process of active construction. Knowledge is learned subjectively through active engagement in activities. Researcher and subjects are interactive with each other.	The acquisition of knowledge, understanding and skills is formed and constructed by personal and professional experiences, education and interpretations. The researcher and subjects have an interactive relationship between each other.

Research Object	The social world can be studied objectively just like the natural world through solid scientific study.	The research object and data is interpreted in accordance with the researcher's subjective knowledge, perceptions and experiences.	The research object and data is interpreted as the research proceeds. Methods may be adapted as new findings are discovered.	The research object and data is interpreted in accordance with the researcher's learned knowledge, perceptions and experiences of the area of enquiry.
Method *(what methods can be used for studying the reality)*	Statistics, scientific experiments, content analysis, control groups, testing hypotheses through empirical testing	Questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, observation, phenomenology	Participatory observation, focus groups	Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews
Theory of Truth	Only data observed, collected and reported through scientific methods demonstrate objective reality.	Interpretation of subjects match their experiences, knowledge and perceptions. True knowledge is based on subjective reality.	True knowledge is subjective and constructed by individuals in accordance to their environment and experiences.	Interpretation of data collected from subjects match their experiences, knowledge and perceptions. Knowledge is based on subject reality which is constructed by individuals in accordance to their professional education, personal and teaching experiences.

Validity	Data collected is truly valid since it is based on scientific methods of enquiry.	Data collected can be defended by the argument that knowing and knowledge transcend basic empirical enquiry;	Data collected is based on the individual's behaviour and verbal articulation of opinions, experiences and knowledge. It can be defended by the significance placed on subjective reality being unique to different cultures and environments.	Data collected is based on the individual's behaviour and verbal articulation of opinions, perceptions and experiences. Reality is subjective and unique to different individuals based on their education, professional and personal experiences.
Reliability	The research can be replicated and the same results produced.	Significance is placed on human perception and interpretation so data can vary between studies using same methods.	Significance is placed on human construction of knowledge so data can vary between subjects depending on environment, cultures and contexts.	Significance is placed on human perception and interpretation so data can vary between subjects depending on their educational, personal and professional experiences.

APPENDIX 1: PILOT STUDY

Results of the Pilot Study at a Local Glasgow School

Prior to distributing the questionnaires to schools, a pilot study was conducted in a local Glasgow school with 9 teachers. They were all given a questionnaire to complete and an evaluation sheet which asked them to comment on the effectiveness of each question and make any suggestions about how the questionnaire could be better designed to make it easier for teachers to respond. They all completed the questionnaire fully and provided helpful comments both in writing and verbally.

Evaluation

Understanding of Citizenship and Education for Citizenship Amongst Scottish Primary School Teachers

1. What does the word 'citizenship' mean to you?

Most teachers liked this question and found it useful, clear and thought provoking. Two teachers found it hard to think of the meaning from their perspective as they are so used to viewing issues from the children's perspective.

This question will be retained.

2. Below is a list of 12 aims for education for citizenship as defined by certain curricular documents and literature. Choose 5 aims that you think are of key importance in education for citizenship and highlight them.

Five teachers felt that there were too many choices. Three teachers felt that some of the statements were too similar. Four teachers commented that it was a good exercise which was relevant and made them focus. The bold words made easy reading for them and the definitions were clear.

This activity will be retained.

3. Now consider the five statements you have chosen. Please rank them in order of priority by placing the letter names beside the numbers. E.g. 1. C

Five teachers felt that they found it hard to decide on the order of importance as they were all important, although they did carry out the activity. However, one teacher felt that it helped her decide and set her own understanding of the topic.

This question will be omitted as the teachers placed importance on all of the aims

and didn't want to rank them.

4. Below is a list of statements about education for citizenship. Please circle one word for each statement that best describes you opinion.

All teachers felt this was a good and relevant exercise. One teacher suggested including a blank section at the end for further comment.

This section will be retained and will be used to provide a structure for the interview. There is no need to include a blank section at the end of each question as the interview will provide indepth responses. If I was to include blank sections, this would increase the time taken to complete the questionnaire and, therefore, may put participants off.

5. How long did it take you to complete the questionnaire?

Most teachers took 10 minutes to complete the question whilst others took 15 - 20 minutes.

6. If this was an actual questionnaire, would you have been willing to participate in a follow up interview? If you would not then please give reasons for your answer.

Five teachers said that they would not be willing to participate in an interview due to insufficient time and too much to do. One teacher said 'perhaps but only if I had time'. Three teachers said they would be willing to give an interview with one commenting that it was because she knew me and may be good for educational research purposes.

Despite the lack of interest in the interview procedure, I am still going to adopt it as an important method for indepth responses. I will have to make sure that the interviews will last about 15-20 minutes and will focus on elaborating the responses given in the questionnaire rather than devising new questions. In this way, teachers will know what is expected from the interview and may be more comfortable and willing to participate.

7. Would you consider this questionnaire as a CPD exercise?

Eight teachers said that this would be considered as a CPD exercise. One teacher was uncertain. Another commented that this would be a good CPD exercise especially before a citizenship development plan.

This response of this question means that when I approach schools to ask for their participation in the study, I can present my questionnaire (and the interview) as a

useful CPD activity. This will hopefully encourage head teachers and teachers to view it as a valuable activity rather than an extra activity that will waste their time.

APPENDIX 2: EMAIL REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION

Dear _____

My name is Shazia Akhtar and I am a supply teacher for _____Council and _____ Council. I am also an EdD student at the University of Strathclyde. I am in my final year and doing a thesis on the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of Scottish primary school teachers towards education for citizenship. This will involve asking teachers to complete a short questionnaire and participate in a follow up interview if they are willing to take part. I am writing to ask if you would be interested for your staff to take part in this research project. The research has been ethically approved by the University of Strathclyde Ethics Committee and (the name of the school's council). It has also been approved by other councils such as _____, _____, _____ and _____ Council.

I have attached a questionnaire information sheet and a sample questionnaire to let you know what the methods of data collection involves. I would be very grateful if you agreed to your staff participating in this research project. I am also aware that it is up to the staff to decide on whether or not they would be willing to take part. All teachers would have to do is complete the questionnaire electronically and email it back to me. It is very easy to complete and will only take 10 minutes to do. The follow up interviews (optional) would be carried out by phone. I would phone teachers at a time specified by them and conduct a 20 minute interview which would simply involve elaborating their responses to the questionnaire.

I carried out a pilot study in a Glasgow school with 11 teachers. The teachers involved took about 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire and said that they would consider it as a CPD activity.

Your schools' participation would be appreciated and very important for this study. Please feel free to email me or phone me on _____ and let me know your decision.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely
Shazia Akhtar

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE INFORMATION SHEET

Questionnaire Information Sheet for Participants

The Understanding, Perspectives and Attitudes of Scottish Primary School Teachers Towards Education for Citizenship

My name is Shazia Akhtar and I am in my final year of the EdD in Education at the University of Strathclyde, Jordanhill Campus. As a final year student undertaking a thesis, I am researching the understanding, perspectives and attitudes of teachers towards education for citizenship. The main methods that will be used to collect data for this study are questionnaire and interview.

The attached questionnaire asks primary school teachers about their knowledge, understanding and views about the concept of citizenship, the aims and implementation of education for citizenship in the Scottish curriculum.

The responses to the questions will be analysed to gain an insight into how citizenship and education for citizenship is perceived and understood by primary teachers. The names of individual participants and schools will not be identified in the thesis.

Your willingness to complete the questionnaire would be appreciated. Please note that your participation in the study is voluntary and you are not obliged to complete the questionnaire if you do not wish to do so.

At the end of the questionnaire, you are asked if you would be willing to take part in a follow up interview which will aim to gain a deeper insight into the issues identified in the questionnaire. Again, this is voluntary and you are not obliged to agree. Please refer to the following page for further information.

If you have any questions or concerns that you would like to discuss, then please feel free to contact me by:

Email: shazia.akhtar@strath.ac.uk

Phone: _____

Shazia Akhtar
EdD Final Year Student

APPENDIX 4: QUESTIONNAIRE

<u>The Understanding, Perspectives and Attitudes of Scottish Primary School Teachers Towards Education for Citizenship</u>

Please complete the following questions using a word processor. Please type your response for question 1 and delete as appropriate for questions 2 and 3.

1. What does the word 'citizenship' mean to you?

_____

2. Below is a list of 12 aims for education for citizenship as defined by certain curricular documents and literature.

Please rate the following aims for citizenship education in terms of their importance on a scale of 1 to 5, where:

1 = not at all important;
2 = not very important;
3 = fairly important;
4 = very important;
5 = absolutely essential.

Please <u>delete</u> the ratings as appropriate and <u>leave</u> the rating that applies to your opinion. Please do not highlight the ratings in any way.

_____

a) **Social and moral responsibility:** Children 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.   1   2   3   4   5

b) **Community involvement:** Pupils learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community.   1   2   3   4   5

c) **Political literacy:** Pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values.   1   2   3   4   5

d) **Political participation:** To develop pupils' ability and motivation to be involved with all levels of the political decision-making process, knowledge of rights and responsibilities and awareness of factors that affect decision-making.   1   2   3   4   5

e) **Economic participation:** To develop literacy, numeracy, ICT and other core skills required for employment.

1   2   3   4   5

f) **Social participation:** To prepare pupils to interact effectively with others in society and in their communities.

1   2   3   4   5

g) **Educational participation:** To prepare pupils to develop and practise lifelong learning through the various sectors of education such as further / higher education and community education.

1   2   3   4   5

h) **Cultural participation:** To enable pupils to participate in the arts, sports and leisure.

1   2   3   4   5

i) To develop **knowledge and understanding** of political, social, economic and cultural ideas and phenomena and strategies for extending and deepening such knowledge.

1   2   3   4   5

j) To develop **skills and competencies** such as self-esteem, confidence, initiative, determination and emotional maturity in order to be responsible and effective participants in a community and being prepared to take constructive and proactive approaches to issues and problems.

1   2   3   4   5

k) To develop **values and dispositions** such as the ability to recognise and respond thoughtfully to values and value judgements and to have a sense of social responsibility and fair-mindedness.

1   2   3   4   5

l) To develop **creativity and enterprise** citizenship which involves making thoughtful and imaginative decisions and being enterprising in one's approach to participation in society.

1   2   3   4   5

3. Below is a list of statements about education for citizenship. Please <u>delete</u> as appropriate and <u>leave</u> one word for each statement that best describes your opinion. Please do not highlight the words in any way.

a) Education for citizenship should have a high priority in the primary curriculum.

    strongly agree   agree   not certain   disagree   strongly disagree

b) I feel confident in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship.

    strongly agree   agree   not certain   disagree   strongly disagree

c) I feel confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom.

    strongly agree   agree   not certain   disagree   strongly disagree

d) I believe my knowledge, understanding and skills in teaching and promoting education for citizenship is:

    excellent   competent   satisfactory   unsatisfactory

    Excellent: Very well informed about the aims and learning outcomes for education for citizenship and able to devise and implement effective activities to promote it.

    Competent: Well informed about the aims and learning outcomes for education for citizenship and able to devise and implement appropriate activities to promote it.

    Satisfactory: I have sufficient knowledge about the aims, learning outcomes and activities to meet the minimum requirements of the curriculum guidelines for education for citizenship.

    Unsatisfactory: I have no or little knowledge of the aims, learning outcomes and activities of education for citizenship.

e) My school has provided adequate in-service training and / or CPD opportunities in education for citizenship.

    agree   disagree

Thankyou for completing this questionnaire. Your time and responses are appreciated very much.

Please type your name if you would be willing to participate in a follow-up phone interview with me in order to gain a deeper insight into the responses you have provided in the questionnaire. You are not obliged to do so but your willingness would be greatly appreciated.

Please also leave your contact details so that I can arrange a follow up phone interview. Your personal details will remain completely confidential and will NOT be included in the thesis in any form.

YES, I will be willing to participate in a follow up individual interview.

Type name:

Please choose how you would like to be contacted and complete the relevant details:

Mobile number:

Home number:

School number:

Personal email:

School email:

APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET

Participant Information Sheet for Follow-up Interviews

The Understanding, Perspectives and Attitudes of Scottish Primary School Teachers Towards Education for Citizenship

Interviewing will be another important method for data collection that will be used for the EdD thesis. The follow up interview will simply involve asking you to provide more detailed responses to section 3 of the questionnaire regarding your opinions about certain aspects of education for citizenship. Interviewing will allow you to provide me with a deeper insight into your understanding, perspectives and attitudes towards this area of the curriculum which the questionnaire is not sufficiently able to do.

The duration of the interview will be 15-20 minutes and will be conducted by phone, not face to face. Your agreement to an interview will be entirely voluntary and you can choose to withdraw at anytime without a given reason. However, your willingness to participate in an interview would be greatly appreciated and will make a significant contribution to the outcome of the study. If you do agree to an interview, you will be contacted initially to arrange a time for me to phone you at a time specified by you. The phone interview can be conducted either on a landline or a mobile number.

If you have any questions or concerns that you would like to discuss, then please feel free to contact me by:

Email: shazia.akhtar@strath.ac.uk

Phone: _____

Shazia Akhtar
EdD Final Year Student

APPENDIX 6: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Why do you agree / disagree that education for citizenship should have a high priority in the curriculum?

2. Do you think that education for citizenship is relevant to all subject areas and why? If not, then what areas is it relevant to and why?

3. Do you think education for citizenship should permeate the whole curriculum or should there be a specific time allocation to it in the school timetable?

4a. Why do / don't you feel confident in contributing to a whole school approach to education for citizenship?

4b. What aspect and activities would you refer to as whole school approaches?

5a. Why do / don't you feel confident in contributing to education for citizenship in the classroom?

5b. What aspect and activities would you refer to as classroom approaches?

6. **For participants that indicated 'excellent' or 'competent' in their questionnaire**

   What do you think makes your knowledge, understanding and skills in education for citizenship excellent / competent? Experience? Courses? Interest?

   For participants that indicated 'satisfactory' or 'unsatisfactory' in their questionnaire

   What knowledge, understanding and skills do you feel you need in order to increase your competence in education for citizenship?

7. **For participants that selected 'agree' in their questionnaire**

   What in-service training / CPD activities in education for citizenship has your school offered that has been beneficial to you? In what way do you think the activities / courses you've just specified were helpful?

   For participants that selected 'disagree' in their questionnaire

   What in-service training / CPD activities would you like your school to offer you in education for citizenship in order to develop your competence?