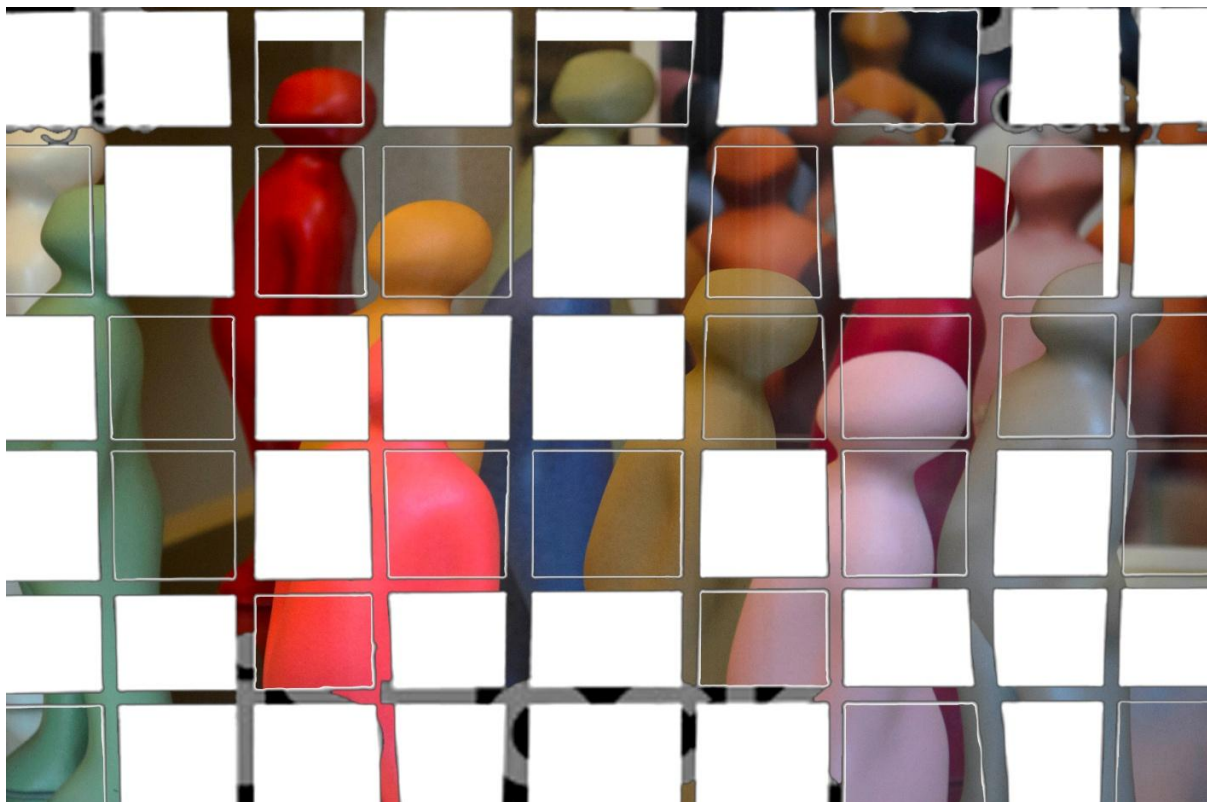


# **Citizenship Education in a diverse Europe: Guidelines for Teacher Educators**



**Children's Identity and Citizenship in Europe  
CiCe Jean Monnet Network, 2017**

# CONTENTS

## **SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION**

1a) The citizenship education guidelines

1b) The CiCe Jean Monnet Network

## **SECTION 2: GUIDELINES FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS**

Guideline 1: Curriculum design and delivery in teacher education:

Inclusion of citizenship education in pre- and in-service teacher education

Guideline 2: Inclusion of minorities in the education workforce

Guideline 3: Linking research and practice in citizenship education

## **SECTION 3: BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## **SECTION 4: AUTHORS and CONTRIBUTORS**

## **SECTION 5: ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

# SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION

## 1a) The Citizenship Education Guidelines

The contemporary world appears to be in a perpetual state of flux; changing continuously. Increasing globalization, the flow of goods, money, information and people across borders, is an important factor defining this change. Constant population mobility and the apparent collapse of the power of the nation-state and a commensurate retreat of the welfare state, affect changes in terms of both social composition and development. Add to this, concern over low levels of participation by young people in traditional democratic institutions, anxiety over rightwing and Islamic extremism and associated terrorist attacks, which help to inform an ongoing policy agenda in which the EU has advocated active citizenship and participatory democracy that take into account political, demographic and economic contexts.

Of particular focus in this guide are educational practices that aim to enhance capacity to participate in a plural European society. Europe's population is changing decisively which, in turn, necessitates and results in a transformation of Europe's educational processes. Although similar challenges are faced across Europe, there is no single European education system, and educational responses while reflecting European guidance (EU, Council of Europe) and policy, are determined at state level. Although Educational systems in the EU are increasingly responding to diversity,

encompassing students from different cultural, religious, linguistic and socioeconomic backgrounds, minority students still face barriers to fully accessing education and entry into the teaching profession. As a result, and in order to translate policy into practice, educational responses must seek ways of dealing with the challenges brought about by stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination, including at an institutional level. To help ensure equality of opportunity, fairness and social justice, as well as social cohesion, these diverse groups must be included in, and be able to actively contribute to the society in which they live.

To this effect this guide attempts to capture the importance of citizenship education in including all students, and especially minority students, in school and teacher education. It does so by examining both the challenges faced by European educational systems and examples of best practices, but notes that challenges and educational responses are reflected differently according to each country's social reality.

## **1b) The CiCe Jean Monnet Network**

The CiCe Jean Monnet Network (2014-17) has been funded by the European Commission as part of the Erasmus+ programme. Jean Monnet Networks foster the creation and development of consortia of international players in the area of European Union studies in order to gather information, exchange practices, build knowledge and promote the European integration process across the world.

The CiCe Jean Monnet Network is a consortium of universities with interest in how and what people learn about their society, a partnership that grew

out of the CiCe Erasmus Academic Network, which had been in existence in various forms since 1998 with the support of the European Commission. Closely related to the Network is the CiCe Association, an independent body of individuals and institutions with academic and practical focus on citizenship education and identity formation in young people in Europe and the world.

The CiCe Jean Monnet network links 25 institutions in network from 17 states that are involved in training education professionals (teachers, social pedagogues, early childhood workers, youth workers etc) and concerned with citizenship education and the development of identities in young people.

Partners involved in the Network:

London Metropolitan University, UK (Coordinating university)

VIVES – Catholic University College, Belgium

Charles University in Prague, Faculty of Education, CZ

University of Tartu, Estonia

University of Helsinki, Finland

Ss Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, FYROM

University of Augsburg, Germany

University of the Peloponnes, Greece

University of Patras, Greece

Eötvös Loránd University, Hungary

Latvian University, Latvia

Rezekne Higher Education Institution, Latvia

Riga Teacher Training and Educational Management Academy, Latvia

Mykolas Romeris University, Lithuania

University of Warmia and Mazury, Poland

Instituto Superior de Educação e Ciências, Portugal

Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra, Escola Superior de Educação, Portugal

West University of Timișoara, Romania

Universidad Autónoma de Madrid., Spain

Malmo University, Sweden

University of the West of Scotland, UK

University of the West of England, UK

University of Huddersfield, UK

University of York, UK

Università Roma Tre, Italy

# SECTION 2: GUIDELINES

## Guideline 1

### **Curriculum design and delivery: Citizenship education in pre- and in-service teacher education**

It is well known that ‘teachers matter’, since teaching quality has a crucial role in students’ development and achievement. Parallel to this, initial teacher education (ITE) and in-service teacher education (ISTE) also have a crucial role, as they have impact on the quality of teachers’ professional development. Therefore, the ways ITE and/or ISTE programmes are designed are key factors in the quality of education.

Teacher education programmes are connected to the structural/systemic aspects of education, to the content of education at each level and in each type of education, and are also closely related to the expectations of educational policy makers, parents, students, teachers, and other stakeholders. Furthermore, the traditions of teaching school subjects also have strong impact on the way ITE and ISTE programmes are designed.

Naturally, this is the same with citizenship education. However, citizenship education is both an old subject, and paradoxically, one of the latest arrivals to education. Because of this, teacher education programmes have inner inconsistencies and contradictions, and the same is true if we compare institutional and national teacher education programme

## **A brief history of citizenship education and its implications for citizenship teacher education**

Citizenship is not a new concept, rather it is one of the oldest domains of human culture, and many of the strategies used to pass on knowledge, skills and understanding to the next generations are equally old.

The oldest religious and philosophical systems closely connected to ideologies of citizenship. Some early philosophers – like Confucius in ancient China, Plato, Aristotle in Greece, Quintilian in ancient Rome and others - were concerned with the core issues of citizenship of their time. Also, they conceptualized how to teach members of the next generations to become good citizens. However, “teaching” meant mainly “socializing” children at home in the family; it was only the wealthy that could employ tutors, who literally “taught” citizenship to their private students (Heater, 2002).

Later, in feudal times, there existed a kind of loyalty education - loyalty to the land, to the landlord, to the king and mainly and mostly loyalty to the church and to God. Within this, for the elite “citizenship education” there was “leadership education” to prepare future leaders of society. However, these approaches were far from the concept of citizenship education of our era, since critical aspects and the concept of democracy and active citizenship were missing.

A significant development of citizenship education and citizenship education in teacher education, started with the 17-18th century in Western countries, in the age of revolutions. This was the time and place in which citizenship education could become meaningful and important for wider groups in society. It had a number of social prerequisites, including:



- The starting formal mass schooling;
- An emerging and developing Enlightenment philosophy;
- Evolving trends of modernity. (Heater, 2002)

With mass education professionally prepared teachers were needed. Schooling became the main form of mass education, and was deeply influenced by two significant factors. Firstly, mass education systems emerged as *national education systems*; Secondly, *subject education* became the main approach in distilling knowledge. Moreover, from the late 19th, previous characteristics of citizenship education were challenged by developments in human societies, such as: globalization; the changing role of the nation state; the spreading of liberal democracies with human rights, with concepts of free choice and individual identity coming to the fore. In addition, new child-centred pedagogies, the digital revolution and other developments have also influenced teaching and learning in school and teacher education programmes.

From the brief outline above we can glean that citizenship is a broad and fluid concept giving rise to challenges, ambiguities and inconsistencies in citizenship education and citizenship teacher education. However, from the starting periods of formal teacher education, the role of the teacher was conceptualized as including:

- developing subjects in schools
- educating citizenship as a subject
- educating good, collaborating, loyal citizens for the nation state.

Up to the present it can be questioned if *citizenship* could ever become a well-shaped and clearly organized *school-subject*. Research shows that in our time citizenship is taught in many different ways in different educational systems on different levels of education in different types of educational institutions (Kerr 2000, Banks 2001, Davies 2005, Nelson & Kerr 2006, Cappelle, Crippin & Lundgren, 2010). Citizenship education is organised differently in different states of Europe, in some it is a curriculum subject while in others it is a cross-curricula theme. Necessarily, citizenship teacher education programmes reflect this organisation and this raises a number of challenges:

- If citizenship is a separate subject then *teachers of citizenship education* must be prepared in a given subject-teacher-education track, as with other subjects such as mathematics or music. However, in many countries the subject of Citizenship is taught by teachers trained in other subjects - history, geography, literature etc, with teachers trained in *some* practices, theories and methods in citizenship education only.
- Similarly, if it is not a separate but a kind of *cross-curricula* subject and it must be taught by all teachers in all levels and types of education, then citizenship as a topic and citizenship education as a set of knowledge content and methods should be taught for all future teachers and these sets of knowledge must be offered by ISTE programme as well. However, citizenship education may have low priority and may not feature highly in ITE and ISTE programmes.
- Related to the points above is uncertainty over which domain citizenship and therefore citizenship education and citizenship

teacher education is built on. Is it law, ethics, finance, economy, philosophy, religion, history? As these are knowledge fields most often taught as separate subjects in formal educational institutions then there may be difficulties associated with how citizenship education fits with these. It is a very difficult question in curricula design, what and how deeply to teach for example in ethics in citizenship education, if there is an overlapping subject that teaches this topic directly and separately, then how to prepare students in ITE and ISTE is equally problematic.

- Further, related to how citizenship is included in the curriculum and how teachers are trained in citizenship education are challenges associated with continuity and student progression within the subject. There is danger of unsystematic planning and inconsistency in ITE or ISTE provision across age-phases.
- Further complication comes when ITE and ISTE programmes are regulated by government agencies outside the university. Where students must meet professional standards set by these agencies, it can be a difficult task for the university curriculum designers to incorporate citizenship education into degree programmes with different quality assurance parameters.
- Moreover, because Citizenship education involves broad concepts including critical thinking, and interaction with others in democratic responsible ways, and encourages learning through active citizenship, it does not always fit with traditional pedagogic practices in school education.

- Since traditional civics education often had primary focus on the nation state (in some ways educating the next generation to be loyal to the nation) there may be tension in citizenship teacher education with regard to how and how much teachers must be prepared for teaching global, cosmopolitan, and critical citizenship.
- One of the most difficult challenge to citizenship education and citizenship teacher education designers how to reach a balance between theoretical *knowledge* of citizenship, and the active, *acting* part of citizenship education. Certain teacher education programmes give students opportunity to act as citizens in real-life social situations. However, these activities do not necessarily fit with the policy of a given university.
- The emergence of democratic citizenship and education for democratic citizenship may also lead to tensions in curriculum design, for example if the curriculum and practice should encourage socialisation into a particular set of values, or if it should encourage a critical engagement with these values.
- Further, active citizenship education will necessarily need to prepare teachers to handle controversial issues that arise in the classroom. Without specialist training teachers (and teacher educators) may be tempted to fall back on 'safe' teaching about citizenship as in previous civics models. However, in citizenship ITE and ISTE programmes future and practicing teachers must learn *about* citizenship – the legal background, its historical, political cultural realities etc; - as well as be involved *in* citizenship to do it actively, to act as

active agents in society. Citizenship education has this socializing role in ITE and ISTE as well, and this is why the practice, the doing part must be such an integrated part of all ITE and ISTE citizenship education curricula.

The following sections present some case studies of citizenship education in teacher education in order to show some practice on the ground.

## **Citizenship education in teacher education in Estonia**

Citizenship education is a part of national curricula in Estonia and it is delivered in schools through three approaches: as a compulsory separate subject in basic and upper secondary school level; as integrated part of another subject (personal, social and health education) in primary level and also as a cross-curricular dimension through all educational levels.

At primary school level (grades 1-3), topics related to citizenship education are integrated into a personal, social and health education subject groups, whose general objective is to introduce society as a form of human life organisation and living environment. At basic school level (grades 4-9), citizenship is taught during two subjects as a specific subject-related content, it also incorporates knowledge, attitudes and skills acquired through other subjects (mainly history, personal, social and health education, geography, biology and literature) and overviews of what has already been taught at primary school level. At upper secondary school level (gymnasium), at which citizenship is taught in two compulsory subjects, pupils are taught to understand the modern world as a whole and

the political, social, economic and other processes which are part of life in society and shape it. Topics related to citizenship education are also included in the subjects of history, geography, biology and personal, social and health education through all levels of school curriculum (National Curriculum for Basic Schools, 2011; National Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools, 2011).

All Estonian teachers have to undergo higher education in which they specialise in their chosen subject(s) and are trained specifically for their profession. Each teacher must attend in-service training courses. In-service training is organised by two public universities (University of Tartu and Tallinn University), several training centres and subject associations.

In Estonia, however, there are no teachers of citizenship with a fully specialised university education in this field. Instead, they have mostly graduated in history with a specialisation in citizenship education to teach students in basic and upper secondary schools as compulsory separate subjects of citizenship. At primary school level, aspects of citizenship are taught mainly by general teachers whereas, at secondary and upper secondary school level, citizenship education is the preserve of those who have specialized, though not necessarily in citizenship itself. In fact, there is no an initial teacher education programme focusing specifically on citizenship education, but the topic is most commonly covered by teachers who have specialized in history or personal, social and health education curriculum. Thus, there are special initial teacher education programmes for citizenship education in Estonia integrated mainly with history and/or personal, social and health education curriculum studies and student teachers may acquire a specialist qualification in this area.

Also, the minimum qualification requirements for all those who have completed initial teacher education, whether they are intending to work in primary, basic or upper secondary school, include aspects of citizenship education (Citizenship Education at school in Europe, 2012).

## **Education for Global Responsibility: a case from the Czech Republic**

A new subject Education for Global Responsibility was included to the study programme teaching at Primary School in the academic year 2015/2016. Its aim is to provide student teachers with food for thought which will hopefully help them decide voluntarily, responsibly and competently to bring and include important topics of global citizenship education systematically to their future teaching at primary school. Moreover, they will be able to choose effective procedures and support pupils during their active discovery of important phenomena, connections and relations concerning active and responsible life in the connected world.

The authors of the study programme worked on the presumption that global education should pervade various educational subjects. The core of the subject consist mainly of discussing activities which enable students to discuss important global issues from the point of a citizen, share their views on them and deepen their knowledge which is related to global issues. The second pillar of the course is experiential learning. The students will “live out” lessons made for pupils of primary schools within the course and will reflect their experiences from the point of a future teacher afterwards.

In their thematic report on Education in Global and Developing Topics at Primary and Secondary Schools (2016, available at: [http://www.csicr.cz/html/TZ\\_globalni\\_rozvoj\\_temata/flipviewerxpress.html](http://www.csicr.cz/html/TZ_globalni_rozvoj_temata/flipviewerxpress.html)), The Czech School Inspectorate states that a relatively high part of Czech schools include global issues in their school education programme. According to the inspectional report, various kinds of methods and education forms are included to the education of global issues. A wide range of various aids and materials is used in the teaching of global issues. It was also discovered that Czech schools put more emphasis on environmental/ecological topics in comparison with other topics. Furthermore, stimulating participating methods, that place higher demands on pupils own initiative, are used only in a small part of schools. It is also known from the report that only 35.8% of primary school teachers and 44% of secondary school teachers were involved in further education of this area in the school year 2014/2015.

The subject tries to respond to these findings, therefore it:

- places emphasis not only on the environmental issues but also on other global and developing topics;
- devotes larger extent to the topics that are related to the interconnection of the world, topical issues and development issues and connect global and developing topics with local dimension;
- uses stimulating methods and education forms in larger extent;
- motivates the students of teaching profession to participate in projects or programmes (e.g. service learning projects) by external subjects.



In the media but also in their everyday life, children and young people meet the issues of poverty, armed conflicts, terrorists' attacks, natural disasters and other facts that arise from them more often. In today's globalized world, it cannot be claimed that these issues are distant and that they are not concerning us. Research (e.g. Claire, 2007) points to the fact that individuals of different ages, including the youngest, experience other people's problems very sensitively. Therefore they need to understand them better, analyse them in a relatively safe environment and share their worries.

It is very important to fulfil their needs in the environment of formal education since the needs cannot be and are not often satisfied in the family for various reasons. Pretending that these problems do not exist and therefore do not concern us is not the solution. It is important to talk about the problems with the pupils. An instant respond to urgent challenges that pupils know from media, conversations of adult family members, etc. seems to be the most natural way. Apart from reacting to topical issues in the world and the Czech Republic, it is also desirable to plan lessons devoted to some of the problems beforehand.

Global citizenship education supports creation of values and attitudes in a way that people are able and willing to participate actively in solving local and global problems. Global development education aims to accept responsibility for creating a world where everyone has the possibility to lead a dignified life. The interest of the society is raising people who will make an effort to ensure dignified life for all individuals in the world and accept democratic principles at the same time.

Concept of citizenship is changing. It is necessary to react on other forms of civic engagement, the rise in populism in politics and media, the growing

influence of the richest people on political decisions, being aware of reliance of other people who live in various places of the world, the loss of cultural identity of numerous young Europeans, etc. It is necessary to predefine the concept of citizenship towards the global responsibility. (Birzea, 2000)

The requirement to develop real understanding of global topics which besides other things requires understanding of related economical, social, political, environmental and cultural processes also places high demands on the teacher. Besides this, the teachers have to step out of the “guarantor of truth” position and they have to become not only facilitators of their pupils’ learning but also of their own, which is of course much more demanding. The course tries to do both – provide students with some of the content knowledge and let them experience the way how to form their pupils through the agency of indirect methods of teaching at the same time.

A teacher can introduce themselves and their pupils to the issues of global citizenship via various discussion methods in which pupils share their opinions, learn to view things differently and gain new information. Besides this, the motivation to think about problems and get information to it should be rising. Such discussion activities can “start” their thinking and bring about changes in their behaviour in everyday non-school life. The course tries to make the students of teaching start thinking differently and it also strives to make them be willing and able to apply these approaches in their future teaching practice.

## **Global Citizenship Education in Portugal**

A group of educators from preschool to high school and two NGOs, CIDAC and Fundação Gonçalo da Silveira, jointly created a Network on Global Citizenship Education (GCE), after 6 years of Development Education intervention in the formal education system. The network describes its mission as “connecting and motivating different actors in schools for practices and dissemination of knowledge on Global Citizenship Education”. Its goals were defined as follows: to facilitate access to materials and information and exchange on GCE among educators working within the school context; to provide opportunities for sharing, reflection and peer training on GCE; to support the educators and the schools in the understanding and construction of responses to the challenges of today’s society, from the perspective of GCE. The GCE Network, an informal structure, started in October 2013. The basis of its activity is the local dynamics that respond to the needs, strengths and challenges of particular contexts, in their relation to global contexts.

As the Maastricht Declaration on Global Education in Europe (2002) stated, *“Global Education is education that opens people’s eyes and minds to the realities of the world, and awakens them to bring about a world of greater justice, equity and human rights for all. GE is understood to encompass Development Education, Human Rights Education, Education for Sustainability, Education for Peace and Conflict Prevention and Intercultural Education; being the global dimensions of Education for Citizenship”*.

Portugal over recent years has been going through an ongoing period of serious economic challenges and has seen significant cuts in public spending. At the same time, in spite of these challenging realities, the country has also made progress towards strengthening Global Education and Development Education; namely, the adoption of the National Strategy for Development Education in 2009 – ENED – was an important in order to

strengthen both Global Education and Development Education at a national level. There are a number of key institutions involved in supporting and facilitating Global Citizenship Education and Development Education in Portugal.

The Portuguese NGDO Platform is the coordinating body for Development NGOs in Portugal. It represents a group of 65 NGDOs that are registered with the Portuguese Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It brings together a variety of NGOs, large and small, working in the areas of emergency humanitarian assistance, long-term development and Development Education. The platform also works closely with broader civil society movements that have a remit in regard to development in particular sectors. Established in 1985, it both represents and supports the Portuguese NGDOs, and aims to contribute to the involvement of civil society in Development Cooperation (GENE, 2014:28). Some of them, as is the case of Aidglobal, are also heavily involved in Global Citizenship Education, both at formal and informal levels.

After a voluntary experience at an orphanage in Mozambique in 2005, Susana Damasceno, an author of this chapter, was inspired to found Aidglobal, an NGO that educates for a more just and sustainable world. Aidglobal also promotes a global citizenship by engaging and educating people in Global Development issues in Portugal. Its aims are to identify, design and implement strategies and actions towards access to education. To this end it has been promoting activities with teachers and students from different schools through the “Educate to Cooperate” project, which has engaged so far over 3400 students in 17 learning institutions. The work has since its foundation, had focus on the fight against illiteracy, executing projects and initiatives always in partnership with local authorities.

The specific goals of the project are to educate and train teachers/educators on themes concerning Global Citizenship Education and Development Education; to make pedagogical and methodological resources and materials available for teachers/educators and trainers; to cooperate with the teachers/educators, in order to sensitize them; to sensitize students and make them aware of different issues related to the world, particularly concerning inequalities and interdependences, through non-formal methodologies; to promote the integration of Development Education themes into school curricula. The Target group are Teachers of the 2nd and 3rd cycle of the national school system and its students. It is open - as partners - to all Schools, Teachers Training Centres and others.

Aidglobal, together with other partners in Portugal, Germany and Romania [DEAB, EPiZ, finep, Instituto Marquês de Valle Flôr, Ministry of State Baden-Württemberg, Camões – Instituto da Cooperação e da Língua], has developed a manual for global education: “Global How?” The manual is strongly based on the project partners’ expertise in training facilitators as well as their experience from conducting test training courses in three different European countries. Another trainers’ Manual is the “Handbook of Education for Global Citizenship that provides a set of schedules of classes designed to integrate the issues of education for Global Citizenship (ECG) in the contents of the school curriculum. It’s goal is to foster integration of ECG practices in the national curriculum of basic education, particularly in the second cycle, by providing lesson planning to teachers and other educational agents.

In the “Educating to Cooperate” project, teachers drafted and implemented lessons on topics across the curriculum that integrated ECG subject areas. The lessons sought to value activities promoting active participation, collaborative work, critical thinking, problem solving, decision making;

Participatory strategies as debate and reflection on group, role play, questionnaires, rain of ideas etc.

## **Students' voice: University students' views about citizenship issues in the teacher training**

Naturally, student teachers' and teachers' expectations about ITE and ISTE citizenship education and their experiences on this education is a crucial aspect again. Still, in this particular field of education, in which university students and practicing teachers are motivated to be active and constructively critical with their social environment, it has a special importance to activate them in the design of their own education programme and to activate them to do it by a critical-constructive approach. Also, since many cases educational researchers and ITE and ISTE curricula designers miss students' (future or practicing teachers') opinion on citizenship education, it is an obvious choice to ask them about these issues. Therefore the *students' voice* type research became particularly popular in this field of education. We carried out a preliminary qualitative research on these issues among Estonia, Portugal and the Czech Republic. In the next part we introduce some parts of this research.

### ***Aim and research questions***

The purpose of the present preliminary descriptive study was to get a better grasp of university students' understanding of citizenship issues in the teacher education.

Three research questions were evoked:

- (1) What is the impact of teacher training to students as citizens?
- (2) What are the core courses about citizenship education in the teacher training curriculum?
- (3) What are the suggestions to develop the teacher training curriculum in the area of citizenship education at the university?

### ***Methodology***

Four randomly selected samples from three universities were selected: Estonian (N=15; M= 24.4 years old) students studying at Social Science Educational Programme; Czech students studying at Civic Education Programme (N=15; M= 25.2 years old); Czech students studying at Primary Education Programme (N=15; M=23.3) years old; and Portuguese students (N=22; M=24.9 years) studying at Basic Education Programme, whereby all the programmes were teacher training master's degree curriculums.

### ***Research instrument***

Questionnaire consists of the open-ended questions in three areas:

- (1) Impact of teacher training on the students as a citizen (Do you think your university training as a teacher had an impact on your citizenship knowledge, skills and attitudes? How?)
- (2) Opinions regarding to citizenship education courses in the curriculum (Do you find it important to have special courses(s) about citizenship included in your teacher training curriculum? If so, what kind of courses? Why? If not, why?)

(3) Suggestions regarding citizenship education in teacher education (Imagine that you were asked to be an adviser for a teacher training programme. Such programme should work well as citizenship education commitment. What would be your top five recommendations?).

Quantitative content analysis was used to categorize each open-end question answers.

## ***Results***

Impact of university teacher training to students' citizenship knowledge, skills and attitudes

Quantitative content analysis of the open-ended question about the impact of university teacher training to the students' citizenship knowledge, skills and attitudes revealed several categories:

(1) University curricula courses and curricula units about citizenship education included politics, human rights, laws, identity and human development, non-profit organisations, multiculturalism, cultural differences etc.

(2) Citizenship educations in schools – courses and curriculum content in the area of citizenship education at school;

(3) General academic skills and competences in the area of research and reading/analyzing scientific literature;

(4) Teaching methodology – use of active learning methods in the classroom;

(5) Development of attitudes like equality, tolerance, acceptance of different cultures, minorities, marginalized and excluded people;



(6) Teaching of social skills - life skills, communication skills, empathy and pro-social behaviour.

The analyze of open-ended question answers of students revealed that the impact of university teacher training to students' citizenship knowledge's were connected with two areas: courses and content of curricula of citizenship education at university and content of curricula of citizenship education at basic school level, whereby the last area of knowledge's tended to be more dominant among Czech university students. Also, university students recognized that citizenship education courses during their teacher training developed their research competencies as a part of their general academic competence.

The other domain of teacher training that influences four study-group university students as citizens was connected with development of their methodological/didactic competence in two areas – general didactics and more concrete area – teaching of social skills, whereby the last area was more emphasised among Estonian and Portuguese students.

University students recognized relative rarely, compared with recognition of knowledge's and skills, that the impact of teacher training to their attitudes – mainly towards diversity and equality, whereby Estonian and Portuguese students tended to evaluate this aspect more frequently than Czechs.

### ***Core courses about citizenship education in the teacher-training curriculum***

Based on the categorization of the student's answers regarding to citizenship education courses in the teacher training curriculum three

groups of categories revealed, which were connected with the main issues and/or disciplines: personal level (identity and personal development, personal identity in the society, personal values in the society, personal problems connected with identity development; group and institutional level (group processes and social psychology, integration and inclusion of pupils into class and school, social institutions and their functioning; and society level (multicultural society, political science, sociology, history, law, ethics etc; Also there was a branch of courses connected the methodology – for example, didactics of civic education, didactics of history, didactic of teaching social and emotional skills for students.

Research results showed that methodological courses and courses in society level were the most important courses about citizenship education in the teacher training curriculum for three study samples of university students with relatively less importance of courses dealing with group behaviour issues and different institutions, whereby Estonians tended to evaluate highly courses connected with personal issues compared with Czech students' evaluations.

### ***Suggestions for development of teacher training curriculum in the area of citizenship education***

The results of the quantitative content analysis about students' suggestions for development of teacher training curriculum in the area of citizenship education revealed six categories:

(1) Basic knowledge's in citizenship education of local, national and global issues including political, sociology, psychology, pedagogy, ethics, media etc., perspectives;

- (2) Methodological competencies based on the practical experiences and learning-by-doing;
- (3) Methodological competencies based on teaching and using active teaching methods including dialogue, brainstorming, role play, group work, planned game etc;
- (4) Knowledge's and skills about personal, social and health education;
- (5) Methodological competencies in the area of developing positive climate at the classroom with attention to students' attitudes and beliefs;
- (6) General academic competencies like critical thinking, analyzing, problem analyze, etc.

Study results showed that students' suggestions for the development of citizenship education curriculum in the teacher education were not only connected with competences to have the core knowledge and understanding about local, national and global citizenship issues, but also with having knowledge and skills in the area personal, social and health education, whereby the last aspect tended to be more prevalent among Estonian and Portuguese students compared with Czechs.

Most important area regarding to citizenship education in teacher education studies for all four study-group students was connected with development of their methodological competences in three areas: teaching strategies and methods connected with active teaching methods, practice-based teaching strategies and methods, and teaching strategies for fostering positive learning climate in the classroom. Thus, future teachers were eager to have a teacher training curriculum in the area of citizenship education where empathies are put to promote to active, participatory

teaching approaches associated with child-centred and attitude-based teaching.

Additionally, students' self-reported involvement in three roles during teacher training - as a teacher, as a citizen, and as a student, was analysed in the present research. The three study-group teacher-training students' opinions about the importance of the three roles (teacher, student, and citizen) in the six-point Likert scale (1 – completely not involved to 6 – completely involved). From the analysis of the data it was revealed that university students perceived themselves mostly as being in the position of teacher (M=5.01), then as student (M=4.68) and lastly they accepted the role of citizen (M=4.30). University students' role perception among study-groups tended to differ in two areas: Portuguese teachers and Czech primary education teacher tended to evaluate more their university students' roles compared with other study groups; and Estonian and Portuguese teachers accepted more their citizen roles compared with others.

### ***Conclusion***

The results showed university students' awareness of citizenship education in their teacher training curriculum studies and its impact to their citizenship knowledge, skills and attitudes with more emphasises on their knowledge's about citizenship and less to the attitudes. In comparison with other teaching competences, the dimension of acquiring knowledge about citizenship education was not so prominently evaluated and more emphasises were given to the dimension of how to teach citizenship education and promote active, participatory and attitude-based teaching approaches. Furthermore, university students' understanding of

citizenship knowledge, skills and attitudes cannot be considered separately from their development of citizenship-as-practice approach, reflecting the broad concept of citizenship.

Teacher training university students' views about their roles underline more their position as a teacher and a student and less as a citizen reflecting their present status. Students' views about their present teacher education curriculum studies in the area of citizenship education were dominantly connected with acquiring citizenship knowledge's - mainly in society level, but lesser sphere included the development of teaching competence, reflecting more narrow focus on citizenship. Thus, it is important that broad issues about citizenship education are strongly advocated through teacher education with challenges to have a curriculum context for development of university students' - as future teachers, own citizenship identity. Democratic global citizenship education has a big importance in the future generations' development and therefore its presence in schooling has an evident and eminent role. Therefore, citizenship education is a must both in schooling and in ITE and ISTE programmes.

## **Some Conclusions**

Education for Citizenship is an area with many problems to overcome in educational sciences. There are gaps that have not been sufficiently explored in the domain of this essential and transversal curricular area to the diversity of study cycles and disciplines, as well as lacunae between the prescribed curriculum and practices (Serrão, 2014).

This investigation contributed to a better understanding and knowledge of the teaching of Education for citizenship, teachers' training needs and difficulties in the implementation of this curricular area and it was focused on how students evaluate the teaching and learning processes, together with their suggestions in order to improve them. It also contributed to know the influence of Citizenship Education and its impacts on the students. The data were treated and analysed through a mixed process, quantitatively and qualitatively. Pedagogical practices of teachers were identified. The research results indicated the need of mobilizing projects for the teaching professionals to accomplish their functions with efficacy and motivation. Teaching professional practice is embedded in a continuous improvement process. In this sense, this investigation constitutes a base in order to create a referential framework for training of teachers (Serrão, 2014).

The results of the quantitative and qualitative content analysis about students' suggestions for development of teacher training curriculum in the area of citizenship education revealed six categories: (1) basic knowledge's in citizenship education of local, national and global issues including politology, sociology, psychology, pedagogy, ethics, media etc.; (2) methodological competencies based on the practical experiences and learning-by-doing; (3) methodological competencies based on teaching and using active teaching methods including dialogue, brainstorming, role play, group work, planned game, etc.; (4) knowledge's and skills about personal, social and health education; (5) methodological competencies in the area of developing positive climate at the classroom with attention to students' attitudes and beliefs; and (6) general academic competencies like critical thinking, problems analysing, etc. Study results showed that students' suggestions for the development of citizenship education curriculum in the

teacher education were not only connected with competences to have the core knowledge and understanding about local, national and global citizenship issues, but also with having knowledge and skills in the area personal, social and health education. The most important area regarding citizenship education in teacher education studies for all students was connected with development of their methodological competences in three areas: teaching strategies and methods connected with active teaching methods, practice-based teaching strategies and methods, and teaching strategies for fostering positive learning climate in the classroom. Thus, future teachers were eager to have a teacher training curriculum in the area of citizenship education where empathies are put to promote active, participatory teaching approaches associated with child-centred and attitude-based teaching, as also literature confirms (Chistolini et al., 2014).

# Guideline 2: Inclusion of minorities in the education workforce

A recent European Commission study on diversity within the teaching found that:

“..... teachers and students with a migrant background in initial teacher education are generally under-represented compared to the actual diversity of the learners”. (European Commission, 2015)

The Report emphasises that data on the diversity of the teacher workforce is limited and inconsistent with ‘lack of data.....most frequently explained by data protection concerns [and that] where data does exist, it is often not directly comparable due to major differences in the indicators used to define a migrant/minority background (e.g. place of (parents’) birth, citizenship, first language, etc.), as well as the absence of any comparative EU-level data source’. Indeed the Report goes on to make recommendations to improve the evidence base, including:

- The collection of data on teacher diversity to inform evidence-based policy making should be strengthened considerably, taking into account data protection concerns in many Member States.
- In order to be useful, data collected should clearly distinguish between: first and second/third generation migrants; migrants as opposed to national minorities; different minority groups (as



relevant); and, migrants from within the EU and from outside of the EU.

Nevertheless, the main finding that teachers with a migrant background are underrepresented in the workforce is congruent with other findings. A position paper published by the SIRIUS European Policy Network on the education of children and young people with a migrant background (a network with which CiCe has been closely associated as a Collaborative Partner) highlights ‘.....the mismatch in by far most schools in Europe between, on one side, the rapidly increasing social, cultural and linguistic diversity in the classrooms and, on the other side, prevailing social, cultural and linguistic homogeneity of the respective teacher force’.(Sirius, 2014) As Van Driel *et al* (2016) conclude: ‘In European countries teachers tend to be white, monolingual, middle class and female, while the student population is increasingly diverse’ (Van Driel et al, 2016:64)

This mismatch between the workforce and the student population echoes findings from the USA (see for example, *The State of Teacher Diversity in American Education*, 2015; Ryan et al, 2007; Cho, 2010; Howard, 2010) where teachers’ professional background and the diversity of the represented cultures does not correspond to the broad diversity of learners in educational institutions. In 2014, ‘for the first time in U.S. public schools, the percentage of Hispanic, African American, Asian, and other students of colour exceeded the percentage of white students ..... [i]n stark contrast, an overwhelming number of their teachers—84 percent — are white’ (Hrabowski and Sanders 2015). Based on such research findings several countries, e.g., USA, Canada and Australia have developed regulations that emphasize the necessity to employ teachers from the minority groups.

Within Europe, the European Commission's report (European Commission, 2015) makes assessment on relative levels of disparity between the diversity of learners and the diversity of in-service and pre-service teachers in different countries. The level of disparity is classified as: 'low' where the share of teachers with migrant/minority background is more than two-thirds of the share of learners with a migrant/minority background; as 'medium' where it is between two-thirds and half of the share of learners with a migrant/minority background; and, as 'high' where it is less than half of the share of learners with a migrant/minority background'. Detail is provided in the tables below, but in summary:

- Three groups of countries emerge:
  - Countries with a high level of disparity between the diversity of the teaching workforce and the diversity of learners: Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and the United Kingdom;
  - Countries with a medium level of disparity between the diversity of the teaching workforce and the diversity of learners: Estonia (for migrant background), Netherlands, Slovenia and Spain;
  - Countries with a low level of disparity between the diversity of teaching workforce and the diversity of learners: Estonia (for minority background) Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia and Romania.
- Comparison between the diversity of students in initial teacher education (ITE) and learners as regards migrant/minority origin shows an overall lower level of disparities.

However, the report suggests that there may be some impact of the timing of migration. Countries with relatively more recent inflows of migrants, such as Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy and Portugal, may not have yet 'caught up' regarding the composition of their teaching workforce; whereas countries with a longer history of inward migration, such as the Netherlands, may have benefited from a longer period to foster increased teacher diversity. However, patterns are not fully consistent and the medium levels of disparities in Estonia, Slovenia and Spain or the high level of disparities in the United Kingdom cannot necessarily be explained through the varying timings of migrant inflows.

The report also notes that several Central and Eastern European Member States collect data on the diversity of their learners and the teaching workforce with regards to minority background, reflecting the relatively larger importance of minority populations as compared to migrant populations in these countries' and concludes '..... that disparities ..... with regards to minority background are much smaller than disparities relating to migrant background' arguing that 'this situation may be explained by a long tradition of the existence of minority groups in these countries, who are often schooled in specialised minority schools with their native language as language of instruction.

## **The need for proportional representation of minority groups in the education workforce.**

The need for proportional representation in the teaching workforce has been argued by a number of authors from different positions in relation to

societal values; social cohesion; intercultural understanding; the need for positive role models; and, students' academic achievement. A European Commission report (Van Driel et al, 2016) recommends:

'Member States should adopt measures to attract more representatives from minority communities to the teaching profession and provide support to retrain such teachers'.

Cunningham (2006) argues that as schooling is a formative social process and teachers are entrusted with many responsibilities, then who is, or is not, given such responsibility sends significant messages to children and the wider society as to who is valued in society and the kind of society that is promoted. This is particularly significant at a time of current EU initiatives that seek to actively promote European values. Van Driel et al (2016) cite growing ethnic and religious diversity in Europe alongside recent studies that show intolerance and social exclusion are increasing, with some migrant groups feeling alienated. They argue that education plays a vital role in the political socialisation of European citizens from cradle to grave, and that increasing the diversity of the teaching workforce is important to this (Van Driel et al, 2016). In similar vein Ross (2012) argues that the teaching force should be representative of the population, not simply because that this is right and equitable, nor because it may help minority ethnic pupils learn better, but because it will help all our pupils understand and appreciate diversity if they are taught by a diverse group. He presents the following points to suggest why this is important, stressing that most of these arise from some particular characteristics of the nature of education, and the way in which learning in schools is organised.

- The processes of learning convey a wealth of meanings to young people at an impressionable and formative period in their lives: who conducts this process is an important part of the process.
- Learning is a social process: it takes place in the interactions between teacher and learner, and learner and learner. The people who are given the role of a teacher play a critical part in determining the social relationships under which learning occurs. Teachers are put, very prominently, in a position of authority, trust and power. Who teaches is thus critical for the learning process (and is as critical, in its own way, as who learns). Designating a person as a teacher is not undertaken lightly by any society, and important messages – to society and parents, and above all to children – are conveyed in deciding who shall be given the accolade of teacher.
- Learning is undertaken by all children/young people. Most of our other social provisions are used in an episodic and accidental manner.
- Learning is conducted over a long period of time. Disregarding notions of life-long learning, it is a process that we require all our young people to undergo for a period of at least eleven years in most European countries.

Beyond this, evidence suggests that business in general can benefit from diversity in the workforce provided they offer conditions to realise the potentiality of diversity (Council of Europe 2015). Diversity has a positive impact on education and labour environment; it increases the competitiveness of people and organizations in the world market and improves the quality of education. The labour and education environment in the 21st century cannot be imagined without minority representatives. Nowadays in order to perform many jobs one needs highly developed

professional competences and higher education qualifications. It is therefore crucial that as many representatives as possible from minority backgrounds understand and have access to higher education in their career development (Swail et al, 2003, Carter, 2006, and Pantea, 2014).

Professional participation is equally important for the teaching profession as a whole, as hearing and critically reflecting on other voices can positively contribute to practice and curriculum development (Dee & Henkin, 2002, Cunningham, 2006,) especially since, many teachers come from a mono-cultural, homogeneous background and therefore do not have experience of diversity in their own personal lives (Ainscow, 2007). Minority teacher's understandings of racisms mean they are often better placed to act as advocates in school settings (Carrington & Skelton, 2003). Diversity in the workforce also increases teachers' and students' knowledge and understanding of different cultural groups, thereby enhancing the abilities of all involved to interact with each other (Irvine and Fenwick, 2009), and teachers from minority backgrounds can encourage greater participation in the education system from their communities, including through school-home liaison and help build bridges between cultures (Villegas & Davis, 2007, Van Driel et al, 2016).

Although representatives of all cultures can be good teachers, some researchers indicate that learners react positively to teachers with whom they share a common origin (Carter, 2006, Pantea, 2014, Gay, 2010). Minority students benefit from being taught by minority teachers, because minority teachers are likely to have 'insider knowledge' due to similar life experiences and cultural backgrounds. Teachers who share a common origin with their learners are more able to give examples from the concrete

culture and use other culture-related tools in the teaching process. The importance of implementing a Culturally Responsive Pedagogy: “the use of cultural knowledge, previous experience, reference models and performance styles of ethnically diverse learners in such a way that the teaching/learning processes are more corresponding to them and effective” is based on the assumption that “reaction to cultural differences is vitally important to make the teaching and learning process effective” (Gay, 2010, 31). A Culturally Responsive Pedagogy uses the cultural capital (norms, ideology, language, behaviour, manners and habits) that learners bring along from their homes and the local community.

Teachers from minority groups tend to be more aware of student needs from minority communities, can dispel stereotypes of racial inferiority and incompetence and are better equipped to support student learning (Dilworth, 1992; Dilworth & Brown, 2007; Cunningham and Hargreaves, 2007; Irvine and Fenwick, 2009). In addition teachers from minority backgrounds may have positive impact on minority students’ self-esteem (Bone and Slate, 2011) and may serve as positive role models (Bennett et al. 2006; Zirkel, 2002). These benefits may ultimately help improve academic outcomes for minority children who, on average, lag behind the native population in educational attainment (OECD, 2012).

## **Barriers to the inclusion of minorities in the education workforce**

This guide takes as its starting assumption that there is governmental will to strive for the inclusion of minority groups in the education workforce. While recognising challenges to this assumption in the current political

climate, we see proportional representation of minority groups in the education workforce as being congruent with the founding values of the EU: Article 2 states that *'The Union is founded on the values of respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities. These values are common to the Member States in a society in which pluralism, non-discrimination, tolerance, justice, solidarity and equality between women and men prevail'*.

Nevertheless, barriers exist. These are often complex reflecting legal, financial, social, cultural and institutional contexts.

While we emphasise heterogeneity in minority groups, we also recognise difference in barriers for those with new immigrant, second or third generation immigrant backgrounds, and those from more established minority communities, including Roma communities. Moreover, we conceive the education system as a pathway through to higher education, and see this metaphor as useful in order to help illustrate the failure of the education system to generate proportional numbers of trainee and serving educators from migrant and minority backgrounds. To this end we identify the following three points along the pathway: entry to teacher education courses; pre-service/beginner teaching programmes; in-service support. So, for example, failure to recognise overseas qualifications and work experience is often cited as a barrier, with qualified and experienced teachers from outside Europe, finding they have to restart their careers at the bottom of the ladder. When this is combined with perceived lack of language competence in the language of instruction; adjustment to new policies, curriculum and pedagogies; and cost; barriers



may seem insurmountable, and may be put off application to programmes of positions.

Teaching is a profession practiced throughout the world. Studies with focus on motives for choosing to follow a teacher training programme often cite material reasons, such as job security; professional reasons, such as love of a subject; and altruistic reasons, such as feelings of responsibility towards children or community (Bastick 2000; Huberman, Grounauer, and Marti 1993; Richardson and Watt 2005; Rinke 2008). However, in some European countries, the teaching profession has lost much of its power to attract the most the promising prospective teachers. A recent report (European Commission, 2013) attributes this to a decline in prestige, deterioration in the working conditions of teachers, and their relatively low salaries compared with those of other intellectual professions. Richardson and Watt (2005) with reference to the UK context suggest it has been difficult to attract students to teacher training programmes, and to the teaching profession, to students' prevailing ideas concerning the teaching profession: of low status, poorly paid and better suited for women.

There is some evidence to suggest that the profession is less attractive to particular minority and immigrant groups. Szecsi and Spillman (2012) researched minority teacher candidates' perceptions of becoming teachers in the USA, and found minority candidates are making decisions to enter the teaching despite the profession not being viewed as attractive and prestigious to the minority students' families. However, these participants had an intrinsic motivation and/or a significant friend, co-worker, or teacher who made them confident about pursuing their dream (Chamness et. al. 2005; Gordon, 2005).

Outside of the direct control of teacher education programmes is the achievement of children from migrant or minority backgrounds in school that may affect meeting academic entry requirements for initial teacher education programmes. Research data shows that migrant students are disadvantaged in terms of enrolment in type of school, duration of attending school, indicators of achievement, dropout rates, and types of school diploma attained (NESSE 2008). Children from minority (especially Roma) background are similarly disadvantaged, for example, being at high risk of early leaving (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice/Cedefop, 2014). Archer (2008:103) has drawn attention to how minority ethnic pupils are afforded only the narrowest spaces within which to negotiate and experience forms of 'success' and to embody and perform their gendered, racialised and classed identities. In turn this may affect decision making processes in terms of academic progress, and career choices.

However, it is recognised that some minority ethnic groups do better than average in some contexts, for example in the United Kingdom students of Chinese and Indian background do significantly better than the average (Department of Education 2005) and in Germany immigrant Jewish students from the former Soviet Union perform better than native students in secondary education (Ben-Rafael et al. 2006). Nevertheless, first generation immigrants in Europe are on average, slightly less educated than native individuals, but there is a large heterogeneity across countries. In some countries, such as Denmark and France, this gap is almost entirely explained by differences in socio-economic background, in others (Finland, Austria, Belgium and Portugal) the factors driving the gap are more complex and have roots also outside socioeconomic conditions, including

proficiency in the language of instruction; institutional stereotyping; education policy; and, pedagogic practice (De Paola and Brunello, 2016).

## **Some strategies to include educators from Roma backgrounds in Latvia.**

The lack of cultural and ethnic diversity among the teachers is influenced by several factors. The most frequently indicated obstacles in the acquisition of the teacher's profession are financial difficulties, the lack/insufficiency/inaccessibility of financial support, the requirement to work full load, the lack of family support, the lack of information regarding the admission requirements to the higher education institution, poor results in the final secondary education examinations, an insufficient number of points in entrance examinations of higher education institutions as well as lack of models who have studied in higher education institutions and who serve as an example to be followed.

The root of many of the above mentioned problems can be found in the low academic achievement of Roma pupils. Research in 2015 highlighted 'the low level of education and illiteracy restrict dramatically the employability possibilities of Roma' (Latvijā, 2015) which is significant since graduation from secondary school is a compulsory requirement to start the process in acquiring teacher status.

Moreover, high tuition fees push secondary school graduates to choose more remunerative professions to be able to pay back the study loans. In contrast in order to study in teacher education programme one has to take

the study loan but the anticipated future financial benefits are relatively small. Taking into consideration these restrictions the teacher's work has rapidly lost its prestige and has become the last career possibility that is often chosen by academically low-achieving students. In many cases also after graduating from the higher education institution the minority representatives when facing the economic, social and cultural factors do not start the work in the educational institutions. To increase the number of minority teachers is not only the issue of philosophical commitment aimed at promoting the possibilities of a diverse career. Some researchers, for example, Carter (2006), Pantea (2014), Gay (2010) indicate that learners react positively to such teachers with whom they share a common origin. Thus, for example, the study Roma in Latvia (2015) specifically emphasizes the effectiveness of applying the principle 'similar to similar' in the communication and circulation of information with Roma.

Teachers who share a common origin with their learners are more able to give examples from the concrete culture and use other culture-related tools in the teaching process. Such practice is not characteristic only of the minority teachers and is not obligatorily necessary when teaching Roma children but the benefits should not be ignored – especially in schools where teachers experience problems concerning the inclusion of minority learners. Roma learners have better academic achievement if their teachers are able to satisfy their academic, psychological, social and emotional needs. This is confirmed also by the researcher Gay (2010) who emphasises the importance of implementing a *Culturally Responsive Pedagogy*: the use of cultural knowledge, previous experience, reference models and performance styles of ethnically diverse learners in such a way

that the teaching/learning processes are more corresponding to them and effective”.

The approaches used for attracting and keeping the minority students in higher education institutions are of great importance. Only using the traditional approaches of attracting future students, i.e., the open days and advertisements in mass media, does not solve the problem of the lack of minority teachers. Effective strategies used for attracting minority students to the teacher’s profession, including targeted advertising in minority communities and close liaison with community centres, with one of the most effective strategies being the involvement of minority students in information events, because future students more willingly choose those educational institutions which have representatives from their community.

In order to attract minority students to a particular profession it is useful to involve young people and adults without higher education in projects that envisage a possibility to work in schools as a teacher’s assistant or in methodological centres as mentors, etc. Such programmes can be motivational, and participants can prove themselves in pedagogical work and make and assess their suitability to enter the teaching profession. The programme “Integration incubator for the support of Roma children and youth” implemented by the Education initiative centre (Latvia) and supported by the European Economic zone grant can be mentioned as good practice in this respect. Ten Roma mediators were trained in this project and they work in four regions of Latvia: Kurzeme, Zemgale, Latgale and Vidzeme. Krauklis (2015) considers that the main task of mediators is to convince both the Roma youth and their parents that education is necessary as well as to strengthen and/or establish effective

communication and cooperation among the Roma communities and public health service, education and labour market institutions. The Roma mediator works with the educational institution to promote the education of Roma young people and also speaks with parents about the importance of education' (Krauklis, 2015). There are more than 1000 Roma mediators in Europe. The information material published by Education initiative centre for mediators (2014) stresses that Roma mediators in Latvia is an innovation although there is already such experience in Europe – Roma mediators work in more than 20 countries (Turkey, Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Russia, Ukraine, etc.)

Schools in the framework of programmes financed cooperate with higher education institutions of the respective region to educate specialists who have no higher education, school employees or other community members who do not have the teacher's qualification. For instance, an example of successful practice of Roma children's education can be found in the programme REI (Roma Educational Initiative). This programme Roma teacher's assistants in multicultural classes and in doing so also helps improve the quality of their pedagogical work. Roma teacher's assistants have to attend courses, seminars, workshops and lectures that improve their educational level. The courses that last for 150 academic hours end with an examination. In order to attend this training the person should be at least 18 years old with a completed basic education or secondary education and has to present a health certificate, a recommendation from the school in which the Roma teacher's assistant has intended to work (there could also be other references or recommendations), the knowledge of the Roma language is compulsory and the person should have no criminal past. (Open Society Institute, 2007)

The introduction of the teacher's assistant in schools that participated in the REI programme in the European Union positively influences not only the pupils' acquisition of academic knowledge but also the whole life of the society. The professional development of teacher's assistants and teachers motivates also the other school staff to think about their professional development. Besides teacher's assistants influence positively not only the school environment but also the Roma people are encouraged to be more active in the environment of their own and in the basic culture of the country.

## **Some challenges and opportunities to the inclusion of people from migrant backgrounds in Germany**

In Germany, it is the duty of every teacher to accept the basic law, as the constitution is called, if she or he wants to work in a public school as an educator. This is more obvious for teachers working as civic educators, transferring political knowledge, skills and attitudes to the scholars to be and become good and cohesive democrats and citizens, in the sense of a "citoyen".

To practice as a teacher in public schools in Germany, one must have the German nationality. This requirement indeed limits the possibilities of work in schools and colleges for these people, who do not meet the criteria of citizenship. This is obviously a limiting factor even for those, who have required the qualifications to practice as teachers.

In the view of the rising and overwhelming refugee's crises in Europe, especially in Germany, political education by and for the citizens is becoming more and more important. Institutions are confronted with the question, how the successful integration of migrants into the political community can succeed. Only in this way migrants can become new fellow citizens and be able to enter the workforce as teachers.

In public much discussion has focus on linguistic competence and occupational measures as a basis for successful inclusion; however, equally important is knowledge about the bases of democracy and the possibilities for its development. A successfully established integration requires therefore on the one hand the acceptance of the basic values and central principles of a multipluralism and liberal democracy, on the other hand the active co-operation of the citizens in a democratic and civil society – not only on the job market, but also in the communities. Therefore the political and social basic conditions of integration need to be established.

Therefore, political education must be in the view of extremely different migration biographies, so that all school forms should emphasize civic education for migrants as an essential component of their own school curriculum. However, political education for democracy is not only a matter at schools. Tying on to the courses offered, which prepare for the German-naturalization test, other formats should also be developed for migrants and refugees, to promote their political competence.

Referring to integration-policy it is obvious, that educators have an important role to play in institutions and have responsibility for minorities, who are quite underrepresented, but are in need to be created as socially



cohesive citizens. This is true for the biggest minority in Germany, the Turkish migrants, a minority of nearly 4 million people. Here the institutional selection process for becoming a teacher is not easy, because many of these candidates do not fulfill the standard requisites and competences of this profession. One of the main barriers is, of course, the language competency in the medium of instruction.

On the other hand, iff we look at textbooks, also cultural expectations can be seen very clearly. Here it is a fact that most of the textbooks are following to the curriculum, so that national standards are mostly important. In all of the 16 federal states in Germany, which all have their own education-system, the curricula are written to be more or less multi-cultural instead of being mono-cultural. Therefore the schools have the task to adapt heterogeneity as a value, to include also minorities in the classrooms.

There are some migrants, who already have worked as teachers/educators in their previous countries. Another problem seems to be the equivalence of their qualifications and cultural orientation, which goes along with negative stereotyping, feelings of racism and discrimination by the society and its representatives, even in schools and universities. So the integration-process is not just a problem of entry into the profession, but also of retention and support once employed as a teacher.

In Germany, there is no overt lack of political to include minority ethnic educators in the workforce, although it is evident, that teachers with a migrant background are under-represented in schools (European Commission 2016). A number of regional studies have found some evidence of that students in initial teacher education and the preparatory

phase are confronted with prejudices, stereotypes and discrimination related to their migration background. A study on the experience of 200 teachers with a migrant background conducted at the Humboldt University Berlin (Georgi 2010) finds that, while the vast majority of teachers with migrant background feel recognised by their colleagues in their role, they experience different forms of discrimination in their daily work to different degrees of intensity. This includes discrimination based on ethnic-cultural background, language skills, religious discrimination, as well as structural and institutional discrimination. Many of the teachers surveyed have experienced discrimination in different phases of their education career: 29% state to have experienced discrimination or disadvantage while being at school themselves, 13% during initial teacher education, 23% during the preparatory practical training and 22.5% in their current work as teachers. A regional study on students in initial teacher education also find qualitative evidence of discrimination during practical training and show that any deficits of students with a migrant background in initial teacher education are often attributed to that background by career support staff (Wojciechowicz 2013).

With regard to entry into teacher education programmes, it is clearly to be seen that, in contrary to other member states of the European Union, the financial limitations to enter German universities are moderate and therefore not seen as a barrier. Nevertheless there is a wide range of models existing in the teacher education. For example, in the federal states of North Rhine-Westphalia, Berlin and Bavaria there have been established very successful programmes to integrate migrants into the teacher education workforce (BAMF/Gemeinnützige Hertie-Stiftung 2011).

One of the most important programmes in Bavaria is called “LeMi - Bayerisches Netzwerk der Lehrkräfte mit Migrationsgeschichte”, which can be translated as “Bavarian network for teachers with a migration history background” (see <http://www.lemi-netzwerk.de>). Because the Ministry of Education in Bavaria wants to have more migrants to become teachers, special courses and seminars are organized to give information about the professional duties of teachers in primary and secondary schools. The aim is to provide insight into the teaching studies and the chances of the teaching profession for scholars and students with a migration history. Special student's campuses are offering an overview about the varied duties and career chances for teachers. They receive information about the teaching studies as well as requirements for their career as a teacher. Also they get to know what a good teacher might be and explore themselves whether they are suitable for the teaching profession. Therefore they experience school not as a student, but through work shadowing.

The motivations to pursue a career as a teacher in Bavaria could also be having a good and secure job and earn an adequate amount of salary. As in some federal states in Germany, a teacher in Bavaria could work in a position as a life-time civil servant, what brings indeed some advantages to the active teaching service, also concerning the pension, when he or she will be retired.

## Challenges and opportunities in the employability of teachers from refugee backgrounds in the UK

Many refugees in the UK are from professional backgrounds and represent a pool of people with potential to positively contribute to the workforce. However there are a number of factors that militate against this. This section draws on the work of the Employability Forum: Refugee Teacher Task Force which was established in 2006 and worked over several years to establish frameworks that with some adaption are still used today.

The Task Force brought together a number of stakeholders – government departments, teacher trainers, unions, schools, local authorities, NGOs, and refugee organisations (including refugee teachers) – seeking to improve the employability of refugee teachers in England and Wales (there was a sister organisation in Scotland).

The first step was a mapping exercise to identify organisations involved in the field and where necessary to extend the make-up of the Task Force. A second step was then to identify barriers. These might be complex but can be summarised as follows:

- A challenging labour market
- The complexity of the system
- Lack of resources
- Project-based funding
- Issues facing refugees

In relation to the labour market, research suggested that many refugee teachers with recognised qualifications and experience lacked job-search

skills to act in a competitive market. This was compounded by the complexity of the system, which offers several different training pathways, ranging from traditional university courses to employment-based routes. Adding to this was sometimes inappropriate guidance from careers advisers in support centres, unaware of the multiple pathways into teaching and the range of school support roles available. Again many of these centres were operating on a shoestring budget trying to cope with the multiple needs that many refugees have. This was further compounded by short-term funding for projects supporting refugees with organisations faced with the prospect of continually looking for funders to keep programmes going. From the employers' side they were also not clear on regulations relating to refugee status and if they could legally employ refugee teachers in their schools.

In addition to external barriers noted above, issues facing refugees included lack of English language skills, information, understanding of the labour market and UK qualifications, understanding of the culture of teaching in England, as well as social issues such as racism, poor housing and subsequent health and mental health needs. The level of English language was identified as the most important factor in determining the success of individuals in accessing training or employment. For teaching more than any other professional field, apart from health, use of language is of the utmost importance. Individuals have to be able to communicate effectively with children in classroom situations as well as with colleagues, parents and other outside agencies. This is a formidable range of skills even for a native speaker (Ragu, 2007).

Bringing a range of stakeholders together was an important step in addressing problems. It gave clarity of understanding of the needs of refugees and greater visibility to some of the barriers. It also provided opportunity for more effective partnerships and a more joined-up response allowing for strategic application for funding, and shared publications providing advice and guidance, including information for schools and employers.

Other initiatives included the development of courses tailored to the needs of refugee teachers, involving introductions to the English education system (with school placements); language learning with focus on professional communication in the school context; and, providing pastoral and administrative support. Support groups for refugees in school were also established helping to ensure retention of refugee teachers, allowing for open exchange of concerns and opportunity to share solutions or offer mutual support and guidance.

The success of this initiative stems from the collaboration of a broad range of stakeholders which would not have been possible without government funding. Of course refugee teachers still face many problems but such initiatives help to cut through the complexity of problems, which (often poorly resourced) projects could not do in isolation, including providing information on refugee employment rights to prospective employers.

## Guideline 3

# Linking research and practice in citizenship education

The central thrust of education for citizenship asks some of the key questions surrounding our education system – what is education for? What is the role of the school in developing positive attitudes amongst young people? How can controversial issues be raised in the classroom? and how do we develop critical citizens? These questions do not have definitive answers but one of the real bonuses of the discussion which took place around education for citizenship was precisely that the focus was on the whole nature of education and exactly what should our education system be trying to develop in young people. At the same time, and in some ways counter to this, there has been a renewed emphasis on target setting, particularly concentrating on exam results, which can tend to distort the nature of schooling and can mean that wider issues are relegated to the background; as teachers have concentrated on the exam targets and PISA comparisons, issues such as citizenship tend to get squeezed from the school day (Davies, 2000; Gillborn and Youdell, 2000; Cowan and Maitles, 2010), despite some welcome rhetoric from government on the importance of citizenship and of instilling a respect for lifelong learning.

In interviews with headteachers in the West of Scotland, for example, it was stark how little schooling had changed over the last decades for those able students in senior school – their timetable was completely dominated by academic subjects and exam preparation. And, exam preparation consisted

mainly in rote learning activities. And, with high stakes testing now being introduced for even very young children (in Scotland, as young as 4), the dictates of PISA testing regimes may impact even on play based learning. It remains critical to the appraisal of teachers how well their\_students perform in the national examinations. Nonetheless, over the last 20 years there has been much good practice and some negative experiences, some of it highlighted in this article.

## Citizenship learning

Citizenship is a compulsory element in most democracies throughout Europe, North America and the Pacific (Crick, 2000; Ostler & Starkey, 2005; Print, 2007; Kiwan, 2008). Research suggests that political education in schools in western democracies emphasises political institutions, rights and responsibilities of citizens, debates on current issues and moralism in various combinations (Borhaug, 2008). The largest international survey so far is the ICCS/IEA study (Schulz *et al.*, 2010) involved some 140,000 students (about 14 years of age) and 62,000 teachers in 38 countries. In terms of content areas, the topics that the ICCS countries most frequently nominated as a major emphasis in civic and citizenship education were human rights (25 countries), understanding different cultures and ethnic groups (23 countries), the environment (23 countries), parliamentary and governmental systems (22 countries), and voting and elections (20 countries). Topics less frequently nominated as a major emphasis were communications studies (14 countries), legal systems and courts (13 countries), the economy and economics (12 countries), regional institutions and organisations (12 countries), and resolving conflict (11 countries). Only five countries nominated voluntary groups as a major



emphasis. However, another finding of note is the significant decrease in civic content knowledge scores between 1999 and 2009 in a number of countries that had comparable data from both civic education surveys: only one country had a statistically significant increase in civic content knowledge among lower secondary students over that decade. This is a bit worrying as the decade was meant to be one permeated by education for citizenship and in that context we might have expected an increase in this kind of knowledge and understanding.

Impediments notwithstanding, students were far more likely to report school-based civic participation than involvement in activities or organisations outside of school. On average, across participating countries, 76 percent of ICCS students reported having voted in school elections and 61 percent reported voluntary participation in music or drama activities. About 40 percent of students said that they had been actively involved in debates, taken part in decision-making about how their school was run, taken part in school assembly discussions, or been candidates for class representative or the school parliament. Involvement in groups helping the community and in charity collections was the most frequent form of participation among lower secondary school students across the ICCS countries. On average, about a third of students reported that they had been involved in this way in the past. The extent to which students engaged in these activities across countries varied considerably, which may be due to cultural differences. For example, the percentage of students reporting participation in groups collecting money for a social cause ranged from a very low 8 percent in Korea to 60 percent in Belgium (Flemish). However, a study such as our one to be tempered with an examination of the specifics

of the countries. When we examine the ideas around citizenship and civics in specific countries, then common themes and differences become clearer.

In USA there is a well established 'civics programme' in schools with direct instruction about democracy, political institutions, rights and responsibilities. Hahn (1999) and Torney-Purta (1999) found that the focus was on facts and vocabulary rather than on controversial issues and that US youth had a general but not detailed understanding of government and political process. Print (2007) points out that even the most ardent advocates of citizenship education comment that in recent years it has failed in the USA. However, Hahn (1998) refers to the fact that in the US many teachers make deliberate efforts to have students follow the news and have class discussions which can lead to enhanced student understanding of current affairs and political issues. Whilst Manning and Edwards (2014) found some evidence of a correlation between volunteering in high school and voter registration, they tempered it with a conclusion that civic education courses played no statistically significant role in voting. Lin (2015) is far less confident that increased citizenship learning is being developed in USA. Whilst there are some strong examples, such as the Student Voice programme, evaluations of which suggest increased student interest in politics with increased school participation opportunities, it is not widespread. Further, Lin found that there were wide discrepancies in terms of citizenship learning opportunities, with more being found in schools in areas of middle and higher income. Levinson (2010) calls this a civic empowerment gap and is problematic.

Borhaug, (2008) describes the timetabled political education national curriculum in Norway, which aims to encourage students to be critical of

political and social structures and learn how they can influence democracy through various forms of political participation. In his study of upper secondary schools he concludes that voting was the most thoroughly taught form of political participation. He describes the importance of the mock elections in schools running in tandem with Norwegian elections where all the political parties send representatives to schools to present their parties' policies to students. Results of the mock elections receive extensive media education and on debate and discussion of issues highlighted in the media, he points out that little attention is given to other forms of participation e.g. pressure groups, petition, writing to newspapers, direct action etc. Additionally issues of human rights, tolerance, freedom of faith and expression were not systematically taught.

Print (2007) points out that Australia's national citizenship education programme with its extensive and well prepared curriculum materials could at best be described as marginally successful in raising levels of democratic engagement in a country where voting is compulsory. In spite of the programme 50% of students surveyed in the 2004-7 Youth Electoral Study felt that they lacked the knowledge to understand party politics and key issues.

In England citizenship education has been compulsory, assessed and inspected since 2002. However authors such as Breslin (2000) and Ostler and Starkey (2005) express concerns that assessment and citizenship education do not sit well together. The Crick Report (QCA, 1998) set out three strands: social and moral responsibility; community involvement and political literacy with learning outcomes in skills, aptitudes, knowledge and understanding for all key stages (QCA, 1998).

However Lister *et al.* (2001) point out that apart from a few exceptions in general schools have made little contribution to the development of political literacy. Kiwan (2008) highlights the fact that schemes of work to develop participatory skills are not sufficient because they fail to address issues of inequality, which can lead to disempowerment and lack of motivation to participate. A further shortfall is highlighted by Ostler and Starkey (2000a) and 2005) who state that commitment to human rights and the skills for challenging racism, which are essential attributes of a politically literate citizen are not addressed. In addition the Conservative Government has decided that the subject called Citizenship should be removed from the timetable and a whole school permeation model adopted, but there are worries that this would lead to citizenship being downgraded in the eyes of students, parents and teachers. And, threatened from 2017 is a scenario where all schools in England will be academies or free schools; this will mean that schools set their own agenda and there will be no need for citizenship in the curriculum.

In Wales there is a statutory curriculum of citizenship with clear learning outcomes at key stages with the emphasis that pupils become literate in political and economic realms, for example by Key Stage 3 pupils are expected to understand issues relating to democracy in Wales, know the rights and responsibilities of a young citizen and how representatives are elected and what their roles are (Philips, 2000). In The Republic of Ireland Civic Social and Political Education is a certified subject; there is a similar concept based subject in Northern Ireland (Hammond and Looney, 2000).

In Scotland, Maitles (2000) pointed out that with the advent of the Scottish Parliament political education in schools became an important goal for

politicians, a point echoed by LTS (2002, p. 6) who state the importance of 'the ability to understand and participate in the democratic process'. In Scotland citizenship is explicit in the Responsible Citizenship capacity of Curriculum for Excellence, (Scottish Executive 2004). Knowledge, skills and values are to permeate the curriculum rather than be taught as a separate subject. However, Torney-Purta *et al.* (1999) point to a general dissatisfaction with cross-curricular approaches where citizenship issues are to be discussed by every teacher but are the responsibility of no teacher.

In Greece, the curriculum follows the integrated philosophy of the Interdisciplinary Single Curriculum Framework (DEPPS); each subject is organized into six levels, each corresponding to a school grade, specifying educational objectives and thematic units. They are complemented by a 'Flexible Zone' where interdisciplinary projects and cross-thematic and creative activities are developed.

Citizenship is taught as an autonomous subject at grades 5 and 6 of the primary school<sup>1</sup> (3hours per week) and grade 3 of the Gymnasium<sup>2</sup>. In primary school, the subjects taught include: Nation and State, Citizenship and active citizenship, Democracy, elections, political participation, rights, civil society, the function of institutions EU as an institution, people and culture in Europe, International Organizations. Current issues, such as the refugee crisis, are discussed in the classroom, trying to connect theoretical knowledge with students' everyday experience, recognizing the situated nature of knowledge. Students search and work out sources and material and they are engaged in various projects regarding E.U., the rights in

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<sup>1</sup> The primary school forms part of compulsory education and comprises grades 1 to 6, covering ages 6-12.

<sup>2</sup> The Gymnasium forms part of compulsory education, is a three year lower secondary school, comprising grades 1 to 3, covering ages 12-15

education. In the Gymnasium, teaching focuses on issues such as: social groups, mobility, stratification and change, social roles, institutions, socialization, social control etc.

In Latvia citizenship education is not a separate subject, but in 2016/2017 the school aims were developed to promote: an understanding of duties and rights and a sense of belonging to the values of Latvia, Europe and the wider world. This was to be developed alongside a cognizance of national identity and state, loyalty to the Republic of Latvia and the constitution and patriotism. The schools of Latvia strive to develop attitudes to oneself, other humans, nature, work, society and the state. Citizenship is promoted through all the school subjects.

The policy argues that these are the key values: life, human respect, freedom, family, matrimony, work, nature, culture, the Latvian language and the state of Latvia. Further characteristics, such as responsibility, diligence, courage, fairness, virtue, kindness, commiseration, contentedness, equilibrium of temper, solidarity, justice and tolerance are to be developed. All schools follow the recommendations elaborated by the Ministry of Education and Science, yet each school possesses an opportunity to develop its own content of syllabus and educational in accordance with the needs of the school.

Teaching civic education entered Italian secondary schools in 1958 and was entrusted to history teachers. The elementary school programmes of 1985 spoke of Education for democratic co-existence. Directive no. 58 of 8.2.1996 from the Ministry of Public Education specifies that the objectives of civic education are pursued by all teachers, by extracurricular activities, and by history teachers. In the Annex to directive 58 special emphasis is on

the value of civic education in the curriculum and, eventually, in an independent discipline, in which the culture of the Constitution may surface, a Constitution that makes up the heritage of values, ideals, expectations and guarantees necessary to understand the historic and social process of forming the Italian State. Law no.53 of 28 March 2003, an educational reform, indicated education to the fundamental principles of civil co-existence among the purposes of all schools. It is subsequently articulated into six educational aims: citizenship, road safety, environment, health, nutrition and affective behaviour.

During the 2008-2009 school year, the teaching of *Citizenship and Constitution* was introduced from pre-school to upper secondary school, the intention being to promote the formation of social awareness and critical consciousness. With law no. 169 of 30.10.2008, the culture of citizenship and constitution took on a permanent, structural character in Italian schools. The concept of citizenship has gone through various definitions; prevailing in Italian schools is the idea of uniting it with the Constitution, thereby reinvigorating the map of values, in which it is recognised, on a national level, orienting towards Europe. More recent is the concept of active citizenship, interpreted in terms of participation and social and civil action in the local, national and European community.

The Swedish national school system is based on democratic foundations. All education in Sweden should focus on the importance of creating respect for human rights and the democratic values on which Swedish society is based. Furthermore, the unique value of each person should be encouraged by everyone working in the school. " *The inviolability of human life, individual freedom and integrity, the equal value of all people, equality between women and men, and solidarity between people are the values that*

*the education should represent and impart...The task of the school is to encourage all students to discover their own uniqueness as individuals and thereby actively participate in the life of society by giving of their best in responsible freedom.” (The National Agency for Education, 2013)*

These fundamental values are supposed to underpin all teaching in Swedish schools and they are to promote active citizenship education as well. In the Swedish school system there is not a special subject concerned with citizenship education and there is not any syllabus for citizenship education, but the fundamental values are supposed to be integrated as across curricula content. Some course syllabuses connect more close to these fundamental values such as Civic Education and Religion Education, but it should be part of the basic underlying values that shall be part of the overall task of the school. Many themes integrated in citizenship education are presented as cross curricula themes. In the various teacher training programmes found throughout Sweden we can find the concept citizenship education written in syllabuses for various subjects in the various teacher programmes.

According to a research project aimed at mapping the teacher education programmes in Sweden regarding sex education, the indicators for the empirical exploration were 30 key words that were supposed to cover the broad knowledge area for Sexual education, but some of these are also often considered to be part of citizenship education, i.e. human rights, children’s rights, equality, democracy, ethics, relations, values, identity, discrimination and of course citizenship and citizenship education. Some of the findings of this project are that several of these concepts connected to citizenship education are written in several syllabuses for the various



teacher programmes, in central educational courses as well as in specific subject courses. They are found at all levels of education, ranging from Pre-School education, to compulsory school and to upper secondary school. So, even of Citizenship education is not a specific subject on its own in the Swedish school system, it is nevertheless formulated as central among the fundamental values written in the portal paragraph in the National curricula (2013) for both compulsory school and upper secondary school.

Although there is limited evidence as to the impact on young people's formal democratic participation, the mass participation in the Scottish independence referendum process in 2014, the very significant voter turnout, particularly in the 16-25 age group, the involvement in the process of many schools either debating the issues or holding mock referendums, the releasing of the genie of 16 and 17 year olds being allowed to vote and the recruitment of many young people by political parties all suggested that there was a significant citizenship involvement. This potential of youth participation was also seen in the clear involvement in young people in Greece against austerity in 2010-2014, in Spain through PODEMOS, in Ireland through People before Profits campaign and in USA through the galvanizing impact of the campaign to have Senator Bernie Sanders nominated by the Democrats for the 2016 presidential election, the mass campaigns for human rights in the wake of the election of Donald Trump as President in 2016 and a generalized outpouring across the world of youth concern for refugees and asylum seekers, particularly following pictures of drowned children.

However, it needs to be tempered by events such as the BREXIT vote in the UK, where the majority of under-35s voted Remain, and the Trump victory

in the USA and support in many European countries for parties of the far or populist right. Many of these movements show a disinterest, distrust and indeed dislike of citizenship, human rights and liberal ideals – even if they can be seen as a rage against austerity and an unfair world. The rise in antisemitism, anti-Roma and islamophobia across Europe is particularly challenging for citizenship educators.

It must be remembered that education for citizenship in its right-based context has a relatively short history. In Britain, for example, it is 30 years since the Advisory Committee known as the Crick report produced its document, in the light of the election of a Labour government in 1997 and David Blunkett in charge of education; and 15 years since the Scottish Executive Review Group developed its conclusions for Scotland. This was set against a backdrop of political and constitutional development, including the introduction of the 1998 Human Rights Act, a growing interest in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the establishment of a Scottish Parliament and a Welsh Assembly and the creation of an assembly and elected mayor for London (Osler and Starkey, 2001; Deuchar, 2004; Maitles and Deuchar, 2004). In wider philosophical terms, across Europe, perhaps the renewed interest in the citizenship agenda has emerged from a more general renewal of interest in values in education and also the perceived need for a more participative approach to school organisation (Ruddock and Flutter, 2004; McBeath and Moos, 2004; Maitles, 2005).

However, one of the ironies of education for citizenship over the last few years is that the attempt to develop a healthy respect for issues such as integrity, honesty, self-sacrifice and compassion is problematic at a time

when these very virtues are under critique at the very highest levels of the institutions of the state in many countries. If our young people do not perceive our politicians, bankers, police and media as having these qualities, then there are problems for education for citizenship programmes. The sometimes demonization of young people and complex issues around war, immigration and asylum seeking means that education for citizenship is paradoxically both more difficult and more essential.

### **How much can be expected of schools?**

Academics and commentators continue to question the motives behind the introduction of citizenship education. Yet, most would agree with Hahn (1998 and 1999) and Print (2007), who believe that it is the responsibility of schools to teach about democracy and prepare students to be effective democratic citizens. Kerr and Cleaver (2004) point out that many teachers view citizenship education as a politically fashioned quick fix. Writing about civic education in Greece, Makrinioti and Solomon (1999) pointed out that it is vulnerable to political and social conditioning and can be used as a way to promote political propaganda, a point echoed by Hahn (1998). Rooney, (2007) takes this issue further urging us to be wary of citizenship education which he argues can be viewed as a programme of behaviour modification and that it is not the responsibility of teachers and schools to solve political and social problems or issues of low voter turnout and political apathy. Indeed he points out that citizenship education has thus far failed to reconnect young people to the political system or improve participation rates, although in circumstances where voting seems to make a difference (referendums for example) there is evidence across Europe of a wider involvement of young people..

Several authors (Lister *et al.*, 2001; Whiteley, 2005; Kiwan 2008) highlight the fact that there is no empirical evidence of a direct correlation between citizenship education and formal political participation. Indeed David Kerr, interviewed by Kiwan (2008) stated that it would be difficult to measure the effect of citizenship education programmes on political participation. However it could be that citizenship education is still in its relative infancy or perhaps developmental phase and not enough evidence is yet available. Nonetheless, it is to be hoped that students who have been through education for citizenship programmes, will have the skills to take decisions around their choices in terms of participation or indeed whether they wish to participate; that non-involvement will be informed abstention.

Whiteley (2005) points out that the expected improvement in civic engagement with the introduction of citizenship education is offset by other factors including the widespread feeling that governments don't deliver on promises. There are many factors out with the school that influence political engagement, such as the influence of family and peer group (Kennedy, 2007). Political engagement and efficacy is also dependent on levels of education, intelligence, exposure to media, socio-economic class and the hidden curriculum of the school (Hahn, 1998; Torney-Purta, 1999; Lister *et al.*, 2001; Kerr *et al.*, 2004; Whiteley, 2005; Print, 2007; Kiwan, 2008).

Further, whilst there is general agreement as to the desire to have a politically aware citizenry, it must be noted that there is no universal agreement as to the value of citizenship, political literacy, activism or pupil voice in schools *per se* (Lundy, 2007; Whitty and Wisby, 2007; Thornberg,

2008). Rooney (2008), for example, argues that to believe that these kinds of initiatives can be developed in the current school system undermines the very nature of education and makes teachers responsible for the ills of society.

### **Case study 1: Single Issue Politics and Young People**

One of the main drivers behind the introduction of education for citizenship is the perceived lack of interest and involvement of young people in public and political life (Kerr and Cleaver, 2004; Benton *et al.*, 2008) and low election turnout figures for 18-24 year olds (Maitles, 2005; Rooney, 2007; Kiwan, 2008). Another factor is the fear for the state of democracy and the decline in trust of politicians and institution of government (Whiteley, 2005). However, rising engagement with single-issue politics such as the Iraq and Afghanistan wars, world poverty, environmental and animal welfare issues, would appear to suggest that young people in western democracies although alienated from formal politics and voting are active and interested in single-issue campaigning politics where they can see results from their actions (Cornwall and Coelho, 2007; Dahlgren, 2013; Hahn, 1998; Lister *et al.*, 2001; Maitles, 2005; Schulz, 2010; Torney-Purta *et al.* 1999;).

Kiwan (2008) cites research by Pattie *et al.* in 2004, which found that individualistic participation is common, challenging assertions that people are politically apathetic. Many schools have responded to this through the establishment of eco-schools committees, fair trade groups and a focus on development education programmes. However, media images in a global age also allow children to become exposed to many more controversial social, political and humanitarian issues than ever before, and evidence has

illustrated that pupils are keen to discuss such issues and that a programme on citizenship education needs to respond to this (Maitles and Deuchar, 2004).

World events such as support for asylum seekers and refugees campaigns have led to many primary and secondary-aged pupils becoming actively engaged in community fundraising and awareness campaigns around the alleviation and elimination of poverty in the developing world. Some schools have established forums to respond to pupils' strong views about the need to wage a war against poverty and to enable them to reflect critically upon social and political developments in the media (Dahlgren, 2013; Deuchar, 2004).

Indeed, although a positive driver towards education for citizenship stems from attempts to promote democratic citizenship, human and participation rights at local, national and global level - rights which are enshrined in international convention such as the United Nations Rights of the Child and the Human Rights Act (Ostler and Starkey, 2000(b); Spencer, 2000; Verhellen, 2000; Kerr and Cleaver, 2004; Benton *et al.*, 2008) -- Print (2007) points out that such involvement in single issue can be episodic and should be treated with caution. Additionally there are concerns that democracies have invested more resources into education while experiencing a decline in participation, and there is a logic that better educated people might be more distrustful of politicians and decide not to vote or join political parties (Rooney, 2007). Further, we must be aware that many schools see charity activities per se as a way of developing global citizenship. And even within this, there can be a lack of any understanding

as to how the money is used and rarely any discussion around the causes of poverty.

Holden and Minty (2011) in their study of some 200 school students in England found that the students could name a charity or discuss charity work or ecological work they had been involved in, but had little understanding of the broader issues, such as the complex reasons behind world problems. Further, that they saw this as the key element that the school encouraged in terms of citizenship; nearly all discussions were on personal choice (fair trade, no littering) rather than any real discussion on poverty or wider ecological issues.

## **Democracy and pupil rights**

Inside the school, there is the thorny issue of whether one only learns about democracy or also lives it. If we take the 'living' model, then there are implications for our schools and indeed for society as a whole. Firstly, there is the difficult issue of whether democratic ideas and values can be effectively developed in the fundamentally undemocratic, indeed authoritarian, structure of the current typical high school (Arnstine, 1995; Puolimatka 1995; Levin, 1998, Maitles, 2010), where many teachers, never mind pupils, feel that they have little real say in the running of the school.

For schools, it means there should be proper forums for discussion, consultation and decision-making involving pupils and Article 12 of the United Nations Convention on the rights of the child states that young people should be consulted on issues that affect them. However, the experience of school councils is not yet particularly hopeful and is

discussed below. Further, the issue of democracy in the classroom is rarely raised, never mind implemented, in the school setting. Finally, in terms of rights, the whole issue of inequalities in society and their impact on the educational attainment and aspiration of school students must be taken into account, as outlined below.

## **Pupil Councils, democracy and citizenship**

'Active citizenship' has attracted the interest of researchers particularly in relation to increased student participation and the promotion of schools as democratic institutions (Harber, 2002; Kerr and Cleaver, 2004). It had been hoped that the advent of Pupil Councils would enable pupils to gain an enhanced understanding of the principles of democracy and their roles as active citizens, however, they do point out that in many schools too few pupils are involved. Kerr *et al.* (2004) in their citizenship education longitudinal case study found that only 12% of pupils had been involved in pupil councils. Additionally Cruddas (2007) and Kennedy (2007) point out that there is little opportunity for disadvantaged and marginalised students to participate and thus many voices go unheard, are sidelined or ignored because they are outside the norm.

Several authors (Davies, 2000; Lister *et al.* 2001; Cruddas, 2007; Kennedy, 2007; Lundy, 2007; Print, 2007) highlight that students view pupil councils as ineffective and tokenistic. Cruddas (2007, p. 482) describes them as 'a form of benevolent paternalism'. Lundy (2007) states that such tokenistic opportunities to participate can be counterproductive because student voice is often not taken seriously due to the scepticism of adult concerns about giving students more control. These authors point out that students



do not value pupil councils because the school appears not to value them. Concerns raised by students are that teachers predetermine issues they are allowed to influence, student voice is not communicated to those who have ultimate influence over decision-making and consequently nothing ever changes. To sum up, the key critique is that the councils give the pupils voice but not agency.

## **Active Learning and Citizenship**

The argument for education for citizenship and democracy is underpinned by a learning style that can be summarised as 'active learning'. In terms of classroom approach, there is much recent evidence that, when asked, pupils prefer active learning opportunities (Save the Children, 2000 and 2001; Burke and Grosvenor, 2003; Rudduck and Flutter, 2004; Maitles and Gilchrist, 2006). This is not something new. John Dewey argued some 90 years ago that 'give the pupils something to do, not something to learn; and the doing is of such a nature as to demand thinking; learning naturally results' (Dewey, 1915, p. 3).

The children interviewed in the sources above claimed that they enjoyed learning most when they were learning by doing; this could be practical or creative activities, talking and learning activities, school trips, speakers and contacting pupils in other countries through the internet. The word used most often to describe good lessons was 'fun'. Similarly, in her study of Swedish 11 year olds, Alerby (2003) found that the word 'fun' was used to describe positive experiences, although one cynical pupil summed up his experience as being 'during the break we have fun'.

The issue of interdisciplinary learning has been a problem in secondary schools, which has led some schools to take pupils off timetable to develop rich tasks (Maitles, 2010). Firstly, it concentrates the learning experiences of the pupils in a way that cannot be done in the formal timetabled pattern; secondly, it suggests that the key learning experiences in education for citizenship are best developed in a cross curricular method, where a number (and in best if a large number) of subjects have an input; thirdly, there is evidence of deeper learning through these kinds of experiences (Dewey, 1915; Hannam, 1999; Ritchie, 1999; Save the Children, 2000 and 2001; Burke and Grosvenor, 2003; MacBeath and Moos, 2004; Rudduck and Flutter, 2004; MacIntyre and Pedder, 2005; Maitles, 2005; Maitles and Gilchrist, 2006).

Hannam (2001) attempted to examine the impact of more democratic structures and participation in schools on measurable indices in schools. A sample of 16 schools was identified on a set of criteria as being more than usually 'student participative' and 12 agreed to participate in the study. Headteachers, other senior managers, teachers and 237 pupils were interviewed and senior managers and the students also completed questionnaires. The overwhelming view of headteachers and other senior managers was that student participation enhanced pupil self esteem, motivation, willingness to engage with learning, attendance rates and attainment at GCSE. Teachers in these 12 schools echoed this and added that working with these pupils was a major source of job satisfaction. The pupils regarded motivation, ownership, independence, trust, time management and responsibility as being of particular importance. Both teachers and pupils talked of improved relationships.

So far, the evidence has been anecdotal and based on experience and feelings. Yet, when compared to 'like' schools (using the QCA/OFSTED free school meal bands), the overall rates of exclusion was significantly lower, attendance was higher and there were consistently better than expected attainment at all levels of GCSE; indeed, the gap between these 12 schools and their 'like' schools tended to increase year on year. The small scale nature of the survey warns us from over generalizing and there is a need for significantly expanded international research. But the premise seems sound – schools that encourage democracy and participation 'perform' better in every indices, including attainment.

A 2015 study by the Children and Young People's Commissioner for Scotland found that seven secondary schools in areas of multiple deprivation had higher than expected levels of attainment. Further investigation established that: in these seven schools, across all arenas of school life, pupils had substantial opportunities to formally and informally take part in a variety of meaningful activities, to take responsibility for events, make contributions to school life and have their views considered in matters that affected them! This participative ethos was closely bound up for learners in *'creating a sense of belonging at school, and bringing a rights-based dimension to educational experience.'* It would appear that where schools invest in creating opportunities for true participation, dividends can include increased motivation to learn and improved attainment for learners.

Even if this overstates the case, there are clearly some advantages to this approach. So, why is it not more widespread, indeed the norm? For the individual teacher, it takes courage, skill and confidence to develop active

learning and genuine participation and we need to explore the whole area of both the initial training and continuing professional development of teachers. Further, there are the anxieties of parents, who tend to judge a school by its exam results solely and believe that a traditional rote learning, direct teaching strategy leads to 'good' exam outcomes. This is further exacerbated by politicians and inspectorates suggesting that active learning is chaotic and might not work. And, there is also a conditioned expectation by many pupils of being directed rather than becoming independent learners.

Yet, the problem is that many teachers feel vulnerable, overburdened and disempowered. One of the teacher interviewees in Gale and Densmore (2003) commented that once a policy comes out it is discussed at senior policy committees, discussed at high school senior/middle management levels and when it gets to the class teacher, most say 'I don't want to know about the politics, just tell me what to do'; they thus get 'someone else's way of interpreting that policy into their classroom'. Gale and Densmore go on to argue that there are three factors at work explaining this crisis of professionalism.

Firstly, educators' isolation from each other, so that there is, in their opinion, too much 'competitive individualism' and too little shared discussion; secondly, the closing down of serious debate, in terms of the belief that classroom teachers can influence that debate. It is fuelled by both work and time intensification; thirdly, and a result of the first two, there is a 'reduction in meaningful work' and teachers' and teacher educators' expertise is frequently dismissed and areas of education and working through issues and, perhaps, problems are appropriated by

management.

The ICCS/IEA study of some 62,000 teachers in 38 countries found that the highest percentages of teachers viewed “promoting knowledge of citizens’ rights and responsibilities” as the most important aim of education for citizenship was found in Bulgaria, Chile, the Czech Republic, the Dominican Republic, Estonia, Guatemala, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Malta, Mexico, Paraguay, Poland, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, and Thailand. In contrast, in Cyprus, Finland, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden, the highest percentages were found for ‘promoting students’ critical and independent thinking.’ The aim most frequently chosen by most teachers in Chinese Taipei and Colombia was ‘developing students’ skills and competencies in conflict resolution.’ Only minorities of teachers viewed ‘supporting the development of effective strategies for the fight against racism and xenophobia’ and ‘preparing students for future political participation’ as among the most important objectives of civic and citizenship education.

We must keep in mind that education for citizenship is still in its relative infancy and, indeed, the debate as to its direction and effectiveness even younger. Even when teachers are convinced of its value, the perceived needs of the curriculum, the constant flux of reform and the lack of time available can conspire to ensure that it is not well done and the pupils get more cynical about democracy, citizenship education and the motives of educators. In the words of one of Chamberlin’s (2003) interviewees, ‘education for citizenship? Only if you haven’t got a life!’.

## Hearts and minds

Initial training of new teachers and the continuing professional development of existing teachers needs to concentrate on winning hearts and minds to education for citizenship. Whilst education for citizenship is now a part of the curriculum in initial teacher education programmes, there is no evidence that it plays more than just a relatively cursory part, with many students able to avoid deep discussion or thought on the subject. It needs to permeate the curriculum of initial teacher education and be developed enthusiastically by tutors, particularly as student teachers and those on the probationary year are exposed to some cynical views. Maitles and Cowan (2010) in an analysis of primary probationers found that, whilst there is much interesting work developing, particularly in areas relating to pupil rights, eco areas, pupil councils (and consultation) and community involvement, dependent on the role of leadership in the school, there can be a key problem in that other priorities can force out citizenship initiatives.

If student teachers are the future, the evidence from experienced classroom teachers suggests that there is a need for significant continuing professional learning in the area. Ruddock and Flutter (2004) maintain that teachers lack confidence about handling aspects of citizenship education, and as Dunkin *et al.* (1998) show in their (admittedly tiny) study of four teachers who opted into a pilot study implementing an experimental unit of work on education for citizenship, *'particular controversial content is likely to be excluded, especially if teachers lack confidence in their own mastery of that content'*. This means that there is a need for both day courses in the universities or the localities on education for citizenship and modules on this built into undergraduate student teacher and masters programmes.

The implementation and impact of education for citizenship initiatives depends on whether one sees the glass as half full or half empty. This book has suggested that there is excellent work going on to develop young people's interest, knowledge, skills and dispositions in areas of citizenship and democracy; yet it is very limited, indeed rare, to find examples of genuine democracy based on children's human rights. It is a matter of hearts and minds. No amount of hectoring and/or government instructions can counter this; as Bernard Crick, the person who has most lobbied for education for citizenship in schools, put it 'teachers need to have a sense of mission...to grasp the fullness of its moral and social aims' (Crick, 2000, p. 2).

There is much to be positive about. We need to do more research into the effectiveness of citizenship in the development of positive values. However, it is also clear that we have to keep some kind of realistic perspective on the influence of education for citizenship or any kind of other civic or political education. Education for citizenship throws up the central questions as to what sort of education we want. However, whilst there are clear benefits from education for citizenship programmes, we must be clear that no programme of education can either guarantee democratic participation nor an acceptance of societal norms. Other factors, particularly socio-economic ones, impact strongly, particularly where it is perceived that governments have let down the aspirations of the population.

## Case studies: teaching and researching citizenship

In this section we look at specific commissioned research case studies, looking at specific examples of the impact of teaching about citizenship in Italy and Latvia and research in Greece as to the positive impact of learning about refugees, a case study from Scotland outlining the impact of citizenship learning in high school and from Sweden looking at citizenship education in teacher education. These countries are of particular importance as there are specifics of refugee numbers, independence movements and post-communism.

### **Case study2: The School of Barbiana founded by Don Lorenzo Milani. 'The oldest of those teachers was sixteen'**

The subtitle "The oldest of those teachers was sixteen" was taken from the book *Lettera a una professoressa* (Letter to a teacher) (1967: p. 12) about the School of Barbiana (1956-1968), a classic of modern teaching literature. A book about social criticism and redemption, in which the microphone is passed to those who are usually silent. No submission to the injustice of a school system that feels no regret about children who miss out and that places poor people under the condition of being unable to further their studies. It is one of the most translated books in foreign countries. Just to quote a few, we recall translations into: French, English, German, Spanish, Maltese, Turkish and Chinese, and many others are in progress. Soon the book will celebrate its half century of life. Born in the mind and actions of Don Lorenzo Milani (1923-1967), Prior of Barbiana starting from 1954, this



School was a constant presence during the educational path of young teachers, who, due to various circumstances, approached a reality, from which they learned both the basics rooted in the Gospel and the Constitution and teaching practices that became a lesson across time and beyond place in which it originated. We know that there are examples of this school outside of Italy that take inspiration from Barbiana. There are significant achievements in Spain and China, supported by persons who met Don Milani and by those who found reasons for an unpostponable political commitment in his teachings, that is to say, by those who take the path of democracy through actions of non-violence, civil disobedience and social justice. Within this context, too, Gandhi was the Spiritual Guide par excellence.

A group of students from the degree course in Primary Education Sciences at the Università degli Studi Roma Tre decided to go see the School in person on 4 November 2016, exactly on the day we remember the flood of Florence fifty years ago. Although every part of the protocol was observed, at the end of the day, intense and with a wealth of knowledge and emotions, everyone felt that a great and unexpected achievement had been made. Each person returned home with an inestimable treasure and became, in turn, a repository of what one priest and some simple kids, farmers and mountaineers had created day after day, becoming their own teachers and then role models, examples of truth, honesty, equality, and civil participation, coining with '*I care*' the wish to be a presence and make oneself heard.

Visiting the School of Barbiana means knowing first-hand the teaching invented for children who have been cut out of the official school circuit.

Don Milani invited craftsmen to instruct the children and teach them the tricks of the trade; he opened the doors to everyone who wished to teach and offer knowledge. He understood that, to create a good school, it was necessary to educate to truth, to learn what is good and fair from those who experienced the values of existence personified in tangible work, in which the genius of each person emerges and humanity takes concrete shape. The carpenter taught how to make bookshelves; the engineer guided through measurements, calculations, conduits, pipes and bridges; the wealthy visitor established a network of aid; the ambassador talked about distant countries and the

Prior himself was always teaching, continuing lessons about love, rights and civics, hereby placing a hand on our constitution, too often forgot, but learned by his children on a daily basis. The *Sentiero della Costituzione* ("Path of the Constitution") (2011) that leads to the school is a remembrance and guide for everyone. The workshop with tools, almost waiting for the new Gianni, leading character in the eternal story of the outcasts, the chapel with the mosaic of the radiant Holy Schoolboy (Santo Scolaro), with his gaze deep in the Gospel, being read avidly, are symbols of the culture that became art in the industrious hands of those who are now worried about what will happen on 1 January 2017, when the grant of the Curia will end. Hope emerges strongly because Don Lorenzo Milani taught that, when faced with death, one does not run away, and that one rises every day and resumes working with the children, with conviction and passion. Just as he did during the final years of his life. *The world is not to be left as it is*. To understand the message, turn to the closing of the *Lettera a una professoressa: School of Barbiana Vicchio Mugello* (Firenze). Teachers who do not look their students in the eye may find the university that they

did not have the fortune to encounter in the vicarage and workshop. This is what we felt and saw. There is no more evidence, but it left its mark, an indelible mark, as cultural heritage to be safeguarded, according to the vision of the one who gave it its initial boost.

### **Case study 3:**

#### **The training of pre-school and primary school teachers at the *Università degli Studi Roma Tre*, Italy**

The training of pre-school and primary school teachers at the *Università degli Studi Roma Tre*, Italy, entails a five-year study period and provides for the compulsory teaching of intercultural pedagogy and citizenship in the third year of the course. As part of the course student's complete a survey that includes both focus group discussions and a questionnaire consisting of closed questions, through which students report on their university preparation, school internship experience and professional expectations as pertains to citizenship education. The *Questionnaire* comprises three exploratory areas: trust; goals of education; human rights. The *Focus group* resumes the three exploratory areas of the questionnaire, exploring the meaning of citizenship education and the identity of a good citizen.

#### **Comments**

The following general considerations can be drawn from the areas of the survey:

1. One can observe a substantially positive position towards the prospects of teaching CE; it is deemed that both school and university curricula should be boosted by introducing more opportunities of active training

linked to the experiences in the daily lives of the children, parents, families and the local community.

2. There are general complaints about a lack of connection between the theory and practice of CE.
3. Teachers at school and university should work more on matters of human rights, social justice, political and social issues, tolerance and cultural diversity.
4. At school there are high levels of responsibility with respect to the importance of CE.
5. Teachers are substantially careful when working with children, even beyond the usual school homework.
6. Trust in change is felt considerably, particularly for the possibilities that may await today's children, who are being educated to become tomorrow's good citizens.
7. Knowledge of the regulations is important, but not exclusive, because the concept alone is not enough to building the common good: experience is needed, exchanges are needed and an open, welcoming way of thinking is needed.
8. Theoretical training is assisted by the practice of citizenship and opening up is united with organisation.
9. Teachers have vital tasks concerning education to be a good citizen and encouragement to do something for others.

The expectations of the positive effects of CE are high as concerns the possibilities of improving society, and the criticism concerns the structural inefficiencies in both Italy and Europe.

## **Case study 4: Students' attitude to citizenship in Latvia**

To try to determine Latvian students' attitude to citizenship, we used a focus group of 3 students, involving seven questions.

### **1. What do you know about Citizenship education?**

*If you mean by it a separate pedagogy branch in Latvia, I can say that I know nothing about it. I know that such a phenomenon exists in other countries, but I haven't heard about anything like that in Latvia (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*I have learned about Citizenship education due to a questionnaire, which was done in RTTEMA (2<sup>nd</sup>).*

*Citizenship education has, therefore, three main objectives: educating people in citizenship and human rights through an understanding of the principles and institutions [which govern a state or nation]; learning to exercise one's judgement and critical faculty; and acquiring a sense of individual and community responsibilities (3<sup>rd</sup>).*

### **2. Where did you find info about CE?**

*In such a context I have not come across any information at all. As far as I know, then something is done in the framework of organizations (boy-scouts, young-guards, girl-scouts), and there are idiosyncratic events organized for enhancing citizenship, either before state holidays, or in the framework of state holidays (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*Advice and internet sites given by the interviewer are needed for finding information about citizenship. Only few know about it, only those who are researching this issue (2<sup>nd</sup>).*

*From Internet (3rd).*

### **3. What do you understand by the term Citizenship Education?**

*I think it is education aiming at raising citizenship awareness development in learners (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*Shaping attitudes towards one's state and other states (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*Citizenship education can be defined as educating children, from early childhood, to become clear-thinking and enlightened citizens who participate in decisions concerning society (3rd).*

### **4. What experience of citizenship education did you gain in your school?**

*The only school experience I have got at Latvian history lessons at primary school, where we were told about riflemen, fights for independence etc., but those were just facts told, therefore, I think that it has not promoted citizenship awareness development anyway. Then going to the Latvian National hockey team's game and marching along Riga's streets with flags after scoring a victory – raise citizenship awareness much more, at least in my case (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*Citizenship awareness up-bringing is not a compulsory subject, but it is integrated into other subjects. (History, Culture, Social science.) Laws are not being taught. There are discourses about problems at educational class lessons. Various problems are discussed at open discussions. Teachers' model convinces about the significance of the discussed content (2<sup>nd</sup>).*

*3<sup>rd</sup> respondent. No answer!!!!*

### **5. Is citizenship education personally significant to you?**

*Yes, it is. I consider myself a patriot of Latvia (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*Citizenship awareness is fostered at music, history lessons. It is crucial that graduates know about Latvia after graduating from secondary school. I remember that I had to play the National Anthem in the school. It was so impressive that I remember it now being a student. I think how to share it with my learners in practice (2<sup>nd</sup>).*

*Yes, of course (3<sup>rd</sup>).*

**6. What is your attitude to your country, the European Union countries and other countries?**

*1<sup>st</sup> I associate myself with Latvia, feel myself as a citizen of Latvia. Of course, I feel compassionate with people being killed by terrorists somewhere in Europe. I feel compassion, but the level of citizenship I have reached is not so high that I would go to defend borders of the EU, if there is no direct threat to Latvia; nevertheless, Latvia is a member state of the EU. The same opinion I have about other states, but in case of Latvia being endangered, I will do anything to defend its independence and my family (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*Citizenship problem is significant. I respect my country. I am a patriot of my state. I will stay in Latvia for life, because I am needed here (2<sup>nd</sup>).*

*Positive (3<sup>rd</sup>).*

**7. What do you understand by "good citizen"?**

*I understand that "a good citizen" respects the state, where he lives and teaches the same to his/her children, actively participates in the life of his/her state both by manifesting his/her opinion at the elections and by defending the independence of this state in case of necessity. One who is a patriot of this state? But there will be no such "good citizens" till the state itself will start respecting its inhabitants. And I believe that Citizenship education will yield fruit only in such a case, if the state gives something in return. (1<sup>st</sup>).*

*One who knows, where he/she stands. Knows what may be done, what cannot be done. One who is aware of his/her significance in the society? One who has found balance between his/her value of the EU and value of Society? One who continually broadens his/her viewpoint (2<sup>nd</sup>)?*

*A person who have respect for others, and their dignity, in the same way as the self-respect of a free autonomous individual, springs from each individual's personal ethic, the will to 'live together, with and for others in just institutions (3<sup>rd</sup>).*

**Comment:** What is clear from the answers in this small scale case study is that citizenship has a very strong nationalist, patriotic and state focus in Latvia. This is perhaps not surprising given the historical context of Soviet control and post-communism. Further, the respondents had had very limited involvement in their own school and ITE with citizenship education. Whilst it is important not to take too much from the views of 3 students, this conclusion is backed up in the larger scale comparative study below in case study 5.

## **Case study 5: Italian and Latvian ITE student perception of their citizenship learning in teacher education**

Firstly, learning about citizenship competences in teacher education is compulsory in Italy, but optional in Latvia.

In terms of the effectiveness of citizenship education learning in their courses, both samples show a similar evaluation. Latvian students are slightly more positive and Italian students more critical in the help they receive to develop their CE learning.



In terms of their perception of what might constitute better practice in CE, the results are similar for both countries: a large percentage of students would suggest a primary school teacher should pay attention to human rights knowledge.

As regards their understanding of how universities prepare them for active citizenship, Latvian students think their University is better at developing their linking of theory to practice, whilst Italian students appreciate the opportunity of action research while they are studying.

In terms of their understanding of the importance of EU key competences, Latvians give more consideration to skills for civic competence (as highlighted in case study 3 above) and Italian suggest full respect for human rights as the educational priority.

### **Case study 6: Refugee Education in Greece**

In 2016 the Greek Ministry of Education (MoE) had to devise a policy to cope with the educational needs of the 13.677 refugee children of schooling age (age 0-17) currently stranded in Greece, most of them in the regions of Attica (4.628) and Central Macedonia (5.581). The ministry intended to provide primary and secondary education for all refugee children and to facilitate access in tertiary education for eligible young adults. The issue of refugee education became quickly highly politicized with some parents' associations mounting protests against government plans.

Drawing on the experience of minority schools, special 'Reception' Classes were organized as part of the formal compulsory education system. The

classes run, as of October 10<sup>th</sup> 2016 daily, from 2-6 p.m. To avoid protests the list of the approximately 70 collaborating schools was not made public. The children are receiving instruction in Greek, until they are sufficiently fluent to enroll in regular schools. Their curriculum also comprises computers, math, arts and physical education, as well as English language courses.

### **Towards the development of a policy for Tertiary Education.**

A significant number of the refugees are expected to seek access to a Higher Education Institution. The Greek MoE, in collaboration with the Council of Europe and the University of Athens, organized a Summer School, hosted from 18-28 August 2016 in the campus of the International Olympic Academy, in Ancient Olympia. The project's objective was to facilitate access to university and inclusion in society for refugees who will enter the higher education system in Greece, or another European country (if relocated). It piloted a flexible pedagogical model, addressing the needs of this highly diversified target group (18 -30 years old), designed to provide decision makers and higher education stakeholders with first-hand information regarding the profile and needs of refugees residing in Greece.

The summer school was planned for 40 students. Of them, 2/3 were refugees and 1/3 Greek students, which were expected to act as 'peers' for refugee students and – in the future – as intercultural mediators between the administration and refugees. The educational programme included, seminars in European Culture, workshops on language (Greek and English), workshops on human rights and citizenship, and presentations/discussions concerning European universities and studies. It included

physical education and a cultural component. Academics from Europe and Greece participated on a voluntary basis.

**Comment:** Instructors and trainers from Greece and other European countries were included to reflect the cultural political and educational diversity of Europe. The project revealed a different world-view held by the majority of refugees, a different perception of history (especially after WWII) and a need for training in languages and intercultural mediation in order to facilitate both the access of these prospective students in higher education institutions and their inclusion in society. The MOE will organize follow-ups in the coming year, upon evaluation of the pilot project. It will be considered a success if 30% of the participants in the 2016 Summer School gain access to universities by 2018-19.

### **Case study 7: citizenship education and values in Scotland**

Rooted in human rights, the project 'One World', took place in a predominantly white school in an area of the West of Scotland with high unemployment. First year students were joined by associated primary schools and were taken off their regular timetable for twelve days and set the following schedule of events:

\*Days 1-2: 'What does it mean to be human?' this involved leadership and peer pressure issues, in particular the responsibilities of the individual to challenge racist ideas. Activities were led by both teachers from the school and representatives from external organisations;

\*Days 3-6: 'Human Rights workshops'; these involved both external organisations and subject departments. For example, Moths teachers

developed work around percentages using the 'small earth' project, designed to develop awareness of global sustainability; English teachers focused on supporting students to research and write about inspirational people;

\*Day 7-8: UNICEF 'rights respecting school' activities;

\*Days 9-10: trips and workshops outside school relating to Scotland, diversity and racism;

\*Days 11-12: 'The Holocaust and Genocide'; this involved the Anne Frank Trust, and workshops on the Holocaust and more recent genocides

A values and attitudes survey was devised, to examine student attitudes towards political trust/efficacy; diversity/multi-ethnicity; immigration/racism; equality; general hopes for the future and responsibility for tackling racism. This survey was issued to students immediately before the initiative started and very soon after it ended. Survey 1 involved 111 students (55 Male and 56 Female); survey 2, 107 students (53 Male and 54 Female).

In almost all areas relating to values and attitudes there was improvement and, in the cases of Jews, Muslims, Catholics, English and Women, substantial improvement. In the other 2 cases, Blacks and Disabled, it was virtually the same. This backs up findings from Maitles and Cowan (2006 and 2007) who found that students in transition from primary 7 to secondary 1 were more tolerant and understanding after learning about the Holocaust. Interestingly, the attitudes towards English people were lower in both surveys than towards any other group. There are a number of possible reasons for this, highlighted by Maitles and Cowan (2006 and

2007). Nonetheless, it seems that as far as diversity is concerned, the students came out of the initiative with a stronger support for diversity.

As regards, multi-ethnicity, welcomingly, in most areas the results suggest a positive general outlook. Attitudes towards Jews, Asians and Poles improved over the initiative; attitudes towards Blacks and Chinese stayed constant. Worst overall were the attitudes towards the English. They were the most negative in both surveys and actually were less positive after the initiative than before.

The research also attempted to gauge the attitudes towards both collective and individual responsibility for dealing with racism. The results were positive. In particular, a large increase in the %age believing that society as a whole should challenge racism and a welcomingly high response to individual responsibility in both surveys.

**Comment:** There can be issues when examining this kind of evidence as to whether one sees the glass as half full or half empty. For example, should we be pleased that over three-quarters of the students felt that they had personal responsibility for challenging racism or worried that 25% think that racism has nothing to do with them? Overall, there is evidence of a general improvement in values and attitudes after the students undertook the initiative, although in most issues (excepting attitudes towards gays and English people) there was a high(ish) level before the citizenship initiative. Nonetheless, the fact that in the vast majority of categories, students were more positive after than before suggests that the initiative was worthwhile. The caveat to this is that we can only see the improvements as short term; a longitudinal study would be necessary to

determine longer term effects and it is extremely difficult to eliminate variables over time in this kind of research.

However, the research can be of value as we evaluate the best ways to develop citizenship in young people. There are two particular points to consider: firstly, the involvement of every subject in the school can take citizenship education and in this case Holocaust education out of a potential isolation and place its understanding at the heart of the school. The fact that this happened is important for developing one of the aims of the Scottish Curriculum for Excellence and a central plank in most school curriculums – that there should be cross curricular active learning experiences for deeper learning. Secondly, the twelve days spent on out of class activities, involving outside speakers and trips, gave the students some interesting learning experiences. For example in their Genocide awareness days, the impact of a Rwandan school student outlining aspects of the Rwandan genocide and the workshop by two senior students at the school outlining their experiences of Auschwitz as part of the Lessons From Auschwitz Project, was powerful for the students and helped their understanding of some of the issues.

From this small scale piece of research, the two areas that may need some examination in terms of overall strategy are attitudes towards English people and gay people. Negative attitudes towards both are problematic and may not be challenged anywhere in a way that other aspects of discrimination are. Welcomingly, girls are much more relaxed towards the issue of gays, suggesting that boys' sexuality is far less well developed; it would be very difficult for any boy to 'come out' as gay in a situation where only some 40% of boys think there should be equality for gays. However, it

is our contention that this is a pedagogical issue; it is the responsibility of the class teacher to ensure that the homophobic attitudes do not dominate in a classroom where the vast majority of the girls and half the boys do not agree with it. In this sense lessons about the Holocaust, which would also include the murderous intent of the Nazis towards gay people, can be powerful.

## **Case study 8: Citizenship Education in Teacher Education in Sweden**

As noted above, there is no school subject called citizenship education in the Swedish school system, but there are important formulations regarding central concepts within Citizenship Education in the first paragraph of the National Curricula for both Compulsory school and for Upper secondary school. So there are central values for Citizenship Education underlying the overall National Syllabuses that should underlay all teaching in the Swedish system. In the various teacher training programmes found throughout Sweden we can find the concept citizenship education written in syllabuses for various subjects within the various teacher programmes.

As a case study from Sweden one good example of a teacher training course is organized at the Faculty of Education and Society at Malmö University. This course, *“Global challenges in a Subject Context”*, is compulsory for all teacher students on the level for grade 7 to 9 in compulsory school as well as for all for teacher students in Upper secondary school. It is probably the only one in Sweden that has as its specific aim to focus on Citizenship Education as one part. This course encompasses six weeks of a full time

study programme and it is composed by three themes that is integrated in the course; sustainability, interculturality and citizenship education. The aim of the course is that the students shall develop their cross-disciplinary knowledge of the three themes. The students shall also develop their ability to define and analyse actual current global challenges in order to participate in active citizenship both as teachers and a citizens.

The students participate in a series of lectures on each of the three themes integrated in the course and these are followed by seminars were literature is analysed and discussed and these focuses on human rights values, solidarity, ethics and other themes central in citizenship education (i.e. Ross, Dooly, and Hartsmar 2012, Hartsmar and Liljefors Persson, 2013). After their teacher education the teacher students will be responsibility for the work with democratic values in the school so concepts like equality, justice and inclusion is emphasized, as well as political, ecological, economical, cultural and social questions and these are the basic aims that are in focus of this course. These central concepts and values are studied within this course in relation to the three themes; sustainability, interculturality and citizenship education.

The students formulate research questions on the basis of actual current events and situations in the local as well as global society and with relevance for the school context, such as the controversial issue regarding the current international situation for refugees and migrants in the world. And they write minor, or shorter, scientific texts and make posters for their examination within the course. One of the examination tasks is constructed as a scientific conference during which the students present their findings



either in presenting papers for each other or presenting posters about their result. This cross curricula course is much appreciated and has received both national and international attention and it has been part of the compulsory cross-disciplinary courses for students in teacher training at Malmö University in Sweden since 2012.

## Conclusions

The argument developed in Section 1 indicates there is still much to be done about the inclusion of civic education, particularly in connection with ensuring its impact in communities and political participation. Several dimensions of school policies and practices as well as wider issues of trust in the political classes pose serious challenge to an authentic embrace of citizenship education. Impediments include school curricular prioritising exams and examinable subjects and the rise of autonomous academies who may opt out of including civic education.

Surveys indicate decline in knowledge about and understanding of civic values among young people across several countries. Our case studies, Greece, Latvia, Scotland and Italy and Sweden of citizenship education in school and ITE offer some hope for ways in which it can be embedded.

At present political issues across Europe including issues of trust, colour the extent to which a position of optimism is warranted about the enduring impact of citizenship education. Our historical case analysis of the School of

Barbiana demonstrates the immensity of the benefits from field visits to these inspiring sites of cultural heritage. The recent refugee crisis across Europe and the response of the Greek government demonstrates ways in which new visions can emerge out of complex challenges in the contemporary world. The Greek government pursued inclusive educational ideals in the face of some opposition to accommodate displaced children and young persons into its educational infrastructure. The policy goal is to foster their social mobility and future inclusion at both school and higher education levels. Summer schools and innovative pedagogies played key roles in this endeavour. Whilst, there is reason to celebrate, that the glass of citizenship education is half-full, events, as has been shown, have transpired to make its teaching problematic. Its development needs strong forceful leadership and direction.

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