Professional Guidance: Citizenship Education and Identity in courses for those who will work with Primary-aged children

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CiCe Professional Guidelines

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Children's Identity & Citizenship in Europe

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Contents

Introduction

The booklet aims to promote reflection among higher education lecturers teaching courses that prepare professionals, mainly teachers, who will be working with primary/elementary school children on issues of citizenship and identity. It has promoted extensive reflection among the authors, who come from Latvia, the Netherlands and Portugal.

We have assumed that citizenship and identity are transversal issues in the formal curriculum but also emerge in the hidden curriculum. We therefore address our suggestions towards all courses, from mathematics education to social and personal education or civics. But the practice in most countries is for social science courses, history and civics courses to be the principal areas for teaching issues of citizenship and identity. We believe that the principle of isomorphism (that teachers will teach as they were taught) means that the more significant teaching will be connected to those courses, so we give more examples relating to social sciences courses.

Our audience is those who plan and teach courses, rather than policy-makers in higher education institutions, so we move beyond abstract principles to approach practical issues, and focus on the teaching of prospective primary/elementary teachers. However, while primary children are not the tangible targets of those courses, they are present in that our indirect aim is how to teach them.

As the K–12 curricula is organised in most European countries by competences, we use this term rather than objectives and skills. Every course and academic subject has underlying epistemological methodologies, but there are also broader philosophies of education that enlighten curriculum development and implementation. As we address a range of courses we link to broader methodologies rather than specific subject methodologies.

STEP 1 - The Sense-Opened Citizen

Our approach assumes pedagogical principles that we wish to make explicit:

- A constructivist perspective of building knowledge and developing attitudes and values;
- Identity is understood from several points of view -psychological, sociological, ethnological, and political - but also intrinsically connected with citizenship;
- Citizenship as a multidimensional concept inseparable from participation, inclusion and democracy;
- Citizenship including moral and values dimensions, as well as a civic dimension.

The organization of this booklet reflects this constructivist perspective: it has been adapted from a structure created by Wim Kratsborn to facilitate the relationship between theory and practice in social studies methodology for prospective primary teachers. It contains seven steps:

- The **sense-opened citizen**: The learner identifies an individual starting point through feelings, words, questions, images and sounds.
- The **knowledge-based citizen**: The learner gathers information and develops skills about citizenship and identity - words, images and sound.
- The **active citizen**: The learner activates her/his knowledge and skills in practice.
- The **communicative citizen**: The learner shares his/her knowledge and skills with other learners.
- The **productive citizen**: The learner makes a product in a creative and informative way.
- The **creative citizen**: The learner presents this to other learners and shares experience, knowledge and skills.
- The **reflective citizen**: The learners reflect together on the product, the process and the achieved competences.

These steps are interconnected, forming a network. We will not give more explanation at this stage, but we expect that readers will discover the storyline and see transparent connections at each step.

STEP 2 – The Knowledge-Based Citizen

Identity can have different meanings in different countries – in European Union countries, non-EU countries in Europe, and in other countries. We focus on identity in citizenship, assuming that teachers may have a special interest in working with primary children who are developing aspects of identity.

Citizenship

Current ideas of citizenship, and subsequently of citizenship education, have evolved and become systematised from Roman and Greek civilizations in two traditions: the *liberal-individualistic* and the *republican-civic* (Heater, 1992). The liberal tradition focuses on the rights of individuals, as set out by Marshall in the 1950s: he considered three kinds of rights: *civil rights*, *political rights* and *social rights*. To this has been recently added cultural and quality of life rights, applied to the rights to cultural and leisure resources and an unpolluted environment.

The CiCe report *Preparing Professionals in Education for Issues of Citizenship and Identity in Europe* suggested there were 'two main traditions in understanding citizenship' (Ross, 2001, p 26): individual rights and communal good are also referred to in several papers at CiCe conferences, showing views and directions of civic or citizenship education in various countries.

Lynch's (1992) synthesis of international changes points to a new concept of citizenship, less related to the nation state and more open to the world. He identifies basic values present in citizenship education, but his main contribution seems to us the recommendations for teaching/learning citizenship.

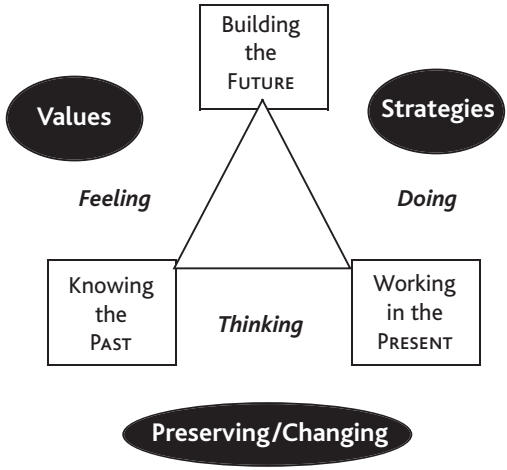
The research project presented in Cogan and Derricott (1998) *Citizenship for the 21st Century: An International Perspective* develops five categories of common attributes of citizenship found in all states or cultures:

- a sense of identity;
- the enjoyment of certain rights;
- the fulfilment of corresponding obligations;
- a degree of interest and involvement in public affairs; and
- an acceptance of basic societal values. (Cogan *et al*., 1998, p 2)

Bauer, Clarke and Dailidienë (2003, p 4)[1] stress four dimensions of citizenship: personal, social, spatial and temporal. The temporal dimension is very important, as shown in Osler and Starkey's (1996) 'Human Rights Curriculum Triangle' [Figure1].

[1] We suggested readers refer to the concept of citizenship in this CiCe booklet, as well as to other booklets in the Guidelines series.

Figure 1: The Human Right Curriculum Triangle



after Osler and Starkey (1996) p 85

Osler and Starkey also distinguish moral/values education and civic education. Whereas 'rights' is shorthand for public ethical principles, 'identity' is based on private or personal ethical principles and cultural background. Civic education is concerned with public principles: moral education with personal decisions. Education for citizenship combines these (p 72).

EU organizations produce abundant documentation about citizenship: the recommendation adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 16 October 2002[2] on education for democratic citizenship is critical for citizenship education.

Identity: personal, social, national

These forms of identity are comprehensive and elusive at the same time. The problem of identity is identified in extended cultural analyses and hermeneutics, research into whole life stories and understanding.

Identity is a socially constructed experience, neither repetition nor stereotype. It is a process, and an issue of existentialism or meaning more than a moral issue.

National identity is significant and topical: its identification and preservation is important particularly for smaller nations. Based on national mentality, it must not be confused with nation isolation.

Social roles play a major role in the process of the quest for identity.

[2] http://cm.coe.int/stat/E/Decisions/2002/812/d04_3x6.htm

Identity can be seen as both a result and a procedure, so it is a dynamic phenomenon.

From the educational point of view, the formation of identity is a goal of the education and development of every person.

1. Personal identity

Religious identity
The subject itself
Gender identity

2. Social identity

Ecological identity
Ethnic identity
Race, class, rank (large groups)

The small group (formal and informal)

3. National identity

Collective identity
Territorial identity
State identity (local, regional, global)

Competence and key competences

Key competences for basic education[3] and teacher training programs were discussed in several countries during the 1990s. Competences are individualised, emphasise outcomes (what individuals know and can do), and allow flexible pathways to achieving the outcomes. They defines what is to be achieved and the standards for measuring this, and in theory overcome the divide between hand and mind, theory and practice, general and vocational education. Opponents see this as excessively reductionist, narrow, rigid, atomised, and theoretically, empirically, and pedagogically unsound (Kerka, 1998, p 1).

Competences were mainly associated with behaviouristic approaches, and besides the common criticisms of behavioural pedagogy, it has been pointed out that skills-competences are not value free but socio-cultural constructs. Measurement techniques for competences are generally unsuitable for assessing significant and complex attitudes, though recently cognitive educators have recovered the concept.

Hager discussed competences in higher education in 1993, comparing three approaches, the behaviouristic or specific task approach, the attribute or generic skills approach and the integrated task attribute approach, which he defended.

Velde (1999) reviewed competence-based teacher training and identified two broad criticisms, *narrowness*, due to its 'focus ... on

[3] http://www.eurydice.org/survey5/en/FrameSet.htm

specific, predefined skills'; and '*functionalism*', from its 'limited and rigid focus on the task functions of the job, to the exclusion of the worker' (p 439). Many programmes seem to stress training in technical competences, forgetting such professional competences as communications, cooperative learning and problem-solving strategies. For Velde, the 'behaviourist, generic and integrated approaches, which typically perceive competence in terms of attributes, not only tend to produce narrow technical skills, but also ignore the worker's meaningful experience of practice' (p 440-441). She suggests a significantly different approach, an interpretative-relational perspective which pays attention to the individual's conception of work, and values human experiences. Our conception of competence is consonant with Velve's ideas.

A recent significant contribution was made by Perrenoud (2001) in the OECD discussions known as DeSeCo [from the '**De**finition and **Se**lection of **Co**mpetences: Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations' project, initiated in 1997 sponsored by the SFSO. This study saw concepts as socially constructed notions that facilitate the understanding of reality, and also constructing it.

Notions of *key competences* and *basic skills* are current in education discourse, but often have vague meanings. Competence lacks an accepted definition, and its meaning varies according to academic perspective (psychologists differ from anthropologists and sociologists), by ideological viewpoints points and by objectives. Objectives also depend on scientific and political dimensions.

DeSeCo adopts a pragmatic conceptual approach, in which competence is defined as 'the ability to meet a complex demand successfully or carry out a complex activity or task' (Rychen & Salganik, 2002, p 5), Competences are broader than knowledge and skills, structured around demands and tasks that imply knowledge and skills, applied through adequate strategies, routines, motivations, attitudes and the management of these. It is usual to speak of higher order thinking skills and key competences. Skills are taken to mean easy tasks, and competences more complex demands and tasks. Rychen & Salganik (2000) present three normative assumptions about competences: they are consistent with human rights and democratic values; they are compatible with social and individual diversity and they give individuals the capacity for a good, successful life.

DeSeCo also suggests competences are learned, and imply knowledge, skills, values, motivation, but also action. Competences can be measured - or at least observed – and are influenced by society, and the way individuals act influences society. This is especially significant for citizenship education.

STEP 3 - The Active Citizen

The active citizen is developed through several strategies: multiples intelligences and cooperative learning help prepare teachers and children to develop active and flexible learning.

Active learning

Active learning and active/participatory citizenship are common concepts in current pedagogical discourse. Constructivist approaches require the learner's involvement in knowledge construction. Our concept of citizenship includes citizen involvement in duties and obligations and participation in public affairs. Participation is implicit in other attributes of citizenship: the enjoyment of rights implies participation in fighting for others' rights.

Related to rights, and powerful for active citizenship, was the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989. Osler and Starkey (1996) note

> that approaches based on choice, responsibility and negotiation which are regularly developed with very young children are often abandoned as they grow older .... [a]lthough limitations on choices open to older students are frequently explained in terms of curriculum constrains and subject specialization (p 154).

They argue that this begins after primary education, but we suggest that in several countries it now follows kindergarten. Our experience as teacher educators also suggests that teacher education and training is responsible for the different teacher roles in kindergarten and primary schools. Primary education courses stress content much more than do early childhood courses. This important issue is crucial to citizenship education, and higher education institutions need to reflect on this.

But we agree with Osler and Starkey that it is not basically the curriculum that constrains, but teacher's beliefs about children's autonomy and teacher control. The issue of autonomy becomes important in higher education, where information and its ideological orientation assumes an important role. The teacher's role is crucial for children's participation, and vital for students in higher education.

The pressure of information/knowledge transmission affects primary teacher training through the belief that primary teachers ought to have specialist knowledge in several subjects. While many student teachers develop independent work, this is often collecting and organising information, and little more. How lecturers deal with content coverage and the teacher's role is central to citizenship education. In can be easier to give autonomy to kindergarten and primary pupils than to students. Autonomy to develop work is an essential: lecturers' 'agendas' may control student teachers much more that school teachers' agendas affect school pupils.

Educating prospective teachers for active citizenship requires that each lecturer in their planning considers which methodologies to use. Cooperative learning and service learning, increasingly prominent, particularly in North American colleges, seem to be fundamental to citizenship education, as they involve institutions and not single teachers.

Multiple intelligences: 'what's in it for me?'

'The bigger the island of knowledge, the longer the shore of wondering'

What skills will young people need to know to be a good citizen in the future? They will need communication skills such as speaking, listening and writing; skills of being critical and creative; skills of working cooperatively and of problem solving with others. Constant learning, accessing, researching and organising information are also needed. They will need strong skills of self-management, self-initiating and self-responsibility.

Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (1983, 1993) offers a way of addressing these questions. Eight intelligences, based on eight ways of viewing the world, are formed into ways of learning - intelligences that are independent but also work together. The context of the theory is the whole person, a holistic, natural profile of potential. This potential may be improved during the learning process, particularly when the most apposite intelligences of a person are used. 'It's not how smart you are, but how you are smart'.

How can these multiple intelligences be integrated into developing citizenship?

1. **Visual spatial intelligence** is the mind's eye, the lens that sees images, graphics, maps, films or videos. This might be used in 'the sense opener' (step 1) and in the gathering of knowledge (steps 2 and 5).
2. **Logical-mathematical intelligence** charts data, information and facts. These reasoning skills may be combined with information (steps 2 and 5).
3. **Verbal-linguistic intelligence** embodies speaking and listening through words. Related to other intelligences it is useful in all steps.
4. **Musical-rhythmic intelligence** is doubly creative, using knowledge of music, rhythm, tunes, sounds and beat creatively. Existing or specially made for citizenship and identity, it is useful in all steps, as a way of learning, knowing, sharing, expressing, perceiving and creating (7).
5. **Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence** is about action with art, experiments, drama and form. It may be integrated in the active steps (3 and 6).

6. **Interpersonal intelligence** is social, useful in all steps other than the sense opener and knowledge gathering.
7. **Intrapersonal intelligence** concerns introspection, reflection and inspection: essential in steps 1, 4 and 7.
8. **Natural-ecological intelligence** is about organising nature to find its ecological 'construction' – useful in step 3; reflection and integration in step 7 is also natural-ecological.

It is essential that different intelligences are used both at the level of the professional and of the children, because personal experience is the best starting-point. We suggest not using all the intelligences all the time. In the first three steps, the verbal-linguistic, musical-rhythmic and visual-spatial may be emphasised: from step 4 all the intelligences are integrated. The same procedure applies for the children. Multiple intelligence is adaptive and democratic, as the individual makes choices in relation to others. It will make a 'good' citizen.

Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning is a widespread and well-researched learning/teaching method. Several approaches are based on psychological theories, but there is no single guru. We suggest the work of the Johnson brothers at the University of Minnesota as a starting point: they define cooperative learning as 'students working together to accomplish shared learning goals and maximize their own and their groupmates' achievement' (1999, p 235). They also emphasise that students working cooperatively would be included in a cooperative school, with cooperation among teachers, managers and the whole school staff (1994).

They identify essential defining components of cooperative learning:

Positive interdependence links each element in a group to the others; the success of each depends on the success of the others and of all of them. 'Positive interdependence is the heart of cooperative learning' (Johnson & Johnson, 1994, p 58). Strategies to strengthen positive interdependence include, for citizenship education, the group autonomously defining its goals, stressing autonomy and participation.

Face-to-face promotive interaction is essential to develop *positive interdependence*. Each person in the group participates, giving his or her contribution, thus developing communication competences and higher order critical thinking. Explaining ideas to others leads to better understanding, promotes caring and giving support to others, encourages those who interact less, praising each other's efforts. Interaction helps to develop perspective-taking and acceptance of difference. Everyone knows the difficulties everyone else is

experiencing; this makes it possible to help each other overcome problems. Each person feels that their individual contributions are important to reach the stated goals.

Promoting **social, interpersonal competences** distinguishes traditional group work from cooperative learning. Putting people to work together does not means they work as a team: it is necessary that they develop social competences. These are important for a citizen, but also essential for *promotive interaction* and positive interdependence.

Finally, **group processing** is crucial to cooperative learning. The group and each of its members should know what is going well and what should be changed, this is important for decision making, reflecting how social competences are being used, and summarising subject learning.

It is clear how cooperative learning significantly supports citizenship education. Current research shows that cooperative learning promotes greater efforts to achieve, to form more positive relationships, and greater psychological health than do alternative individual or competitive learning methodologies. It also shows that when cooperative learning is used for most of the school day, diversity (ethnic, social class, ability, cultural) among students can be a potential source of creativity and productivity, and can result in increased achievement, creative problem solving, growth in cognitive and moral reasoning, increased perspective-taking ability, improved relationships, and general sophistication in interacting and working with peers from a variety of cultural and ethnic backgrounds (Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

Johnson and Johnson have given particular attention to cooperative learning, diversity and civic values, and stress that a cooperative setting promotes the values needed to be a citizen in our plural and diverse societies. They do not present evidence from research, but base this on experience of observing cooperative classrooms with experienced cooperative learning teachers. They observe the following values in the cooperative process: commitment to other group members and to shared goals; responsibility to self and others; appreciation for diversity; respect for others and their ideas, opinions, and attitudes; integrity; caring about others; and compassion.

STEP 4 The Communicative Citizen

This means dialogue between teachers and students and between students, including critical thinking and assessment.

Figure 2 - Didactical principles promoting identity in young people's critical thinking during university study

Didactical principles in HE institutions	***Pedagogical activities***	***Critical thinking***
PERSONAL DIMENSION		
The principle of CHOICE	Students able to choose the contents of studies in accordance with specific research interests	Critical reflection on the use of the possibilities offered
PARTICIPATION	Students able to actively participate in the study process, from the setting of objectives to the implementation of research and studies	Critical reflection on the construction of the study experience
INDEPENDENCE AND RESPONSIBILITY	Students able to independently decide on their studies, thus promoting taking on responsibility for their course and results.	Independent decision, responsibility
SUBJECT DIMENSION		
The principle of PROBLEM-ORIENTATION	As part of problem-based teaching/ learning and study process, students have opportunities to solve problems that are significant for research and society as a whole.	Critical reflection on development of professional competences, and promotion of an active social position
INTEGRATION	Relating contents of study in curricula to exploring and acquiring subjects from various aspects, related to various epistemologies and areas of research.	Critical reflection on systematic understanding of research, critical assessment of studies unifying theory and practice
REFLECTIVITY	Using teaching/learning methods, students are able to reflect on knowledge acquired in study	Critical assessment of study achievements, study self-regulation and self-correction
SOCIAL DIMENSION		
The principle of COOPERATION	Possibilities to cooperate with students and lecturers, and students among themselves	Involvement in a critical discussion on the research subject
MULTI-CONTEXT	Students able to shape their academic experience in accordance with multiple contexts significant in multi-cultural society	Critically argued, historically derived understanding of social problems, reflection on individual co-responsibility and participation in solution
MULTI-PERSPECTIVES	In the university study process, students have possibilities to discuss significant future problems characteristic of a democratic society	Critical reflection on current discoveries and achievements in science, and consequences for present and future society

Source: Rubene (2003)

Citizenship education and assessment

Assessment and evaluation of citizenship education as a general 'affective' domain has always been an issue for teachers. But Kerr (2002) points out

> one of the major challenges in citizenship education is to develop assessment and evaluation processes that not only support the overall goal of an education for citizenship, but also ensure sufficient rigour and coherence to the teaching approaches, learning opportunities and experiences available (p 2).

Active and participatory citizenship includes participating in the evaluation process. Kerr synthesises nine principles derived from Crick (1998), proposing assessment should:

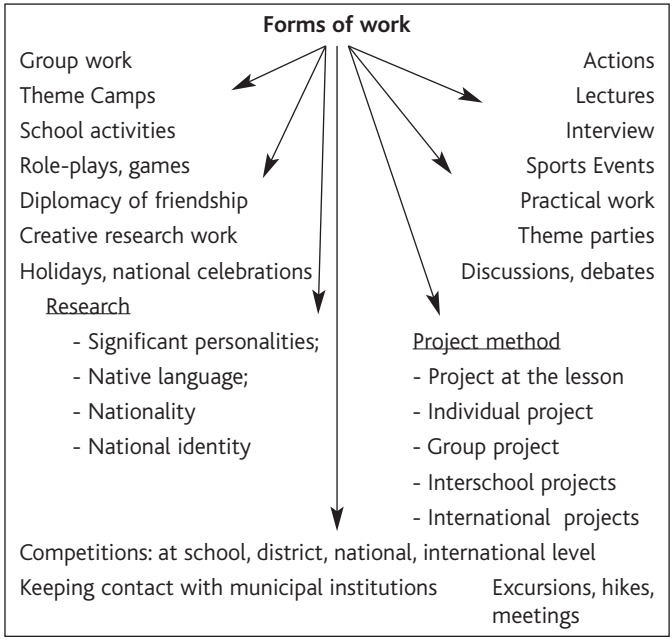
- be planned from the beginning as an integral part of teaching and learning experiences;
- provide regular opportunities for pupils to give and receive feedback on their progress and achievements, helping them to identify what they should do next;
- involve pupils in discussion about learning objectives and desired outcomes;
- include pupils as partners in the assessment process e.g. through self-and peer-assessment;
- reflect evidence of pupils' progress in skills of communication and participation as well as in development of knowledge and understanding;
- reflect the principles of inclusion and range of pupils' learning styles and intelligences;
- provide opportunities for pupils to collect evidence of their achievements, using where possible, appropriate existing mechanisms, for example in a citizenship portfolio, progress file or learning plan, or a wider record of pupils' achievement in the school and community.

Kerr's paper presents concrete suggestions, including a framework of questions to help teachers and students integrate assessment in their teaching and learning activities. Teaching/learning cannot be dissociated from the context, and this is particularly critical with active citizenship.

STEP 5 - The Productive Citizen

To be a productive citizen means to do practical things - role-play, discussion, creative research, field work and many others such as those presented in the following diagram. We also approach in a deeper way a strategy based on community relationship - service learning - because it is a very productive, active and critical thinking way to develop participative citizenship and identities in schools.

Figure 3 - Forms of work in citizenship education and identity in schools



Service learning

The term 'service learning' is relatively new, but its roots in the USA go back to William James and John Dewey. The National Council for the Social Studies strongly advocates service learning integrated into the K-12 curriculum and all social studies teacher training programs (2001). From the mid 1990s Sax and Astin (1997), Bringle & Hatcher (1996) and Astin (1999) emphasised its importance in higher education. Dorsey (2001) relates service learning to the re-emergence of experiential education, useful to develop the structure and main theories of undergraduate geography education. Japan's *Education Reform Plan for the Twenty-First Century* includes, as one of its seven priorities, participation in community service, and sets time for this for each grade level (Feinberg, 2002).

We defend service learning as a special way to educate educators to

develop citizenship, emphasising Hahn's (1999) concern that some ways of looking at community service learning forget that

> to become effective citizens in a pluralistic democracy, young people ought to investigate social problems and value dilemmas that are often controversial; the students should seek solutions to problems, and voluntarily take actions to bring about change. Goals that are not necessary captured in the service-learning literature are that students acquire knowledge about complex issues, develop skills in problem solving when important value differences divide a community, and that they develop an interest in the political arena and a sense of political efficacy (p 425).

Hahn was reviewing Wade's *Community-Service Learning: A Guide to Including Service in the Public School Curriculum*, based on her research on introducing service learning in her own university courses, specifically in a Social Studies Methods Course for prospective elementary teachers. There is an extensive US bibliography related to K-12 (Wade, 1996), but in the 1990s it became the focus of attention in Higher Education, where the issues noted by Hahn are important.

The kind of service learning we advocate includes controversial issues and deliberation. Chapin (1998) draws attention to the interchangeable use of 'service learning' and 'community learning', indicating that traditionally service learning stressed a social action perspective, in which students are encouraged to question the status quo and revitalize society, at the same time responding compassionately to those in need. Change, caring, social reconstruction, and a transformative experience are features of service learning, whereas community service is characterised by charity, giving, civic duty, and experience (p 205).

The *National Council for the Social Studies Position Statement on Service Learning: An Essential Component of Citizenship Education* (2000) synthesises the potential of service learning experiences for student development:

- academic, problem solving, and critical thinking
- ethical development and moral reasoning ability
- social and civic responsibility
- self-esteem, assertiveness, and empathy
- political efficacy
- tolerance and acceptance of diversity
- career exploration (NCSS, 2001, p 240).

Service learning enhances social studies teachers' ability to educate informed and active citizens, committed to improve democratic society.

There are already many higher education institutions that involve students in service learning, such as the Stanford Summer Institute

on Service Learning. Bringle and Hatcher (1996) collected data on this and propose a Comprehensive Action Plan for Service Learning (CAPSL). They identified four constituencies indispensable for high-quality service learning: institution, faculty, students and community. A sequence of activities/tasks would interact many times: planning, awareness, prototype, resources, expansion, recognition, monitoring, evaluation, research, and institutionalisation. They present examples for each of these for the four constituencies.

Sax and Astin (1997) and Astin and Sax (1998) report on a large evaluation of the Corporation for National Service's Learn and Serve America Higher Education (LSAHE) program, carried out by UCLA and the Rand Corporation. A comparison of a large sample of students who participated in Service Learning with those who did not measured change in three domains of student's development: civic responsibility, academic development and life skills (most directly related to citizenship). All student outcome measures were favourably influenced by service learning: 'these beneficial effects occur for all types of service, whether the activities are concerned with education, human needs, public safety, or the environment' (Astin and Sax, 1998, p 261). These service leaning experiences were integrated into courses, and this provided additional benefits, such as understanding community problems and preparing for career (Sax and Austin, 1997). Benefits were long term, and improved as more time was given in service. One benefit was greater commitment to civic involvement.

To conclude, qualitative service learning would:

- address real community needs;
- incorporate the inputs of students, teachers and community agencies;
- provide students with opportunities to engage in critical thinking, creative problem solving, and decision making;
- provide opportunities to reflect on service, one's role in serving, and larger societal issues involved;
- be developmentally appropriate for students; and
- emphasize team work.

All of these elements help develop positive character traits and democratic citizenship, and involve students in defining and focusing, researching, analysing and evaluating, designing and implementing, reflecting and evaluating.

The children's route

The Productive Citizen (step 5) is a very practical stage: here the professional helps the student to produce information, tasks and materials for children, to legitimise constructivist theory and to use the multiple intelligences approaches.

This requires a clear structure, and we recommend students use the same seven-step structure with children. Students thus synchronises their own experiential experience with the learning process of the child.

Step 1 ***'the sense-opened child'***. The children open their senses to citizenship and construct their personal/group starting-point. The student creates a sense-opener for the children, asking them to use just three intelligences. What do they see, feel or know about citizenship? Draw, ask a few questions, write a short story, or choose a colour. Open the senses further: make a 5 minute video-clip of images, music and sound. This is just a first impression: next could be an eye-witness story. Students might prepare questions about the video and story that the children answer in circle talk.

This motivates and activates gathering new information in **Step 2** ***'the knowledge based child'***. Here the student writes three short blocks of basic contextual information about citizenship, about people, objects, situations. Each block needs two images, and children individually search for information, images and hyperlinks on the internet. So far, the learning-process of the child has been individual.

In **Step 3**, ***'the active citizen'***, the children start to work in groups and concentrate on a particular aspect of citizenship. The use of multiple intelligences is broadened. For each group, the student provides information about their aspect (this will also be needed in step 5), and mixes three intelligences for each group, so they learn in a flexible way. For inspiration, the student might refer to the ways of presentation in step 6 (below), the lecturer might also give practical examples to stimulate ideas. This completes the 'informative phase': children have enough knowledge to communicate, produce, create and reflect in the next three steps.

In **Step 4** ***'the communicative child'*** each group shares knowledge with the other groups. The student offers statements for discussion, and asks questions for the children to investigate in the environment. More questions will arise from the groups. Through this 'outdoor-activity' (natural-ecological intelligence), parents and others in the local area become involved in the project. Each child brings information and materials from home to be used in the presentation.

This is reported at the beginning of **Step 5** ***'the productive child'***. For each group the student gives clear instructions about a cooperative problem solving task, which could be a dilemma or a

conflict. The intention is to help them change their own environment or lifestyle, with a balance between information and creativity. The group's result must be presented as a mix of at least three of the intelligences. The first task for the whole group is to create a product (an object, an image, music, a play, a diary, an interview, a PowerPoint presentation or an exhibition), and then to give information to the other groups. This provides an example of good practice in cooperative, contextual and interactive learning.

Step 6 *'the creative child'* concerns presentation on the level of the child. It is suggested that students start designing the route from step 6, and work backwards. This makes it clearer what information and materials will be needed. In social constructivism, presentation becomes a very important learning moment, because learners are giving to and learning from other learners. Students present their processes and products to other students: they have to balance information and creativity, and show blended-learning in their combination between of digital and non-digital forms.

STEP 6: The Creative Citizen

Presentation forms

Ask groups of students to present, in about 15 minutes:

- An overview of the theory of the route;
- A legitimation of the theories of social constructivism and multiple intelligences;
- Examples of interactive elements in the route; and
- What competences are developed by the process

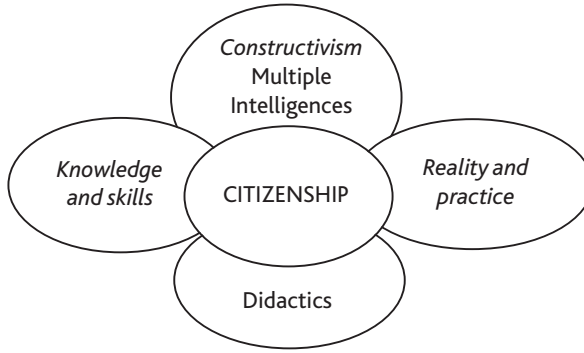
Suggestions for 'multiple intelligent' ways of presentation, the result of cooperative and contextual learning:

1. Design a PowerPoint presentation, with music, paintings, sculptures and drawings, to visualise children's rights. Explain which rights are most important.
2. Design a webpage to show the solution to a citizenship problem. Talk about it with other groups, or students from other institutions.
3. Visualize a dilemma about citizenship as a leaded window painting in the classroom. One student explains the solution, which the other students mime. Another possibility is a puppet show.
4. Enact a role-play in which a problem is solved. Afterwards a 'journalist' interviews the players about these solutions.
5. Design a small exhibition from garbage materials with written information: the other students walk around the museum.
6. Each group gets the same problem - to be solved with a different form of intelligence.
7. Design a role play scenario using the role-continuum. Who is the perpetrator, the fellow-traveller, the obstructionist or the victim?
8. Describe a journey through the history of citizenship over the past fifty years, using fragments of pop songs and lyrics.
9. Write a letter to the municipal council seeking to change an aspect of your neighbourhood.

STEP 7 - The Reflective Citizen

The students/children checks their individual knowledge and reflect on the learning process from steps 1 to 7. Let the student legitimise the use of constructivism and multiple intelligence in the 'field of view' (Figure 4). This helps the student organise his work from a multi-perspectivistic view. In each field he may place words, short sentences and images.

Figure 4: The 'Field of View'



Reflection

Reflection is inherent in the approach we advocate. This leads students to discover the kind of intelligences most suitable for particular learning experiences, and best fitting their own learning style. Active learning is intrinsically connected to the meta-cognitive competences developed through reflection. It is needed in critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, and is essential in 'traditional' project work and collaborative work. Reflection in service learning is not only important at the end of the project, but is crucial from the beginning: action without reflection is often only 'noise'.

Isomorphism in teacher training also applies to reflection. Bowman (1989) considers teachers' reflections on their own childhood helps them understand how children view particular experiences, and adapt proposed learning experiences to accommodate these views, thus valuing children's reflections. Reflection connects personal and scientific knowledge. Bowman stresses that the capacity of people 'to connect their experiences to that of others and through that connection gain understanding of the feelings of others, is a vital component of interpersonal interaction' (p 446).

In teachers' training reflection is associated with teaching practice, as expressed in Schön's (1983, 1987) *Reflective Practitioner*. But many stress its roots are found in Dewey's philosophy of education, and four points from Dewey and his interpreters give it a broader meaning:

1. Is reflection limited to thought about action, or is it more inextricably linked to action?
2. Is it immediate, short term or extended and systematic?
3. Is it necessarily problem-centred?
4. Is it 'concerned with how consciously the one reflecting takes on account of wider historic, cultural and political values or beliefs in framing and reframing practical problems to which solutions are being sought' identified as "critical reflection"?' (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p 34).

We suggest this more extensive and deeper understanding of reflection is useful.

Contrasting *reflexive thinking* to *reflective action*, Schön's concept of reflection-in-action applies to the situation in progress; and this is what all teachers try to do, changing their actions according to what happens. Reflection-on-action is usually developed in the latter stages of teacher training.

Zeichner and Liston (1996) list five traditions of reflective teaching:

> *the academic tradition* - how content is best presented;
> *the social efficiency tradition* - using scientific research on teaching to reflect on practice;
> *the developmentalist tradition* - students' cultural, linguistic, experiential, and developmental background and readiness;
> *the social reconstructionist tradition* – reflecting on the social and political consequences of teaching; and
> *the generic tradition* – generally making teaching more purposeful and deliberate.

Teacher approaches to reflective teaching should not use a single tradition, but involve several. These five traditions apply across teacher training courses, not just in teaching practice. Reflection promotes interdisciplinarity, connecting subjects and methodologies and giving consistency.

Reflection is organised in three dimensions: ***Technical aspects*** (contents and methodologies); ***Contextual aspects*** (students, school and community); and ***Critical aspects*** (broader socio-political aspects of society and the teacher's contribution to change and social equity).

Almost all teacher education and national standards stress the importance of reflection. For example, the Scotland (2000) standards 'encourage professional reflection on educational processes in a wide variety of context'; and students 'taking responsibility for and being committed to their own professional development arising from professional reflection on their own and other professional practices'.

Developing multiple competences for reflection is the key feature to prepare professionals to grow personally and professionally.

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