

**GLOBAL CHALLENGES, GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP:
WHAT IS THE LOCAL CLASSROOM REALITY?
A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF GLOBAL
CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION TEACHING AND
LEARNING PRACTICES**

**Maria Barry
B. A., H. Dip. Ed., MA. Development Studies**

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award of Doctor of Philosophy**


Dublin City University

**Dr Audrey Bryan
Prof Fionnuala Waldron
School of STEM Education, Innovation & Global Studies, Institute
of Education**

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Declaration

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of a PhD degree is entirely my own work, and that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.



Signed: _____ (Candidate)

ID No.: 14269457

Date: 09/09/2020

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of Brian Ruane, a great friend, colleague and human rights hero.

Where, after all, do universal human rights begin? In small places, close to home, so close and so small that they cannot be seen on any maps of the world. Yet they are the world of the individual person; the neighbourhood he (sic) lives in; the school or college he attends; the factory, farm, or office where he works. Such are the places where every man, woman, and child seeks equal justice, equal opportunity, equal dignity without discrimination. Unless these rights have meaning there, they have little meaning anywhere. Without concerted citizen action to uphold them close to home, we shall look in vain for progress in the larger world (Eleanor Roosevelt, 1958).

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Abbreviations

| | |
|--------|--|
| CFES | College for Every Student |
| CPD | Continuous Professional Development |
| CSO | Central Statistics Office |
| CSPE | Civic, Social and Political Education |
| DEIS | Delivering Equality of Opportunity in Schools |
| DES | Department of Education & Skills |
| DICE | Development and Intercultural Education |
| ESD | Education for Sustainable Development |
| ETB | Education & Training Board |
| GENE | Global Education Network Europe |
| HRE | Human Rights Education |
| ICCS | International Civic and Citizenship Education Study |
| IDEA | Irish Development Education Association |
| IHRC | Irish Human Rights Commission |
| IR | International Relations |
| IS | Islamic State |
| IWB | Interactive Whiteboard |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goal |
| NCCA | National Council for Curriculum and Assessment |
| NGDO | Non-Governmental Development Organisation |
| ODA | Official Development Assistance |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PISA | Programme for International Student Assessment |
| PLS | Plain Language Statement |
| SDG | Sustainable Development Goal |
| SPHE | Social, Personal and Health Education |
| TY | Transition Year |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation |
| WWGS | World Wise Global Schools |

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Abstract

Maria Barry

GLOBAL CHALLENGES, GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP: WHAT IS THE LOCAL CLASSROOM REALITY? A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION TEACHING AND LEARNING PRACTICES

This qualitative case study critically analyses Global Citizenship Education (GCE) teaching and learning practices within the situated context of formal education classrooms in Ireland. Specifically, the study focuses on distinctive characteristics of GCE practice, its participatory pedagogies and the role of dialogue and discussion within GCE. Previous studies expose certain weaknesses within formal education approaches to GCE that undermine its criticality and transformative intent (Biccum, 2015; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). However, classroom-based research is a significant gap within the field (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Sant, Davies, Pashby, & Shultz, 2018) and teachers' and students' experiences remain underrepresented and under-researched (Bamber, 2020). Consequently, we have insufficient understanding of how GCE intersects with formal education at the point of practice. This is an important gap to address, in order to identify challenges and possibilities for more critical forms of GCE in the classroom.

The study draws on participant observation across three post-primary classrooms, three semi-structured teacher interviews and five student focus groups, in order to develop rich descriptions of GCE classroom practice. Underpinned by critical pedagogy and social constructivism, and framed against the concepts of voice, power and dialogue, the analysis offers new empirical evidence from the classroom into GCE teaching and learning and teachers' and students' negotiations. The study contends that the intersection of GCE practice and formal education classrooms can generate pioneering practice, yet also reveals tensions for teachers and students. In addition, I argue that participatory forms of GCE serve as an important counterpoint to prevailing classroom encounters that can result in transformative experiences for students. I draw on evidence to advance a typology of GCE practice that illustrates the importance of pedagogy, purpose and person to the participatory intent of GCE. Furthermore, the study establishes the centrality and distinctiveness of discussion for GCE teachers and students, yet also identifies problematic interpretations that limit the potential for more critical forms of dialogue.

Implications arising from this study highlight the urgent need to develop ongoing, tailored and appropriate professional development for teachers that responds to their needs and existing expertise. Moreover, it is important to position young people to the fore of GCE practice, research and policy-making, in order to examine and understand GCE as a learning process that is conceptually grounded and concerned with cognitive and social development.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Global Citizenship Education (GCE) is a dynamic and contested field. It is increasingly viewed as an educational response to complex global trends and challenges such as climate change, migration and cultural diversity (Bourn, 2020; Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Goren & Yemini, 2017; Mochizuki & Bryan, 2015; Sant, Davies, Pashby, & Shultz, 2018; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018; Tawil, 2013; Waldron, Ruane, Oberman, & Morris, 2016). At the same time, significant challenges are associated with the implementation of GCE within formal education contexts and critics argue that problematic policies and approaches weaken GCE's critical intent (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; McSharry & Cusack, 2016; Waldron, Ruane, & Oberman, 2014). In effect, GCE within formal education is at an impasse, caught in a hierarchical and reproductive system that continues to bear down on its transformative and emancipatory ideals (Estellés & Fischman, 2020). However, insights from the classroom are very limited and significant gaps remain in understanding how GCE is presented and negotiated at the point of practice (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Sant et al., 2018). As a result, efforts to meaningfully support teachers' practice and students' learning are compromised. This has implications for the realisation of more critical forms of GCE in schools.

Drawing on extensive participant observation, teacher interviews and student focus groups, this qualitative case study makes an empirical contribution to the field that is directly informed by classroom practice and teachers' and students' negotiations and experiences. Research suggests that committed teachers and students remain largely positive and openly disposed to GCE, despite facing many challenges and obstacles (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson, King, O'Driscoll, & Tormey, 2007; Tallon & McGregor, 2014; Waldron et al., 2014). This study profiles pioneering work that teachers and students are undertaking, in order to interrogate if and how tensions play out in the classroom. Specifically, it focuses on the interplay between GCE's theoretical and pedagogical pillars and formal education's hierarchical and performance driven environment. It offers empirical evidence to demonstrate how GCE

translates at the point of practice and the extent to which its critical substance and participatory pedagogies can be enacted within the context of formal education classrooms. Schools are the target of several GCE visions and initiatives that set out ambitious demands for teaching and learning (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Willemse, ten Dam, Geijssels, van Wessum, & Volman, 2015). Yet, considerable gaps remain in understanding how teachers and students respond to these demands within the situated context of the classroom, or the extent to which their practice here can confront challenge or embrace possibility. It is vital that we seek to more fully understand the lived experiences and realities of this private space. To not do so is to undermine teachers' and students' efforts and expertise, as they seek to embrace and engage with this multifaceted field in the complex setting of a formal education classroom.

This chapter begins by setting out the rationale and purpose of the study, in addition to the central research questions. Next, I explore efforts to define GCE and consider particular aspects of its formulation that are relevant to this study. The policy environment is then considered, before moving on to identify opportunities that exist for GCE within Irish post-primary education. The chapter concludes with a personal biography and rationale for the study and an outline of the thesis.

1.1 Rationale and purpose

In recent times, the concept of global citizenship has been challenged and undermined (Appiah, 2016). Across Europe and many other parts of the world, growing nationalism and anti-immigrant policies perpetuate discourses of racism and xenophobia that generate popular and political climates that undermine GCE values and in some instances, seriously threaten the presence of GCE within state policy and formal education (Bamber, 2020; Davies et al., 2018; Kuleta-Hulboj, 2020; Tarozzi, 2020; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018). This context, coupled with the urgency of our planetary crisis, starkly highlight the need for education to reassert its pro-social orientations (Ball, 2008; Gaynor, 2013; Giroux, 1983; McCloskey, 2017; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). Indeed, recent climate strikes and the mobilisation of students and schools confirm the importance of global citizenship for young people and the role schools can play in supporting them. Although not offered as a panacea, GCE's values and frameworks can offer a counterpoint to narratives of isolationism and discord, in addition to valuable learning experiences for students that supports a global outlook, engaged participation and a sense of social justice (Bamber, 2020; Bourn, 2014, 2020).

To date, research has established important insights into schools-based GCE. These include: the multitudinous and complex nature of the field (Bourn, 2020; Goren & Yemini, 2017; Mannion, Biesta, Priestley, & Ross, 2011; Sant et al., 2018) the dominance of so-called “soft” approaches that are characterised by paternalism, eurocentrism and obedient activism (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Waldron et al., 2014); structural barriers that constrain the implementation of GCE (Bryan, 2012; Bully, 2009; Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Gaynor, 2013; Waldron et al., 2011) teachers’ recognition of contradictions between their stated goals and their practice (Bentall, 2020; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bully, 2009) and, the assertion that there is a gap between GCE’s transformative intent and what is realised in practice (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan, 2012; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). Bryan & Bracken (2011) point to a dearth of ethnographic studies and highlight the need for research that examines how GCE is practised in classrooms. They highlight a lack of research into the realisation of active and participatory methodologies in the classroom, despite being core pillars of GCE (McCormack & O’Flaherty, 2010). More recently, Bamber (2020) argues that research exploring GCE practice has been overlooked in favour of studies that focus on policy and curricular reform. I propose that this gap can best be explored in the situated context of the classroom, in order to capture the full richness of teacher and student interactions (Fiedler, Bryan, & Bracken, 2011).

The central focus of this study therefore, is to move beyond perception-based research (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, & Manion, 2000) and to focus on GCE teaching and learning practices in the classroom. I want to describe and analyse if and how active learning methodologies are employed and received, and how global justice issues are presented and interpreted. I also want to investigate how GCE and its formal education context coincide at the point of practice. Empirical, classroom-based evidence is an essential piece of the jigsaw that has been overlooked in GCE research (Bamber, 2020; Goren & Yemini, 2017; Sant et al., 2018). Future visions, policies and guidelines may ring hollow if we do not understand this space in greater depth. We cannot expect teachers and students to interact at the level of criticality and complexity that GCE requires if we do not more fully understand the reality of their contexts and interactions. Essential to this are the voices of students. This study has been designed with a view to opening space, influence and opportunity for students to participate in an authentic way (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lundy, 2007). Their views are not only understood as a requirement, but also as informed and valuable perspectives (Lundy, 2007).

Consequently, the study's central research questions focus on teaching and learning processes related to GCE. In order to build on what already exists and to contribute new knowledge to the field, the following questions are explored over the course of my study;

1. How is global citizenship education presented and interpreted in the classroom?
2. How do voice, power and dialogue manifest in the GCE classroom?
3. How does critical GCE coincide within a formal education setting characterised by examinations, hierarchical structures and control?

1.2 Defining GCE: a 21st century term

GCE is an emerging discipline and branch of knowledge, taking meaning from diverse thinkers, theories and disciplines (Bourn, 2014, 2015, 2020; Goren & Yemini, 2017; Oxley & Morris, 2013; Parmenter, 2011; Sant et al., 2018). It has been fashioned alongside more established adjectival educations that have been promoted by civil society and are informed by different traditions and lineages that stretch back to ancient Greek times (Bamber, 2020; Mannion et al., 2011; Nussbaum, 1997; Parmenter, 2011; Pashby, da Costa, Stein, & Andreotti, 2020; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018; Yemini, Tibbitts, & Goren, 2019). While such history and multiplicity enrich the field, it can be challenging to identify one single definition. Indeed, it has been asked whether such a definition is necessary or desirable (Bourn, 2014; Sant et al., 2018). Increasingly, GCE is framed as an umbrella term to capture several adjectival educations and broader societal agendas which include, peace education, human rights education, citizenship education, development education, environmental education, intercultural education and education for sustainable development (Bamber, 2020; Goren & Yemini, 2017; Mannion et al., 2011; Oxley & Morris, 2013; Sant et al., 2018; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018). Although each of these adjectival educations is distinct and subject to its own internal debates, there are a number of underlying principles and pillars that are common to most. For example, each carries a pro-social view of education and understands it as a potentially powerful force for social change. Consequently, these educations are frequently values-based and conceive of citizens in active and engaged terms (Flaherty & Liddy, 2017; Mannion et al., 2011; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019; Tawil, 2013).

A significant body of literature is dedicated to analysing and defining conceptualisations of GCE and its underpinning ideologies and theories (Bourn, 2014; Goren & Yemini, 2017; Oxley & Morris,

2013; Karen Pashby et al., 2020; Sant et al., 2018). A comprehensive engagement with this literature is beyond the scope of this present study. However, two significant thinkers and one adjectival education have been selected here, in order to set out the wider, relevant context for this study. Freire and Andreotti are associated with critical forms of global citizenship education and its theoretical foundations (Oxley & Morris, 2013). In addition, their work is connected to development education, the adjectival education identified as most relevant to this study. Development education has also been used interchangeably with GCE (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan & Bracken, 2011) and it can be difficult to divorce it from the recent GCE movement (Bourn, 2015). The next section sets out fundamental aspects of development education, its trajectory and influence in Ireland and connections to Freire. Then, I will explore Andreotti's significant contributions to the field, including her soft and critical framework (Andreotti, 2006).

1.2.1 Development education

Development education emerged in Europe and Ireland in the 1970s. Whilst it is unclear who first coined the term, civil society and non-governmental development organisations (NGDOs) are associated with its foundations (Borg, Turner, & Regan, 2012; Bourn, 2015; Dillon, 2018; Fiedler et al., 2011; Mesa, 2005). It arose initially as a perceived need to raise awareness amongst the public of issues of poverty and injustice in the global south. To an extent, development education has also been shaped by its context. Earlier manifestations were underpinned by the development agenda of the 1970s and 1980s, whilst globalisation and increasing interconnectedness provide the context for more recent iterations (Bourn, 2014; Mesa, 2005).

Development education in Ireland was initially shaped by Irish missionaries returning from countries in Africa and Asia in the 1950s and 1960s. Set within the context of a deeply Catholic society, they acted as a primary conduit of stories about poverty and inequality for many Irish communities during those decades (Fiedler et al., 2011). Since then, the sector has been heavily influenced by both informal and non-formal education actors, such as the youth sector and development NGDOs. The faith-based nature of a number of the most influential organisations, such as Concern and Trócaire, had a significant impact on the shape of development education in Ireland that is rooted in solidarity and underpinned by a strong values base and moral frame (Dillon, 2018; Khoo, 2011a). Development education is also characterised by other features that include an educational and pedagogical impetus, collaboration

between civil society and formal education actors and, contentious connections to the fundraising elements of NGDO work (Bourn, 2015; Dillon, 2018). Today, state control and a performative agenda in education impact significantly on its shape, though civil society, including development NGDOs, continue to play a role (Dillon, 2018; Gaynor, 2013). I will return to this point in the policy context section.

1.2.1.1 Freirean influences

Paulo Freire is the foundational theorist associated with development education. In the 1970s, advocates for the adjectival education were influenced by Freire's systemic view of oppression, his presence and lectures in Europe at the time and, his connection of first and third world issues (Borg et al., 2012; Bourn, 2020; Irwin, 2012; Khoo, 2011a; Scheunpflug & Asbrand, 2006). However, it would appear that his radical and transformative philosophy of education was espoused by development educators in the 1970s, as opposed to any direct involvement by Freire in its foundations. Nonetheless, his adoption as the father of development education was and continues to be significant (Bourn, 2020). Indeed, the initial alignment of development education with Freirean theory in the 1970s afforded it a distinct pedagogical approach. Moreover, it positioned development education within critical and educational theory as opposed to development theory *per se* (Bourn, 2015).

The theme of education as a transformative pursuit is at the heart of Freirean thought. Indeed, such was the vigour of his philosophy that it has been described as having “revolutionary intent” (Irwin, 2012, p. 46). Apple (2013) describes Freire as a scholar activist. Freire's powerful and active theory of education stands in contrast to his deep critique of what he referred to as the “banking approach” to education (Freire & Ramos, 1996). He coined the term to describe a system of education that viewed knowledge as a static body, something that could be deposited into students, who were seen as empty vessels in this approach. In naming and unveiling education as a form of banking, Freire addressed power and authority both outside and inside the classroom. He believed that curriculum was a form of control, maintaining the status quo in the interests of dominant groups. The effect was to remove education from reality, to value certain knowledge over others and to impose a mechanistic approach, where teacher-student relationships were characterised by power and passivity (Freire & Ramos, 1996).

At every level, Freire's theory of education ran contrary to the banking approach. For Freire, knowledge is not a dominant fixed body that is created "elsewhere", in order to be transmitted or, indeed, discovered in the classroom. Rather it is created and recreated in a dialogical relationship between teachers and students, with a view to transformation. Central to this is Freire's notion of praxis; the act of knowing, a process of ongoing dialogue, reflection and action to transform. It is based on a reciprocity of relationships between teacher and learner, and a view of knowledge that is deconstructed, constructed and liberated through critical dialogue, awareness and emotion (Freire & Ramos, 1996).

Freire's legacy is evident in both the articulation and practice of GCE today, through its focus on process and participatory methodologies and also the centrality of action. However, questions have arisen related to the transferability of his theory to other educational contexts, given its genesis in adult literacy programmes in Brazil (Bartlett, 2005). Moreover, some argue that Freire's philosophy can be interpreted as a form of indoctrination, an educational process that leads towards a determined outlook (Burbules, 1993; Ellsworth, 1989). He has also been critiqued by some who claim that he viewed education merely as a means to a political end. Irwin (2012) asks, "does politics come first for Freire? Is education really only a secondary or derivative element in his philosophy?" (2012, p. 44). Certainly, Freire viewed education as a potentially powerful response to oppression, but also believed that education is never neutral (Freire & Ramos, 1996). In addition, the political intent of his theory arose not only from its purpose, but also from its processes. It placed reciprocity of relationships and freedom at its heart, rather than authority and power. In this way, Freire rejected the idea of education as indoctrination and instead, connected it to the political, through a process of mutual dialogue and learning that is empowering for both teachers and students (Freire, 1994).

1.2.2 Soft and critical forms of GCE

Andreotti (2006) moved GCE towards a more rigorous and theoretically grounded field within a 21st century context. One of her most significant contributions is the development of her soft versus critical framework. Drawing on post-colonial theory, Andreotti presents a detailed and multifaceted framing of GCE approaches, offering two distinct interpretations. An analysis of soft forms of GCE identify poverty and helplessness as problems to be solved by individuals who are compelled to act out of a sense of a shared common humanity. This message is simple and easy to accept (Bryan, 2012; Smith,

2004). However, Andreotti makes a strong case for a critical form of global citizenship education that is rooted in concepts of injustice and inequality and a recognition of our complicity in structures that maintain, rather than change this dynamic. Andreotti's framework disrupts dominant narratives around western aid and the citizen's role within that. It offers what Sant et al. (2018) describe as a counter practice. Essentially, Andreotti also argues that the principles for change need to move from universalism to reflexivity, dialogue and an ethical relation to difference.

Andreotti's (2006) framework is regarded as a seminal contribution to the field (Bourn, 2020; Hartung, 2017; Mannion et al., 2011; Pashby et al., 2020). Ultimately, she challenges the moral frame through which GCE is explored and the assumptions that dominate current approaches. Although she acknowledges its complexity (de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012), she also problematises GCE practices as a projection of universal values, morals and beliefs. Her desire is to move the field beyond a soft, "doing good" feeling, to a challenging, politically and culturally bound area. She suggests that if we resist doing this, we are at risk of reinforcing notions of western superiority and linear modernisation that in turn, foreclose GCE's transformative intention (Andreotti, 2015). Where Andreotti's frame has been applied to practice, softer expressions have been identified in school practices and in particular, in the actions taken (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; Waldron et al., 2014). In approaching the field in this way, Andreotti took a real step towards the development of a new discipline. Through her writing, she reveals just how much we have to unlearn if we are to make true meaning of GCE (Andreotti, 2012).

However, Andreotti's frame has been critiqued for presenting GCE approaches as an either/or option, such a binary view denying nuances and possible approaches between both (Hartung, 2017). Andreotti herself has since stated that the soft versus critical frame is not necessarily about either/or, but both and more (Andreotti & Pashby, 2013). Moreover, she acknowledges the potential risks associated with both approaches which represent a dilemma for those committed to GCE (Tallon & McGregor, 2014). While softer approaches may contribute to paternalistic attitudes and actions, a more critical approach risks the onset of cynicism and apathy on the part of the learner. This highlights the importance of the affective domain within GCE learning (Bryan, 2012; Tallon & McGregor, 2014) and the centrality of dialogue within Andreotti's proposal for a more critical approach (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007). Bourn (2015) suggests that softer forms of GCE are a starting point for educators and learners. He

presents GCE as a learning process that can and should play a role in bringing participants along a more critical path. This contribution is significant in the context of this study, as it indicates that it is not the approach that is problematic *per se*, but rather how GCE is presented and interpreted in the classroom. This highlights the importance of examining GCE practices in the classroom in more detail, in order to understand if and how teaching and learning processes can contribute to moving towards more critical expressions of GCE (Bourn, 2015).

1.2.3 GCE: an umbrella for adjectival educations?

Increasingly, GCE is the term used to represent one or many of the adjectival educations that make it complete (Estellés & Fischman, 2020). There are a number of potential risks associated with this. The widespread appropriation of the term for varying and oftentimes, contradictory reasons, compromises its critical substance and risks reducing it to a buzzword (Dillon, 2018; Goren & Yemini, 2017). The foregrounding of very broad and ambitious ideals such as inclusion and equality can hinder a focus on political, legal and social frameworks, such as human rights and social justice. Moreover, understanding GCE as an umbrella term may minimise fusions that can take place across and between two or more educations, and the resultant different experiences and outcomes for learners. Mannion et al.'s (2011) conceptualisation of GCE as a nodal point for three adjectival educations offers a richer explanation of the field. Aligning citizenship education, development education and environmental education, the authors state that "Like an airport hub for meaning making, it (a nodal point) also creates distinctive points of departure and new agendas" (Mannion et al, 2011, p. 444). This helps to position GCE within the context of these subfield debates, giving each a distinct voice and contribution, whilst at the same time recognising convergences and suggesting, with caveats, that the whole or indeed part of the whole is, if not greater than, at least different to the sum of its parts.

In efforts to define GCE, it is established as a complex and multidimensional field that is informed by many disciplines. Yet, it also underpinned by core and consistent concepts that include human rights, justice and equality. These foundations demonstrate the strong values-based nature of the field, in addition to its connections to interconnectedness and interdependence. Together, these aspects seek to support citizens to understand and interact with a wide range of contemporary global justice issues, such as migration and climate change, in order to generate critical and reflective citizen

engagement and action. On the one hand, GCE presents education as a powerful process for social change, whilst on the other, its breadth and depth present conceptual and practical challenges. Moreover, its use as a political tool and its framing as a learned competence is a matter of robust debate which will be examined in detail in Chapter Two (Biccum, 2005; Mannion et al., 2011; Standish, 2014). The next section sets out the policy context for GCE at both international and national levels.

1.3 Policy context

Strong national and international policies have the potential to enhance and reinforce the status and legitimacy of GCE. Policy developments in the field somewhat mirror its conceptual trajectory, moving from a collection of subfields and traditions to a more overarching turn to the global today (Bourn, 2020; Mannion et al., 2011). Historically, GCE related policies have been characterised by two distinct and at times, contradictory agendas. The first is driven by a political desire to build support for both national and international citizenship or development programmes. The second is underpinned by an ethical impetus to develop an engaged and critical citizenry that acts for global justice (Bourn, 2015; Rajacic, Surian, Fricke, Krause, & Davis, 2010). Policy developments and frameworks for GCE-related areas have been primarily steered by two distinct parties – namely state actors, led by Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Education and civil society organisations and NGOs. Both parties make important and distinct contributions to the field. Since the 2000s, more disparate forms of GCE have coalesced within national governments and inter-governmental bodies. This section looks briefly at some of these policy developments.

1.3.1 International policy context

GCE, as a term, does not have a long history with respect to international policy. Nonetheless, whilst the nomenclature may be relatively recent, the trajectory of its associated adjectival educations and disciplines stretches further back (Bourn, 2020; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018). Within a European context, the concept of global education emerged through a movement led by the Council of Europe and the development of the Global Education Charter (1997). The movement sought to bring together several adjectival educations such as development education, environmental education and human rights education and, to gain political consensus for a form of global education at a European level (Wegimont,

2020). It was followed by a Maastricht Declaration in 2002 which set out a definition for global education and influenced the development of national strategies across Europe. This milestone marked an important shift in influence in the field of global education, as it signified increased state direction and support for GCE national policy (Bourn, 2020), though NGOs have continued to play an important role (Tarozzi, 2020).

Internationally, the United Nations has been to the fore in promoting human rights education and education for sustainable development, dedicating UN decades to each, respectively, between 1995-2004 and 2005-2014. The policy trajectory for development education dates to the 1970s, when the United Nations coined one of the first definitions. It stated:

Development education is concerned with issues of human rights, dignity, self-reliance and social justice in both developed and developing countries. It is concerned with the causes of under-development and the promotion of an understanding of what is in development, of how different countries go about undertaking development, and of the reasons for and ways of achieving a new international economic and social order (UN, 1975).

More recently, GCE has become part of the lexicon associated with adjectival educations concerned with social justice and action (OECD, 2018; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018; UNESCO, 2016), as international education policy has been marked by a “turn towards the global” (Mannion et al, 2011, p. 451). The roots for this derive from certain policies and inter-governmental initiatives associated with the United Nations, such as The Global Education First Initiative, in addition to narratives related to inclusive and peaceful societies and thriving economies (Bourn, 2015; Ruane, 2017; Tarozzi & Inguaggiato, 2018; UNESCO, 2015).

However, the formulation of a specific international goal related to GCE, has been one of the most significant shifts in policy (Bourn, 2020). In 2015, the United Nations adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as part of its 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and included a goal targeting several areas of education. In particular, Goal 4.7 embedded ESD and global citizenship into the agenda, requiring all United Nations member states to support the provision of GCE for all its citizens (UNESCO, 2016). Through the process of negotiations and the subsequent development of the SDGs, GCE gained significance as an important field in its own right, in addition to an avenue through which to

achieve the 2030 SDG agenda (UNESCO, 2016). This political initiative has been strengthened by developments within educational policy, specifically the publication of GCE guidelines for teachers and educators (UNESCO, 2015). It sets out GCE's cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioural learning dimensions and is the first document of its kind to set out key topics, learning objectives and outcomes, across the education continuum. In doing so, it serves to translate GCE conceptualisations into educational outcomes, relevant to the classroom. It is a comprehensive document and provides a significant stepping stone in establishing further credibility for the field. However, UNESCO's developments have also been critiqued for continuing to maintain colonial assumptions and a depoliticised view of GCE, with an emphasis on interconnectedness and community based action, rather than social justice and systemic change (Franch, 2019).

The most recent policy development relates to the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). In 2018, this influential programme included a global competence measurement (OECD, 2018).¹ The OECD states that the aim is to assess:

the capacity to analyse global and intercultural issues critically and from multiple perspectives...and to engage in open, appropriate and effective interactions with others from different backgrounds' (OECD, 2018, p. 4).

Crucially, the intention is also to assess global and intercultural education approaches in schools. This is a significant development as the assessment will provide valuable quantitative data on GCE in formal education. Moreover, the influence of PISA on shaping national and international educational policy is recognised (Grek, 2009). Nonetheless, the development and use of the framework has also been critiqued. Broadly, it is argued that standardised means of assessment such as PISA promote a neoliberal agenda (Simpson & Dervin, 2019) and therefore risk aligning GCE to processes that contradict its intent. Secondly, current iterations of the global competence include a strong intercultural focus which has raised questions about the capacity of a standardised assessment to measure values and attitudes across a broad range of cultural contexts (BBC, 2017; Scheunpflug, 2016). Thirdly, the strong competency focus reinforces the idea of GCE as qualification (Franch, 2019) whereby the emphasis is on a set of

¹ Ireland did not participate in the cognitive aspects of the 2018 assessment. It did administer a global competence questionnaire. Results are due on 2020.

prescriptive attitudes and skills that are underpinned by economic and security needs (Franch, 2019; Sant et al., 2018). Moreover, the decision of several countries not to participate minimises its impact as PISA results are recognised as having influenced national policy in the past (McCarthy, Kirkpatrick, Cosgrove, & Gilleece, 2013). While a lack of consensus for the assessment undermines this development, it does establish global education as a central strand of education, alongside science, numeracy and literacy. Though the outcomes are currently unknown, over time this policy development may also increase GCE's legitimacy and position within formal education.

Finally, it is important to note that alongside these affirmative policy developments for GCE, there are also opposing policy developments that highlight the contested role of global citizenship within education. Indeed, in extreme instances, these developments serve as a backlash against more critical forms (Bamber, 2020; Tarozi & Torres, 2018). Evidence for this can be found across Europe and the Western world and is couched in political discourse that pursues nationalist and integrationist concepts of citizenship (Tarozi & Torres, 2018). Tarozi & Torres (2018) describe it as a version of citizenship education that is "neo-assimilationist" (2018, p. 146), representing a policy backlash against cultural elements of GCE and the pursuit of citizenship education policies that are integrationist in character. The following section looks at the policy context for GCE in Ireland, its distinct national features and the extent to which this wider international backdrop is mirrored or otherwise in its strategies and developments.

1.3.2 National policy context

Until recently, the Irish policy context for GCE has evolved under the guises of a number of adjectival educations including, development education, human rights education, intercultural education and, more recently, education for sustainable development (Flaherty & Liddy, 2017; IHRC, 2011). Citizenship education, intercultural education and human rights education have featured somewhat in government education policy intentions. Indeed, having ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Ireland has obligations to ensure children have access to human rights education (Cosgrove & Gilleece, 2012; Irish Human Rights Commission, 2011). Furthermore, the 1998 Education Act sets out the role of education in promoting active citizenship, in addition to the role of schools to provide experiences that support social and civic learning opportunities (Cosgrove & Gilleece, 2012; Jeffers,

2008b; Kerr, McCarthy, & Smith, 2002; Niens & McIlrath, 2010). The next section will set out how the evolving context within post-primary education in Ireland is conducive or otherwise to GCE, in addition to considering very recent developments that have repositioned and reframed citizenship education intentions. For now, this section will focus on policy developments particularly as they relate to the development education sector in Ireland and recent initiatives within the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Education.

As evidenced within the wider European context, the interplay between state involvement and NGO influence is an important characteristic of GCE policy in Ireland and its historical trajectory. State financial support for development education, via Ireland's Official Development Assistance (ODA) programme has significantly influenced the shape of development education here. State programmes and support for development education date back to the 1970s and activities have ranged from raising awareness and increasing understanding of development issues, to campaigning for policy change (Fiedler et al., 2011; Krause, 2010). Initially, state policy focussed on supporting the supply of initiatives and activities in schools, the youth sector and community groups across Ireland. Within this approach, programmes were largely designed and delivered by actors in informal education, such as NGDOs and community-based organisations (Khoo, 2011a). In addition, NGOs and the development education civil society sector in Ireland have played significant roles in informing the shape of GCE policy in Ireland, through advocacy and networking (Tarozzi, 2020).

The early 2000s marked a significant turning point for development education policy in Ireland (Khoo, 2011b). Following a review of its approach, Irish Aid changed direction in a number of ways (Irish Aid, 2011).² Firstly, state policy is now more strategic and coordinated, having identified a number of partnerships across key sectors and areas. Formal education has featured prominently and strategic partnerships include an initial teacher education programme at primary level, the Development and Intercultural Education (DICE) project and a post-primary schools-based programme, Worldwide Global Schools (WWGS) (Global Education Network Europe, 2015).³ Secondly, state funding is now

² Irish Aid is the Irish government's official programme for overseas development.

³ The DICE project is a national initiative that seeks to embed development education and intercultural education as essential elements of initial teacher education at primary level in Ireland. WWGS is Ireland's

predominantly channelled to build the capacity of teachers to drive development education in their schools, as opposed to relying on external, informal educators. This development is particularly significant in the context of this study. As the responsibility shifts towards teachers to deliver GCE, a greater understanding of teaching and learning practices is required, in order to develop appropriate support. Thirdly, an increased demand for inter-departmental policy coherence has led to efforts to draw the Department of Education closer to development education policy and wider developments within the context of GCE. Indeed, Ireland is recognised as one of the few European countries where inter-departmental cooperation has resulted in positive developments (Global Education Network Europe, 2015; Tarozzi & Inguaggiato, 2018). Most recently, the development of the Irish National Strategy on Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) (DES, 2014) has been a catalyst in this process. Moreover, the introduction of the strategy served as a milestone for GCE in Ireland and also marked an official convergence of two adjectival educations closely associated with GCE. However, these advances in policy have also been open to critique, both in terms of their substance and orientation (Kawaga & Selby, 2015), and lack of implementation plans.

Further convergences were to take shape in 2015 and 2016, as Ireland's development education policies and programmes underwent a peer review carried out by Global Education Network Europe (Global Education Network Europe, 2015). In addition, international discussions which preceded the development of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), influenced discourse at a national level, as GCE was increasingly used, and used interchangeably, with development education and global education. Most recently, developments in Irish Aid's new strategy for development education have strengthened connections. This strategy identifies a special relationship with the Department of Education, whilst also framing development education under GCE which marks a significant departure from previous understandings (Dillon, 2018; Irish Aid, 2017).

Finally, to date, recent Irish educational policy has resisted nationalist concepts of citizenship. However, there are other factors that point to the contested nature of global citizenship education in schools. In the first instance, it is argued that broad educational policy in Ireland continues to be framed

national GCE programme for post-primary schools. It is fully funded by Irish Aid and managed by a consortium of two NGDOs and one formal education body.

by the needs of the economy and a reluctance to disturb the status quo (Lynch, Grummell, & Devine, 2012). Secondly, recent allegations from a powerful farmers' group that a climate action resource for teachers was state-sponsored indoctrination into a vegan lifestyle (Hillard, 2019), highlights that other systemic forces operate within the Irish educational system that can undermine more progressive policy developments (Waldron, Mallon, Martínez-Sainz, & Barry, 2020). Moreover, these factors point to the disruptive and controversial nature of GCE and counter forces that seek to pursue other educational agendas. These tensions will be further explored in Chapter Two.

The purpose of this section has been to highlight some of the most significant and relevant policy developments for GCE. It is acknowledged that all of these developments need to be engaged with critically. Debates related to the types of GCE that these policies envisage and promote will be further examined in Chapter Two.

1.4 Possibilities for GCE at post-primary level in Ireland: an evolving context

This section provides a contextual overview of the possibilities for GCE at post-primary level in Ireland. Recent years have seen significant curriculum reform and developments within this sector in general, in addition to specific reforms that will impact on junior cycle teaching and learning and citizenship education and GCE, into the future. Though the implementation of these reforms is still in its infancy, at a policy level, the developments represent both a repositioning and reframing of student learning and citizenship education that has implications for GCE. This section explores current and emerging opportunities for GCE at post-primary level and considers the extent to which they represent increasing space and status for citizenship education. In general, it will set out relevant features of broader post-primary reform for GCE and its participatory related pedagogy, whilst specifically, it will identify emerging opportunities for the expansion of citizenship education up to senior cycle education in Ireland. The section will also consider the potential for these developments to continue to reflect problematic and apolitical conceptualisations of GCE.

1.4.1 Junior cycle reform

The introduction of a new framework for junior cycle education in Ireland envisages significant changes in curriculum development and student learning at post-primary level. The framework is

underpinned by eight principles that include commitments to student learning, wellbeing, inclusion, participation, innovation and flexibility (NCCA, 2015). In addition, the framework also reorients a previous and dominant focus on subject curricula and instead insists that planning, curriculum delivery and assessment be informed by 24 statements of learning and eight key skills (NCCA, 2015). These developments are significant for GCE. On paper, they represent several new opportunities for a more extensive and formal integration of GCE-related learning across junior cycle education. For example, the 24 statements of learning include the intentions that students will: have an awareness of personal values and an understanding of the process of moral decision making; appreciate and respect how diverse values, beliefs and traditions have contributed to the communities and culture in which she/he live; value what it means to be an active citizen, with rights and responsibilities in local and wider contexts; understand the origins and impacts of social, economic and environmental aspects of the world around her/him; have the awareness, knowledge, skills, values and motivation to live sustainably, and; take action to safeguard and promote her/his wellbeing and that of others (NCCA, 2015). Furthermore, a number of the eight key skills include learning dimensions that are intrinsically connected to GCE, including, thinking creatively and critically, developing good relationships and managing conflict, listening and expressing myself, discussing and debating and, contributing to make the world a better place (NCCA, 2015). Indeed, a recent ESD audit of the new framework stated that it “provides ample opportunity for students to encounter key competencies for sustainability” and a “facilitative environment” (NCCA, 2018, p.33) for strategies such as Ireland’s National Strategy for Education for Sustainable Development (Department of Education and Skills, 2012).

Subsequently, these far-reaching reforms are acknowledged as containing some progressive educational notions (Printer, 2020) that have the potential to expand spaces for GCE-related learning. However, concerns remain that these developments may be overshadowed by ongoing neo-liberal tendencies related to individualism, performativity and problematic interpretations of teacher and school agency (Mooney-Simmie, 2014). Moreover, it is acknowledged that the translation of these policy opportunities into classroom practice is heavily dependent on appropriate teacher professional development, capacity and interest (Gleeson, 2012; Mooney-Simmie, 2014; NCCA, 2018) and indeed leadership support (Doggett, Grummell, & Rickard, 2016; McSharry & Cusack, 2016). Based on this

latter concern, further recent developments at post-primary level in Ireland indicate that the patronage and management of post-primary schools in Ireland is diversifying, specifically with the recent entrance of Educate Together at post-primary level (O’Flaherty et al., 2018). Educate Together has been a patron body for state-funded primary schools for 40 years and has recently expanded into post-primary level. Its ethos is underpinned by an equality-based approach that includes a child-centred and democratic-led approach to its school management and curriculum delivery (Educate Together, 2004). This ethos feeds into school culture and classroom practice and early indications suggest that this approach and network will be particularly conducive to GCE values and approaches.

1.4.2 Curricular opportunities for GCE within junior cycle education

More specifically, at a subject curricular level, GCE as a standalone subject does not have an official or discrete statutory status within post-primary education in Ireland. Rather, as illustrated above, key tenets and elements are integrated across the post-primary system in a number of ways. These include extracurricular activities, school events, the integration of global themes into established subject areas and, in some instances, discrete modules with dedicated time allocations (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Liddy, 2012; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; Sant et al., 2018). The latter approach is the focus of this study. While opportunities for GCE have been identified across several subject areas (Honan, 2005; NCCA, 2018), to date, certain subjects and years have been more closely associated with the field. These include Civic, Social, and Political Education (CSPE), Geography, Home Economics and Religious Education (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; NCCA, 2018). More recently, under curriculum reform, other subjects have also made strides in integrating opportunities for GCE-related learning, specifically, Business Studies and Science (NCCA, 2018). However, there is a dearth of research to illustrate the extent to which these opportunities are enacted in classrooms. Bryan and Bracken’s (2011) study demonstrates how GCE-related issues are reflected in subject textbooks and wider school activities but as yet, there is little insight into how these opportunities filter down into GCE related learning for students. This is a particular concern for this study.

Within junior cycle education, the introduction of CSPE as a core and state-examined subject in 1999, marked a significant turning point for citizenship education at post-primary level.⁴ For nearly 20 years, it was studied by all students aged 12-15 years old and was based on seven core concepts that are closely aligned to GCE. These included rights & responsibilities, human dignity, stewardship, development, law, democracy and interdependence. CSPE has been credited with significantly boosting the status and presence of citizenship education within the formal curriculum (McCarthy et al., 2013), and the profile of GCE in schools. Wilson (2015) argues that CSPE contributed to increased awareness of social justice issues amongst students and also connected students to the wider world, civil society and the work of NGOs. Nonetheless, shortcomings and problematic practices were also identified (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Jeffers, 2008b; Wilson, 2015). For example, the centralised, competitive and exams-driven nature of secondary schooling in Ireland constrains citizenship education practices, with studies indicating that many CSPE teachers opt for safe and manageable practices that result in more measurable and certain outcomes (Bryan, 2019; Wilson, 2015). Moreover, CSPE's 70-hour allocation over a three-year period compared to 240 hours allocated to subjects such as English, Irish and Mathematics, compromised the active and participatory dimensions of its curriculum and reduced its status and profile in schools. Taken together, this suggests that although CSPE has provided spaces to explore GCE related issues, the realisation of more critical and participatory forms of GCE practice within this subject area have fallen short, in part because of the context in which it is situated.

Since 2017, CSPE has been reframed as part of the wider redevelopment of junior cycle education detailed above. The subject is now one of four main pillars within a Wellbeing specification that is compulsory for all students at this level (NCCA, 2017).⁵ Schools can choose from a number of implementation options that allocate a minimum of 70 hours to CSPE or a maximum of 100 hours (NCCA, 2017). In effect, this second option represents the possibility for schools to increase time allocations for citizenship education, though as yet, it remains unclear how many schools will implement it. Furthermore, the wider Wellbeing specification includes additional components that can complement

⁴ Irish post-primary education is divided into two cycles – junior cycle education for 12-15 year olds and senior cycle education for 16-18 year olds.

⁵ The Wellbeing specification also includes Physical Education, Social, Personal and Health Education and Guidance Education. It is allocated 400 hours within the junior cycle programme (NCCA, 2017).

and extend opportunities for GCE-related learning at junior cycle level. These include planning for extra-curricular activities, a focus on student voice and student-teacher relationships and also, considerations in relation to school and classroom culture (NCCA, 2017). However, these reforms are in their infancy and it is not yet clear if GCE will emerge as a strong dimension within Wellbeing programmes in schools.

The emphasis on curriculum development and autonomy at school level suggests opportunities for teachers and schools to pursue areas of interest, however Priestley, Biesta, & Robinson (2012, 2015) have demonstrated that such an approach to curriculum reform must also take structures and cultures into account. Moreover, there is a risk that more diluted and softer approaches to citizenship education may emerge in practice. Bryan (2019) maintains that the reframing of CSPE within wellbeing amplifies a focus on individual responsibility and deflects any interrogation of the political or social structures that perpetuate inequalities. Consequently, although the potential to increase time allocated to GCE and CSPE is welcome, significant work remains to be done in several areas that include, a stronger articulation of the links and connections between citizenship and wellbeing, support for implementation and the urgent need to address persistent issues related to softer forms of citizenship education in policy and practice.

1.4.3 Transition Year

Transition Year (TY) is offered by approximately 75% of secondary schools in Ireland (Clerkin, n.d.). The implementation of TY offers schools and teachers greater autonomy in terms of flexibility of approach and timetabling options. In addition, TY programmes oftentimes have a strong focus on community engagement and social and entrepreneurial learning and skills (Jeffers, 2011; NCCA, 1993). There is no formal curriculum, although official guidelines encourage studies related to CSPE, social and environmental studies. Within an Irish context, Transition Year (TY) has also been identified as an important space for GCE (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007; Honan, 2005).⁶ More recently, schools have been encouraged to develop TY Units.⁷ This is an important and more progressive context for GCE. While Bryan (2012) argues that dominant curricular constructions of GCE are predominantly influenced by textbooks and NGDO-related materials, TY, as a less curricularised space, has the potential

⁶ Transition Year (TY) is a full-time, optional year within post-primary education that occurs between the completion of the junior cycle and the commencement of Leaving Certificate studies.

⁷ 45-hour programmes of study focussed on a specific area.

to open up new possibilities for GCE practices. This has encouraged the development of many GCE-related units in schools, primarily driven by teachers and specific to each school context. These units offer one of the few opportunities to study GCE-related issues as a discrete subject area at post-primary level. In addition, TY has provided spaces for significant GCE initiatives and programmes such as the Young Social Innovators and Worldwide Global Schools (McCarthy et al., 2013). In parallel however, reports also highlight that some students and parents have described TY as a “doss year” (Clerkin, 2019, p.60).⁸ This serves as a reminder that educational provision across schools can vary significantly but also suggests that TY stands apart within post-primary education. While on the one hand this offers opportunities to think differently, it also suggests that it risks being isolated from students’ other teaching and learning experiences across the post-primary continuum.

1.4.4 The introduction of Politics and Society

Senior cycle education in Ireland has been under review since 2016. Based on public consultations and interim reports, indications suggest that there will be strong parallels between reform at this level and that which has taken place within the junior cycle. Meanwhile, one further significant development that is relevant to GCE has taken place within senior cycle and represents a promotion for citizenship education at post-primary level. In 2016, Politics and Society was introduced as a new, optional subject for examination at Leaving Certificate level (NCCA, 2016). In the current context, this national examination is a high stakes assessment for students and schools, that has a significant cascading effect on the position and status of subjects. Politics and Society was examined for the first time in June 2018 with over 900 students, from across 41 schools, sitting the examination. It is now available to all interested schools. The specification for Politics and Society has strong connections with GCE. Its four strands of study include power and decision-making, active citizenship, human rights and responsibilities and globalisation and localisation (NCCA, 2016). In addition, the subject places an emphasis on teaching and learning that includes discussion and debate, the use of media, research and reflective practice (NCCA, n.d.). Although a recent, and under-researched development, the establishment of this subject

⁸ In this report, Clerkin (2019) reported a “non-negligible” minority of students described a “lacklustre, bored experience characterised by perceptions of doing nothing” (Clerkin, 2019, p. 60)

strengthens the status of citizenship education in formal education. It provides students with an opportunity to study GCE-related issues at the highest level in post-primary education and offers teachers renewed vigour and professional support. This should enhance GCE's profile and substance in schools and the capacity to teach and learn citizenship education. However, questions remain as to which students will access this optional course, in addition to the extent to which it can build on those more ad hoc experiences of GCE heretofore. It is hoped that this study can contribute to supporting the implementation of these reforms with empirical evidence from the classroom.

1.5 A personal biography and rationale

When I began my doctoral studies, I had worked as a development education practitioner for 15 years. Initially, I started out my career as a post-primary school teacher of Civic, Social & Political Education (CSPE) and History. This introduced me to rewarding experiences of working with young people on social justice issues and also to the use of active learning methodologies. However, my more formal introduction to development education occurred when I joined the development education team at Trócaire. Here, I was heavily influenced by the organisation's social justice agenda in Ireland and its partnership and rights-based approach to its development work overseas. For 12 years, I worked with teachers and students across the island of Ireland, visiting over one hundred schools and facilitating hundreds of thematic workshops for students and interested teachers. Whilst these were frequently one off events, they were also very positive and inspiring experiences that offered glimpses of teachers and students engagement in a range of school-based initiatives in relation to global justice issues. In addition, I co-developed a human rights education programme which sought to develop more sustainable engagement with clusters of teachers and students. During my time at Trócaire, I also wrote teaching resources for use in the classroom, with little opportunity to pilot them or truly understand if and how they were used in the classroom, or to what effect. I believe that this experience is one important factor in leading me to the research questions in this study. I also advocated for increased space and opportunity for development education within the formal education curriculum in Ireland. I was absorbed in that work for many years, rather zealously and at times, unquestioningly.

In 2007, I attended a conference organised by the Irish Development Education Association (IDEA) at which Vanessa Andreotti gave the keynote address. It was a challenging contribution and I

was struck by her analysis of the sector and her framing of development education's different motivations, approaches and outcomes. Here was an academic taking development education seriously. She had sought to get under the skin of development education and move the field beyond embedded debates and towards a theorising of a discipline. The publication of *Learning to Read the World* (Bryan & Bracken, 2011) brought me back to the reality of development education for teachers and students, and the issues they encountered in post-primary contexts. The authors applied Andreotti's theoretical frame of soft versus critical GCE to explore and analyse GCE in secondary schools. I was struck by the centrality and power of the teachers' voices and the valuable and essential perspectives presented in the study. The study also challenged me as an NGDO practitioner of development education, as it problematised elements of established practices. It was a striking and strong account of some of the challenges teachers faced, as they strove to implement GCE in their schools. The rigour of, and insights from the study also propelled me to reflect more deeply on the valuable contribution research can make in advancing the field. Yet it also presented a tension for me. Through my experiences in Trócaire, I met countless teachers who were passionately committed to social justice and human rights. I also heard from students about the importance they placed in their experiences of development education as an opportunity to express themselves, develop their confidence and self-esteem and contribute to something they felt was meaningful. Yet, research indicated that dominant policies and approaches were problematic. This became a tension I wanted to investigate further.

Moreover, it was the first time I encountered the idea of ethnographic studies and I was fascinated by the idea. It gave scholarly expression to that question that had played on my mind: what exactly happens when teachers and students are left alone to explore GCE in the classroom? I had met many teachers and spent time in over one hundred classrooms exploring development education with students, but I had never had the opportunity to observe how teachers and students engaged with GCE when the 'special visitor' left or when teachers returned from their 'away days' and study visits.⁹ How exactly did teachers and students negotiate GCE in the classroom? This is an essential question to ask and seek to answer if we are to be genuine and credible in our supports and programmes.

⁹ Visiting schools and classrooms to facilitate workshops was and continues to be a common activity for development educators and NGDO personnel in Ireland.

1.6 Thesis outline

There are nine chapters in this thesis. Together they present a qualitative case study of GCE teaching and learning practices within classroom contexts. The following chapter presents the literature review for the study. It critically examines literature related to GCE in formal education contexts and identifies gaps in current understanding, in order to highlight the significance of this present study. Chapter Three sets out the study's conceptual framework. It presents my own epistemological and ontological perspectives, in addition to the study's theoretical foundations, critical pedagogy and social constructivism. I provide a rationale for the selection of these two theories and conclude the chapter with an exploration of an additional three concepts that also inform the study: voice, power and dialogue. In Chapter Four, I detail the research methodology selected. Situated within a qualitative research paradigm and rooted in a social constructivist interpretation, I provide a rationale for the particular approach selected and define the case study standards applied to this research. This is followed by a description of the case and the selection process. The remainder of the chapter presents an overview of the research methods (participant observation, semi-structured interviews and focus groups), in addition to addressing issues of consent, data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes with a response to matters of validity.

Chapters Five to Seven comprise the study's findings. Data from three settings and three different sources are used across each of these chapters. Chapter Five presents contextual overviews of each setting and is focussed on the translation of GCE into classroom curricula. It identifies the crucial and powerful role of teachers in this context and the challenges and possibilities for practice. Chapter Six is focussed on participation within GCE and presents a typology of practice that classifies three constituent pillars (pedagogy, purpose and person) and a number of orientations through which they can be filtered. The typology seeks to illustrate distinctive aspects of GCE practice that together play determining roles in shaping its participatory and emancipatory nature in the classroom. Finally, Chapter Seven critically analyses the spaces created for discussion within GCE classroom practice. It sets out key characteristics and teaching strategies, in addition to exploring a number of limitations in interpretation and implementation.

Chapter Eight is a synthesis of the study's central findings and a consideration of their broader implications. Within this, particular attention is afforded to teacher and student concerns, in addition to the wider context in which GCE classroom practice is situated. To conclude the thesis, Chapter Nine returns to the central research questions and responds accordingly. The chapter also addresses limitations identified within the study and considers recommendations for the support of future research and the support of practice.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature on GCE is informed by academic discourse and practitioner-based inquiry. These studies emanate from a diverse range of disciplines and theories (Bourn, 2020; Parmenter, 2011) and are grappling with a diffuse and sometimes contentious field (Davies, 2006; Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Goren & Yemini, 2017). This chapter presents a critical review of literature related to GCE within formal education contexts. Specifically, it will explore three significant themes. First, it considers debates related to the articulation of GCE within formal education. The extent to which its fundamental philosophy and intent is compromised by this wider context is central to this theme. Second, the review presents a critical examination of GCE practices in schools. This includes an exploration of curricular constructions of GCE, in addition to an interrogation of the pedagogical approaches and methodologies that are associated with the field. Finally, the chapter examines experiences from the coalface. It focusses on teachers' and students' experiences of GCE teaching and learning and current understandings of classroom practice.

2.1 The context of formal education for GCE practices

The wider context of formal education has significant implications for global citizenship education practices. An important debate in the literature is the extent to which GCE's radical and transformative agenda can be achieved within formal education. Educational policies that drive GCE in schools are critiqued, as is the influence of dominant actors such as NGOs (Biccum, 2015; Bourn, 2015; Mannion et al., 2011). More fundamentally, it is argued that broader education policies and practices, predominantly underpinned by neo-liberal values and principles, represent a competing ideology to GCE's foundational theories and concepts (Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Gaynor, 2013; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). As a result, GCE and formal education can run in opposition to each other to the extent that more critical forms of GCE are diluted or indeed corrupted (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gaynor, 2013; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). Debates within this area are characterised by two distinct arguments: one is dominated

by a sense of determinism that portrays the education system, its schools and curricula, as a means of control, reproduction and a maintenance of the status quo (Apple, 1993, 2013; Ball, 2009; Devine, 2003); the other puts forward a vision of education as a site of possibility and transformation (de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994; Waldron & Oberman, 2016). Fundamentally however, efforts to practice critical forms of GCE in formal education contexts is a complex endeavour that should not be underestimated.

The social and economic reproductive nature of education systems is firmly established (Apple, 2004; Apple, 2013; Bowles & Gintis, 1979; Giroux, 1983; Lynch, 1989). The school is understood as an institution intrinsically connected to society and in turn, influenced by dominant ideologies that serve to maintain the status quo (Apple, 2004; Apple, 2013). The effect is the perpetuation of social inequalities and education systems that reproduce the values and ideologies of market forces (Apple, 2004; Ball, 2008; Lynch, Grummell, & Devine, 2012). Within an Irish context, Lynch (1989) argues that inequalities in education are reinforced through cultural and contextual factors, as opposed to state policy *per se*. She contends that basic state provision for education offers students certain universal experiences through curriculum content, school organisation and assessment. Yet, reproductive tendencies are filtered through localised, extra-curricular provision and a “particularistic” treatment of students that is identity-based. This can determine what counts as knowledge, who should have access to that knowledge and how that knowledge can be consumed (Lynch, 1989). Indeed, previous studies have identified a tendency for privileged students to have greater access to GCE (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Goren & Yemini, 2017).

The current neoliberal values and policies that pervade education manifest in ways characterised by individualism, performativity and the commodification of knowledge (Ball, 2009; Bryan, 2012; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Francis & Mills, 2017; Lynch et al., 2012; Mooney-Simmie, 2014). The effect is felt across the system, from curriculum development through to classroom practice. It also impacts on GCE in schools. The purpose and role of education and schooling risks being driven by market demands and in the service of the economy, rather than society (Apple, 2013; Ball, 2009; Bourn, 2014; Silke, Brady, Boylan, & Dolan, 2018). Moreover, educational policies and initiatives are perceived to serve the status quo, supporting learners to adapt to the world around them, rather than to change it (Mannion et al., 2011). Within an Irish context, previous studies identify limited time allocated to GCE due to an over-

emphasis on academic achievement and a tendency to rely on individual teachers' efforts rather than the application of a more systemic approach at policy level (Gaynor, 2013; Bryan & Bracken, 2011). Arising from this context, the pursuit of integrating GCE into formal education systems and structures has been described as akin to attempting to fit square pegs into round holes (Gaynor, 2013). The round hole represents the dominant view of education that acts to maintain the status quo, with a pursuant emphasis on results and employment skills and to the detriment of social and civic concerns. Further challenges and impacts are also considered in the next section.

Nevertheless, there are indications that this environment is changing to a more conducive one for GCE practices in Ireland. The previous chapter set out a number of recent and progressive reforms at post-primary level in Ireland such as equality-based schools and a more flexible curriculum. In addition, it is argued that teachers and students have a role to play and can, indeed subvert the system (de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Freire, 1985; Manke, 1997). This argument is of central importance to this study as it is concerned with classroom negotiations and the implementation of GCE by teachers. Indeed, Apple (2004) maintains that practice in the classroom can determine the extent to which dominant or official knowledge is critiqued or otherwise. He states:

successful ways of countering the rightist reconstruction cannot be fully articulated at a theoretical level. They begin and end in many ways at the level of educational practice (Apple, 2004, p.41).

Andreotti (2012) also reflects this viewpoint, placing great emphasis on the role of teachers in determining how knowledge is constructed or reconstructed in the classroom. She refers to educators as cultural brokers and crucial in determining the reproductive or transformational nature of educational learning.

The question of whether it (education) will reproduce or transform society relies, at the end of the day, on the capacity of teachers to negotiate their work, the constraints of their work and their priorities in each school (Andreotti, 2012, p. 9).

Significantly, she also asserts that there is a need for greater intellectual spaces within education and teacher education, particularly in the face of its commercialisation. However, some argue that this view of teachers' power and agency within education and the classroom is problematic (Biesta, Priestley, &

Robinson, 2015; Deacon, 2006; Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). Mannion et al. (2011) suggest that there is little acknowledgement within Andreotti's work of the structures and outside influencing factors that teachers and schools are subjected to. Priestley et al. (2015) argue that teacher agency is a phenomenon that is reliant upon a number of interconnected factors. These include teachers' personal and professional biographies and experiences, in addition to the cultures and structures within which they operate. This treatment of teacher agency establishes it as a dynamic and temporal phenomenon, something that teachers can or cannot achieve, based on a series of interlinked elements. It suggests that agency is not fixed, but is reliant on teachers' own capacities, in addition to their wider contexts that can either help or hinder the achievement of agency.

The tensions between the nature of more transformative forms of GCE and formal education are also highlighted by Estelles & Fischmann (2020) who argue that teacher education discourse in relation to GCE is overly idealised and simplistic. They contend that there is a dominant tendency to place undue responsibility on schools and teachers to tackle and indeed, solve, global issues, without due regard for the neoliberal context of formal education, compared to the pedagogical and political complexities GCE assumes (2020). In Ireland, this is further exacerbated by evidence arising from studies that illustrate the types of teaching and learning practices that have been dominant in schools, particularly at post-primary level. It has been argued that these continue to be characterised by didactic and teacher-led learning (Gleeson, 2012; Vieluf, Kaplan, Klieme, & Bayer, 2012). Moreover, it has been established that very limited control or power is afforded to students in school settings (Devine, 2003; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). In addition, Gleeson (2012) suggests that there is resistance to constructivism, a dominant theory of learning that is associated with more student-centred strategies and active and co-operative learning (Fosnot, 1996; Phillips, 1995). Whilst recent reforms at post-primary level in Ireland envisage and should precipitate significant shifts in teaching approaches and student experiences in schools (NCCA, 2017, 2015), these concerns are important to note as they highlight potential challenges for integrating GCE into formal education contexts, particularly in relation to participatory pedagogies. This issue will be explored further in the next section.

Notwithstanding these challenges, there is one final theme to note related to the presence of GCE within formal education. As Waldron & Oberman (2016) suggest of Human Rights Education (HRE), the

idea remains that the very presence of GCE in formal education can be transformative in itself. Both its content and pedagogical approaches run counter to dominant and prevailing neo-liberal forces and conceptualisations of education. GCE can offer a different, alternative view to the status quo. Indeed, despite their deep critique, Selby & Kawaga (2014) refer to the possibility of “shadow spaces” (2014, p. 26). They describe these spaces as existing within formal institutions, where individuals or groups can experiment and operate in ways that exceed formal structures and systems. Gaynor (2013) echoes this and suggests that GCE-related education can attempt to carve out spaces within a constrained and far from enabling environment. However, she cautions:

in driving the pegs through, we take care not to deform or damage them in any way. In other words, in attempting to implement development education in formal contexts, it is imperative that we examine and analyse our approaches and practices in the context of the wider power relations, structural imperatives and institutional structures, discourses and practices with which they interact (Gaynor, 2013, p. 15).

This present study seeks to more fully understand teachers’ and students’ efforts in carving out these spaces and the challenges and limitations they encounter. It will explore the extent to which it is possible to implement more transformative forms of GCE in formal education classrooms and the impact of wider power structures on those endeavours.

2.2 The erosion of intent? The impact of actors and agendas

Critical analysis of GCE within formal education contexts has exposed some weaknesses that threaten its original transformative intent. State policy and NGDO influence have been identified as playing significant roles in determining the types of GCE that are practised in schools (Biccum, 2005; Bourn, 2020; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007; Tarozzi, 2020; Waldron et al., 2014). For example, it is maintained that a reliance on NGDOs for GCE has resulted in an overly simplistic and charity-led approach. Moreover, connections between NGDOs and GCE have contributed to a particular view of the global south and a paternalism that fails to address matters of complicity (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Tallon & McGregor, 2014; Tallon, 2012). Bryan & Bracken (2011) suggest that the use of NGDO materials in schools has resulted in an over-emphasis on empathy and a “them and us” dichotomy. In addition, NGDOs’ conceptualisations of GCE are oftentimes underpinned by a strong

values-base and action components associated with campaigning and fundraising (Bourn, 2015; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). However, it is also acknowledged that some NGOs do foreground education and learning within their development education initiatives (Bourn, 2015) and in some cases provide pivotal support for the development of GCE teacher education (Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). Most recently, (Tarozzi, 2020) has asserted that, with caveats, NGOs should continue to play a vital role in the development of GCE, particularly in terms of its values-base, pedagogical approaches and unique and critical global outlook.

Regarding state formulations, it is argued that GCE is frequently used as a vehicle to increase support for and further the agendas of the aid sector, rather than a process that asks critical questions or challenges dominant development narratives (Biccum, 2015). The risk is that GCE becomes a tool of government policy, in order to pursue neoliberal agendas and to respond to economic and cultural needs arising from globalisation, rather than a genuine attempt to extend the meaning of citizenship (Biccum, 2005; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Mannion et al., 2011). Mannion et al. (2011) refer to this as a “curricular turn towards the global” (Mannion et al., 2011, p. 451). They suggest that this development is largely rhetorical in nature, dominated by cultural and economic needs and with little evidence of impact in the classroom. In addition, they highlight a distinct lack of a political dimension within this discourse and a view of citizenship that is about adapting to a globalised world, rather than an understanding of citizenship that seeks to bring about positive change (Mannion et al., 2011).

Those positioned within more radical traditions of GCE set out further factors that have resulted in what Bryan (2011) refers to as the “de-clawing” of GCE. Alongside the dominance of a neo-liberal forces, it is maintained that efforts to mainstream GCE within formal education risk diluting its transformative agenda (Bryan, 2011; Selby & Kagawa, 2014). With the support of empirical evidence, Bryan maintains that development education in Ireland is failing to live up to its radical intent (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bryan, 2012). Her research exposes impediments within school structures such as truncated timetables and a focus on examinations. These features impede teachers’ aspirations and original aims that are falling short, in part because of the wider context in which they teach. Based on teachers’ self-reported descriptions of their practice, the study found that GCE in formal education varied considerably across schools and was “a patchy, fragmented and marginalised feature of the formal

curriculum” (Bryan, 2011, p. 186). In addition, Selby & Kawaga (2014) argue that GCE has become so mainstream that it is now part of the status quo and is no longer a voice that questions, critiques or explores viable alternatives (Kawaga & Selby, 2015). They suggest that in order to achieve recognition within formal education, GCE’s critical agenda has been sacrificed. For example, they ask why economic growth, globalisation and consumerism are left unchallenged within development education and ESD narratives. Consequently, they argue that GCE and its related subfields are at risk of striking a Faustian bargain. The bargain the authors refer to here is the movement of adjectival educations from the margins of educational curriculum and policy, towards a more central position that has also resulted, consciously or not, in an alignment with the very systems and approaches they seek to challenge (Selby & Kawaga, 2014; Bryan, 2011). Whilst it could be argued that recent educational reform at post-primary level in Ireland has taken a more progressive approach to ESD, including opportunities for students to debate issues related to sustainable development within Business Studies and CSPE, more critical interpretations remain at the margins and reliant, for the most part, on teacher capacity and disposition (NCCA, 2018). Finally, these radical perspectives are not without critique. Bourn (2005) offers a more pragmatic approach and has described Selby’s work as countercultural, to the extent that it risks positioning GCE as marginal and idealistic. It is a challenge for those within more critical traditions of GCE, a tension between remaining rooted in theory whilst at the same time, attempting to apply those principles to practice (Franch, 2019; Marshall, 2011).

Even at the point of conceptualisation, GCE faces serious challenges that undermine its transformative and radical intent (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007; Waldron et al., 2014). Though currently, we have little insight into classroom practice, the consequences of following an apolitical route are clear. Whilst the debate as to whether critical GCE is possible within formal education contexts is inconclusive, it is clear that the task should not be underestimated. The ideals that underpin GCE place significant expectations at the classroom door. Further research is required in order to more deeply understand the impact of these combined factors on classroom practices and on teachers and students themselves. Considerations include, teachers’ capacity to transcend structural forces and indeed the extent to which students are also impacted by broader systems within which they live and learn. What are the implications of these competing ideologies for how GCE is practised? Do they

manifest in the classroom and if so, how do teachers and students respond? These are central concerns for this study. There is increasing evidence to suggest that a version of GCE will become part of a wider global education movement (Bourn, 2020; Franch, 2019; OECD, 2018; Sant et al., 2018). The question is whether it can retain or indeed regain its radical thrust within a system dominated by neo-liberal forces and where ideologies contrast and are competing against each other. Moreover, further research is required in order to understand the possibilities for GCE teaching and learning to navigate these tensions and move towards a more critical practice. While some studies suggest that teachers strive, yet struggle, to move towards a radical ideal (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bully, 2009), there is a paucity of evidence from the classroom or young people in this important area. To date, we do not understand the extent to which negotiations in the classroom can contribute to this debate. Can classroom interactions transcend the limitations of policy and remain true to the radical and transformative intent of GCE? Can softer and less political interpretations provide, as Bourn suggests (2015), an inroad for deeper and more transformative GCE at the point of practice? The classroom-based nature of this study and its focus on teachers and students intends to contribute towards expanding our understanding of the role of GCE teaching and learning in this regard.

2.3 GCE practices in formal education

As has been established, educational theory and policy formulations set out extensive targets and objectives for GCE, its teachers and learners (Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Irish Aid, 2017; UNESCO, 2015). Desired outcomes relate to global awareness, critical thinking, a sense of interconnectedness and transformative change. Together these intentions suggest GCE is an educational endeavour that seeks to address a multitude of global justice issues, in addition to several dimensions of teaching and learning that include cognitive, socioemotional and behavioural aspects (UNESCO, 2015). Furthermore, students and teachers are expected to embrace and implement classroom practices that are associated with pedagogical innovation and more participatory forms of teaching and learning (Bourn, 2020; Bryan & Bracken, 2010; McCormack & O’Flaherty, 2010; Yemini et al., 2019). To begin, this section will look at curricular constructions of GCE and debates related to its core substance. This will be followed with an exploration of pedagogical concerns that relate to the participatory methodologies and discussion-based approaches associated with the field.

2.3.1 Curricular constructions of GCE

Curricular constructions address a number of areas that include the knowledge (substantive and procedural), balance, breadth, coherence and progression of teaching and learning programmes (Parker, Valencia, & Lo, 2017; Sant et al., 2018). The role of knowledge and the extent of its relevance to GCE practices has been an area of considerable debate. Most iterations of GCE marry both substantive and procedural interpretations of knowledge, recognising that awareness of the wider world is incomplete without the application of critical thinking and critical literacy (Andreotti, 2006; Tormey, 2014). However, the premise that such an interpretation of knowledge will lead to action and transformational change has been challenged (Bryan & Vavrus, 2005; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Selby, 2002). For example, Selby (2002) argues for a greater emphasis on relational aspects of GCE, maintaining that knowledge alone will not result in the radical interconnectedness that transformation requires. By contrast, others contend that GCE's knowledge base has been neglected, in favour of more action oriented GCE (Bourn, 2015), or a utilitarian interpretation of skills as a competency (Mannion et al., 2011; Standish, 2014). These debates highlight certain challenges for GCE curricular constructions in order to achieve depth and balance across knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours.

Bourn (2015) contends that the knowledge base for GCE is not deep enough. For example, he suggests that meaningful development education requires knowledge about international development. Indeed, the potential substance of GCE is extensive and can include subject content related to development and aid, conflict and reconciliation, food insecurity, poverty and wealth, globalisation and more. However, to date, its substance has been critiqued for being overly Eurocentric and paternalistic in practice and, significantly influenced by NGDO action-oriented practices, at times, to the detriment of learning as a valid and important process. Standish (2014) also addresses GCE's knowledge base or, as he sees it, the lack of a knowledge base. Within his probing study of UK policy and practice, he critiques the field for its focus on skills and for what he suggests is an absence of subject knowledge and an adequate knowledge framework. Standish focuses on the ambiguity of global education, particularly in relation to its diversity of content and suggests that this is part of its Achilles heel. Ellis (2016) also examines this area, with a focus on political literacy. She suggests the field has been hampered by "fragmented understandings, aims and efforts" (2016, p. 19), and by weak theoretical and philosophical roots. Her

contention is that there has been a lack of attention to political and international frameworks within the practice of GCE, and a reluctance, on the part of educators, to address political ideologies and debates. This is a common weakness highlighted in literature, that teachers tend to avoid topics or issues that are deemed political or controversial (Brown, 2010; Goren & Yemini, 2017).

With the exception of UNESCO's (2015) recent contribution, the dearth of universal frameworks for GCE is perhaps unsurprising, given the diverse and multi-disciplinary nature of the field. While it has already been acknowledged that one single framework may not be possible or desirable (Bourn, 2014; Sant et al., 2018), the absence of defined and clear frameworks within learning contexts is problematic, as it risks weakening the rigour of the field (Ellis, 2016; Standish, 2014). This is particularly pertinent for GCE practice within formal education in Ireland, where there is no set curriculum or guidelines. Young (2007; 2013) argues that curricular constructions can offer opportunities for students to access certain types of powerful knowledge – that is knowledge that is specialised or drawn from subject disciplines, in order to help students to understand the world. Whilst he recognises that knowledge is political, socially constructed and always open to critique, he nonetheless asserts the value of disciplinary knowledge to help learners extend or move beyond their own experience and common sense knowledge (Young, 2007). Contemporary examples of powerful knowledge related to GCE include explorations of poverty and wealth, gender equality, climate justice and migration. Conceptually, GCE can also offer students a substantial grounding in human rights and social justice frameworks, such as UN conventions and charters. Indeed, previous studies argue that the value of frameworks to support learning are manifold. They can support curriculum organisation and planning and provide elements of coherence and progression (Parker et al., 2017; Sant et al., 2018).

In particular, frameworks connect students to conceptual aspects of a subject, in order to deepen understanding and ensure that practice moves beyond the acquisition of some information about many topics (Rata, cited in Parker et al., 2017). In addition, social or legal frameworks provide students with tools of analysis, in order to connect and deepen learning (Emerson, Gannon, Harrison, Lewis, & Poynor, 2012; Mallon, 2018). In a recent study, Pashby & Sund (2020) found that the explicit use of ethical frameworks within GCE practices, can support both teachers and students to engage in complex discussions related to colonisation and power. However, they also assert that teachers need time and

further resourcing, in order to support them to apply a more critical lens to their planning and classroom practices (Pashby & Sund, 2020). This is a serious challenge facing GCE - to identify a knowledge base that is rigorous and meaningful, while at the same time balancing that with student inclusivity and its relational and action dimensions. Given what we already understand of the limited and constrained time to explore GCE in formal classrooms (Bryan & Bracken, 2011), the present study seeks to establish how these challenges translate at the point of practice. This includes the extent to which teaching and learning can address the multiple dimensions of GCE learning and how that practice is framed.

2.3.2 Methodologies and pedagogy

The centrality of teaching and learning processes, particularly participatory forms of pedagogy, is a defining and distinctive feature of GCE and its associated adjectival educations (Bamber, 2020; Bourn, 2020). Within formal education contexts, this feature is associated with pedagogical innovation (Goren et al., 2019). It is also connected to GCE's roots in critical pedagogy, specifically Freire's dual focus on transformation of self and society (Freire & Ramos, 1996). Yet, this aspect of GCE remains under-researched. In recent times, a small number of studies have focussed on the pedagogical challenges that GCE poses (Bentall, 2020; Pashby & Sund, 2020). These are important as they highlight specific classroom challenges and opportunities that arise for teachers who seek to integrate GCE in their practices.

2.3.2.1 Participatory pedagogies and active learning

A number of studies exist that give some insight into how pedagogical innovations translate into practice (Bentall, 2020; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McCormack & O'Flaherty, 2010; K Pashby & Sund, 2020). For example, previous studies have found that student teachers are openly disposed to active learning, but that its implementation gives rise to challenges related to classroom management and time constraints (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bryan, Clarke, & Drudy, 2009; McCormack & O'Flaherty, 2010). Other studies suggest that teachers lack confidence or experiences to implement such pedagogical approaches (Liddy & Tormey, 2013; Yemini et al., 2019). A recent study based on a CPD initiative for more experienced teachers also found that whilst the participating teachers were open to taking on new pedagogical approaches, they also required ongoing support throughout and after the changes had been

implemented (Bentall, 2020). Research also indicates that although active learning methodologies are promoted and encouraged at a policy level, structural constraints and tensions between classroom management and “productive noise” (Bracken & Bryan, 2010) limit their implementation in practice (Bryan & Bracken, 2010; McMorrow, 2006). This present study seeks to extend knowledge in this area and interrogate how GCE’s participatory pedagogies translate, or not, within formal education classroom contexts.

2.3.2.2 Discussion-based practices

Discussion-based teaching strategies are associated with the participatory nature of GCE (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007; Blackmore, 2016; Bourn, 2015; Brown, 2010). Whilst at times, the literature refers to both dialogue and discussion interchangeably (Howe & Abedin, 2013), this study understands them as two distinct phenomena. Chapter Three sets out theoretical and conceptual treatments of dialogue with particular reference to Freire (1996) and Burbules (1993). The remainder of this section, explores literature and empirical studies related to discussion in citizenship education contexts and classrooms. There is a significant body of literature related to this area. It includes explorations of the purposes, procedures and processes of discussion within citizenship education contexts, the role of teachers, the possibilities and limits of certain strategies and, the particular significance of discussion for citizenship education (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Howe & Abedin, 2013; Parker & Hess, 2001; Schuitema, Radstake, van de Pol, & Veugelers, 2017).

Several strategies are promoted with a view to developing discussion in citizenship education classrooms. These include walking debates, small group discussions, whole class discussion and, particular activities such as *Think, Pair, Share, Fishbowl and Carousel discussions* (Bloome, 2015; Emerson et al., 2012; Schuitema et al., 2017). The development of multi-perspectivity amongst students is a strong theme within the literature (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007; Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Blackmore, 2016; Schuitema et al., 2017). The ability to express ideas, listen to others respectfully and recognise one’s perspective as one of many, are rudimentary skills and dispositions associated with GCE learning intentions (UNESCO, 2015). Outcomes related to democratic deliberation and negotiations are also envisaged (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Hand & Levinson, 2012). Consequently, discussion is a

process that comprises a variety of purposes and forms that include classroom talk, conversation, debate and dialogue (Howe & Abedin, 2013). Moreover, given the perceived controversial nature of many citizenship-related topics, the complex nature of the endeavour is recognised, as is the central role for teachers (Emerson et al., 2012; Schuitema et al., 2017)

Previous empirical studies suggest that classroom discussion in citizenship education contexts occurs infrequently, or in order to make learning enjoyable or differentiated, rather than to encourage critical thinking (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Brown, 2010). Within an Irish context, Gleeson et al. (2007) found that approximately 68% of post-primary students had experienced some degree of classroom discussion about global issues. However, we know little of how these discussions were facilitated, or the extent to which they encouraged more critical forms of GCE learning. Brown (2010) found that even where discussion is employed by teachers, the issues are presented as uncontested and the answers tend to be predetermined. She states that questioning as a teaching method, “is rarely conceived of in a truly dialogic way” (Brown, 2010, p. 34). This supports the view that “it is possible to engage in discussions or role plays without evidence of critical or dialogic learning” (Allman, 2009: 426, cited in Brown, 2010, p. 27). In addition, a tendency to position discussion as a teaching methodology, as opposed to a specific learning or curriculum outcome has been identified. Parker & Hess (2001) differentiate between two fundamental uses of discussion that relate to *learning with* or *learning through* discussion. Their study found that learning with discussion dominates in citizenship education contexts. By consequence, they also suggest that students lack an understanding of the purposes, processes and procedures of discussion. They maintain that positioning discussion as a curriculum outcome in itself, could strengthen discussion practices in the classroom.

Finally, literature in this area represents the most substantial contribution of empirical evidence to our understanding of GCE-related classroom practice. However, it is underdeveloped in certain areas, particularly in relation to the specifics of GCE and students’ perspectives and experiences. Hauver, Zhao, & Kobe (2017) do offer some insight into students’ experiences that illustrate the social nature of civic education and discussion-based approaches to learning. They suggest that such approaches are a type of performance that gives rise to issues of trust and identity, which in turn can impact on the nature of students’ engagement. However, the study is limited to primary school children and a very particular

type of deliberative dialogue. Given the significance of discussion for GCE, it is important to address gaps in this area. Specifically, the present study includes young peoples' experiences of discussion-based practices in the classroom and examines how teachers and students negotiate this particular practice.

2.4 Views from the coalface

Until very recently, one of the most striking features of GCE literature is the limited foregrounding of teachers' and students' voices and work in the classroom (Bamber, 2020; Parmenter, 2011; Sant et al., 2018). Parmenter (2011) argues that GCE discourse has been dominated by theoretical explorations and called for "an urgent necessity in the field of GCE to engage with the children, young people and teachers who are actually participating in the enterprise" (Parmenter, 2011, p. 372). However, in recent times, there has been a growth in studies related to themes that include, GCE and young people (Arshad-Ayaz, Andreotti, & Sutherland, 2017; Hartung, 2017), CPD initiatives (Bentall, 2020; Pashby & Sund, 2020) and teacher education (Pashby & Sund, 2020; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). Together with a small number of previous studies, this research provides valuable insights into teachers' and students' experiences of GCE in schools and classrooms. These are explored below.

2.4.1 The teacher

In Ireland and elsewhere, individual teachers' enthusiasm for and commitment to GCE is long established (Bentall, 2020; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Cusack, 2008; Gleeson et al., 2007; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; Pashby & Sund, 2020; Sant et al., 2018). Moreover, it is acknowledged that these teachers are largely responsible for the implementation of GCE in their schools and that oftentimes, they operate in isolation to their wider school context. Alongside this, teachers who chose to teach GCE are not required to have an academic qualification to teach it, nor are there recognised teaching qualifications in the area (Bentall, 2020; Liddy & Tormey, 2013). Indeed, Bentall (2020) highlights that globally, there is no example of a coordinated strategic approach to teacher education between key stakeholders in government and higher educational institutions on global learning and that in effect, teachers who seek to implement GCE into their classroom practice, continue to rely significantly on external actors. Moreover, we understand that several demands are made of teachers of citizenship education that relate to their professionalism in the areas of knowledge, pedagogy and ethics (Liddy & Tormey, 2013; Willemse et al.,

2015). In particular, Liddy & Tormey (2013) highlight the need for GCE teachers to build upon their own levels of knowledge on global justice issues, whilst also implementing pedagogical innovations associated with the field (Yemini et al., 2019).

Much of the literature in this area, highlights challenges and obstacles that teachers face in seeking to implement GCE in practice. Arising from a study of student teachers' post lesson reflections, Bracken & Bryan (2010) argue that the complex task of successfully implementing processes associated with GCE, should not be underestimated. In addition, they highlight the potential for teachers to encounter personal and pedagogical challenges, in addition to moral dilemmas. More broadly, further obstacles and challenges include: the constraints of the curriculum and school timetable; a lack of confidence; the challenges of active learning methodologies against the backdrop of a culture of classroom management; fear of being too political and, tensions between an openness to dialogue and a context that still holds the teacher as the font of all knowledge (Brown, 2010; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Goren & Yemini, 2017; McCormack & O'Flaherty, 2010; Pashby & Sund, 2020; Waldron et al., 2011; Yemini et al., 2019).

Yet, while these studies are valuable, they lack insight from the classroom and into the practices of more established teachers. This gap is in the early stages of being addressed with a small number of studies that have accompanied more experienced teachers as they engage with GCE CPD initiatives. Bully's (2009) research was carried out with in-career teachers and focussed on a professional development programme that centred around transformational reflection. Co-designed with Vanessa Andreotti, the basic premise of this study was to support teachers to focus on their thinking, rather than their practice. Bully argues that regardless of policy or rhetoric, little can change if teachers are not supported to step back from day-to-day routines and encouraged to engage with bigger educational ideas, such as diversity, power and the purpose of education. This echoes the contention by others that teacher education programmes should engage with teachers at an intellectual level on key concepts, in addition to addressing more technical aspects of practice (de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Korthagen, 2012). Bully's study found that teachers frequently expressed an awareness of the contradiction between their vision for education and what they actually delivered. Teachers recognised the power and potential of dialogue and meaningful engagement with students. However, they also indicated that this was difficult to negotiate in

the classroom because of external factors but also, because of their own thinking. They highlighted a gap between knowing what and knowing how. Bryan & Bracken (2011) also identify this challenge in their study with practising teachers. There is a mismatch between what teachers set out to achieve and what they do in reality. More recently, some studies have sought to address this gap for teachers by exploring the use of various frameworks and initiatives with practising teachers. Pashby & Sund (2020) found that the use of an ethical framework can support teachers to plan and implement deeper and more critical analysis of and discussion with students on global issues. However, their use of “classroom snapshots” also reveal the persistence of formal education structural constraints and a fear of being perceived as overly political amongst teachers. (Pashby & Sund, 2020). These studies are important as they illustrate that teachers do seek to make changes to their practice in order to implement GCE, yet face challenges that are not easily overcome. A central premise of this study is the need to more fully understand the real time implementation of GCE in the classroom, in order to contribute to appropriate and meaningful professional support for teachers.

2.4.1.1 Teacher support and professional development

Gleeson (2012) argues that for deep curriculum change to take effect at the point of practice, significant investment is required in teacher professional development. Yet, as previously indicated, there is no example of a coherent teacher education programme for GCE teachers across their professional continuum (Bentall, 2020). Moreover, Bentall (2020) points out that teacher education for GCE is unique in that oftentimes, CPD initiatives serve as introductions for teachers to GCE, as opposed to the standard top-up form of professional development that CPD most frequently offers. Furthermore, there is a mismatch between the significant attention GCE has received in recent times at a policy level, compared to commitments made at the level of teacher education (Bamber, 2020; Bentall, 2020). In Ireland, support for GCE teachers has traditionally been shaped by an expansive range of teaching resources and workshops provided by NGDOs and civil society (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016). In more recent times, there has been an increased emphasis on other forms of teacher education and professional development, given the government’s strategic focus on teacher capacity for GCE (Global Education Network Europe, 2015; Irish Aid, 2017). Indeed, Ireland is one of

six European countries offering some opportunities for all students in initial teacher education to experience, at least, an introduction to GCE-related issues and pedagogies (Eurydice, 2017).

More broadly, studies related to GCE teacher education indicate that opportunities are growing and vary in type (Bamber, 2020; Estellés & Fischman, 2020; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). They include compulsory modules and specialised electives within initial teacher education programmes at third level, through to professional development opportunities offered by civil society groups and third level institutions (Bamber, 2020; Bourn, 2020; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019; Yemini et al., 2019). Together, these programmes and initiatives provide essential support for both student teachers and teachers, offering them valuable tools for more critical forms of GCE, opportunities to reflect on difficult questions related to their own identities and practice and a collaborative space with peer support (Bamber, 2020; Bentall, 2020; Pashby & Sund, 2020). However, some studies suggest that these opportunities are both limited and predominantly focussed on technical and practical concerns. For example, Bentall (2020) highlights the risks of one-off CPD events, that fail to provide teachers with adequate space or support for more reflective practice on implementation, while Yemini et al. (2019) found increasing evidence of GCE being “presented as a pedagogical innovation of existing practices rather than as a separate subject for schools” (2019, p. 84). As a result, there is a risk that CPD for GCE places an emphasis on practical concerns, rather than reflective practice or issues related to GCE, such as human rights and racism (Bentall, 2020; Yemini et al., 2019).

Broader research dedicated to teacher professional development has also identified a technical approach to teacher education as limited and at times, problematic (Cochran-Smith, 2012; Korthagen, 2012; Waldron, 2012). In addition, within an Irish context, Gleeson (2012) has argued that a dearth of investment in professional development for teachers, results in few opportunities for them to revisit or question previously taken-for-granted beliefs about practice, a process that has been identified as a necessary condition for change (Bully, 2009; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2014; Gleeson, 2012; Pashby & Sund, 2020). Indeed, there have been calls for a more extensive and holistic approach in order to support GCE teachers (Bamber, 2020). Yemini et al. (2019) warn that if the disconnect between theory and practice continues, committed teachers will become frustrated. Given GCE’s association with pedagogical innovation (Yemini et al., 2019), it would seem imperative that a more rounded approach be

taken. Finally, we have yet to more fully understand how professional development opportunities that teachers do avail of, impact on their practice in the classroom. It is unclear what benefits or challenges these opportunities surface when teachers return to the classroom and seek to implement what they have learned with their students. This study seeks to make a contribution in this regard by exploring the tools, strategies and experiences teachers draw on to translate GCE into classroom practice and how that process unfolds.

2.4.2 The student

the young person as responsible global citizen has developed into a powerful idea in the 21st century (Hartung, 2017, p. 11).

Students and young people are positioned as linchpins within GCE as a personally and socially transformative pursuit. Learners, be they children, young people or adults, are ultimately conceived of as agents of change within GCE conceptualisations. There is growing literature dedicated to this area, ranging from early years learners through to young people (Arshad-Ayaz, Andreotti, & Sutherland, 2017; Asbrand, 2008; Brown, 2015; Oberman, O'Shea, Hickey, & Joyce, 2014; Silke, Boylan, Brady, & Dolan, 2019; Tallon & McGregor, 2014; Tallon, 2011). In particular, this study is focussed on young people and their status as students of GCE. A number of themes are explored in this section. They include the interrogation of conceptualisations of young people as global citizens, young peoples' responses to GCE, spaces for young people to engage with GCE-related issues, in addition to certain gaps or deficits that have been identified.

GCE policy and vision can conceptualise young people in very positive terms that recognise their agency and go beyond deficit notions of children as citizens in the making. However, Bryan (2019) argues that recent curriculum developments in Ireland are underpinned by a view of "citizenship-as-responsibilisation" (Bryan, 2019) whereby young people, rather than the state, are afforded increased levels of individual responsibility for their own wellbeing and that of others. Moreover, conceptualisations of young people within GCE make several assumptions related to young people's needs, homogeneity and power (Hartung, 2017). GCE studies that include young people describe them as open, somewhat critically engaged and "media savvy" (Brown, 2015; Tallon & McGregor, 2014). They demonstrate that some young people have an interest in, and open disposition to learning about, global

issues and the world around them (Brown, 2015; Parmenter, 2011; Shultz, Pashby, & Godwaldt, 2017; Tallon & McGregor, 2014). Indeed, Tallon & McGregor (2014) indicate that they found little evidence of any significant degree of negativity present amongst young participants in their study. By contrast, their research identified a range of emotional responses amongst young people to GCE related learning. These included feelings of guilt and sadness that are associated with paternal and softer forms of GCE, in addition to some evidence of critical thought and questioning of stereotypical development images presented to them. Such findings serve as a reminder of the diverse nature of student bodies and as evidence of “established developmental imaginaries” (Tallon & McGregor, 2014, p. 1418) that students may carry with them into the classroom. However, there is little insight into how these imaginaries or dispositions manifest within GCE negotiations between teachers and students or how dominant conceptualisations of young people influence classroom practice.

A study of students taking World Development for A-level found that students placed a high value on subject content knowledge they gained during the course. They also described the subject as having relevance to their own lives and the world around them (Miller, Bowes, Bourn, & Castro, 2012). Indeed, the acquisition of knowledge and facts was considered by students as the most valuable aspect of studying the course. In addition, young people have identified school as an important setting for the cultivation of attitudes and skills associated with GCE (Arshad-Ayaz et al., 2017). In particular, they identify the need for school curricula to support their global citizenship through a focus on critical thinking and critical media literacy (Arshad-Ayaz et al., 2017). Furthermore, and of significance for classroom based research, a number of studies have found that young people learn about citizenship and global issues from a wide variety of sources, including parents, peers and media (Biesta, Lawy, & Kelly, 2009; Brown, 2015; Gleeson et al., 2007; Silke et al., 2019; Smith, 2004; Tallon, 2013). As such, they are mediating and co-constructing these ideas with those they learn in the classroom. More recently, the importance and value of engaging students in social analysis in the classroom was identified as positively influencing young peoples’ empathic values and civic behaviour (Silke et al., 2019). Silke et al. (2019) also found that opportunities to openly discuss social issues in the classroom was important for young people. Subsequently, it is important that this present study seeks to establish the extent to which GCE classroom practice provides students with such opportunities as part of their formal schooling.

It is within the political domain that certain gaps have been identified in relation to young people's engagement with social and global issues. Miller et al. (2012) suggest that A-level World development was largely interpreted by those studying it as "a moral subject rather than a political one, or one concerned with social change" (Miller et al., 2012, p. 39). In turn, the authors connected this to a low level of correspondence between increased knowledge on the part of students and changes in students' behaviours or attitudes. However, an examination of students' sense of power and agency suggests, instead, that students do not see themselves as powerful enough to take action (Tallon & McGregor, 2014). Regarding students' attitudes towards politics and the political system, Brown (2015) found that young people had low levels of political literacy and lacked information on and understanding of the role of government *vis-a-vis* global issues. Moreover, young people attributed a low level of importance or impact to the political system. In addition, young people are found to demonstrate high levels of empathy and pro-social values, but little engagement in prosocial or civic behaviour (Silke et al., 2019).

Despite being at the receiving end of GCE initiatives and policies, young people's position and perspective in relation to GCE remains under-researched and underrepresented (Tallon, 2014; Parmenter, 2011). In their systematic review of empirical studies of GCE, Goren & Yemini (2017) found no examples of students' classroom-based experiences of GCE. Furthermore, while some studies do address issues of power in relation to young people, these focus on students perceived power to take action in response to global issues (Brown, 2015; Hartung, 2017; Tallon & McGregor, 2014). A gap remains in looking at power from the perspective of the classroom and the relationships that are required between teachers and students, and between students themselves, in order to create and embrace the reciprocal and participatory approach that is fundamental to GCE. It is particularly pertinent within a formal education context that fails to position students in empowering or participatory ways (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). Clearly, the literature establishes a cultural clash (Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019) between the approaches and methodologies promoted through GCE and current dominant practice, where the student is rarely considered. There is an assumption that students will respond positively to approaches that are framed in democratic and empowering ways, yet this risks underestimating the journeys that need to be taken at different paces, by different people in moving from a more banking approach to a more problem-posing, dialogical approach. This is a concern given the extent to which GCE relies on student

participation and their willingness and readiness to engage. This study will interrogate how students respond to GCE at the point of practice and consider how their interpretations and experiences can contribute to a deeper and more nuanced understanding of GCE learning.

Conclusion

Within the context of formal education, dominant systems and structures bear down heavily on GCE intentions and threaten to erode more critical manifestations. Moreover, it is also acknowledged that moving from a soft to a more critical approach is not easy. Structural constraints, conceptual ambiguity and the demands of pedagogical innovation are fundamental challenges identified in the literature. Yet despite this, what also emerges is recognition of GCE's potential as a socially transformative education and as a disruptive force within formal education. This review has also established the need for greater attention to be afforded to the voices and experiences of teachers and students, particularly within the context of classroom practice. Can teachers and students overcome systems and structures and embrace complexity and emotional discomfort, in order to engage in critical practice? How far can they take it and how can they be supported to dig deeper? The following two chapters set out the research design for this study, before proceeding to present findings that will contribute to these debates.

CHAPTER THREE

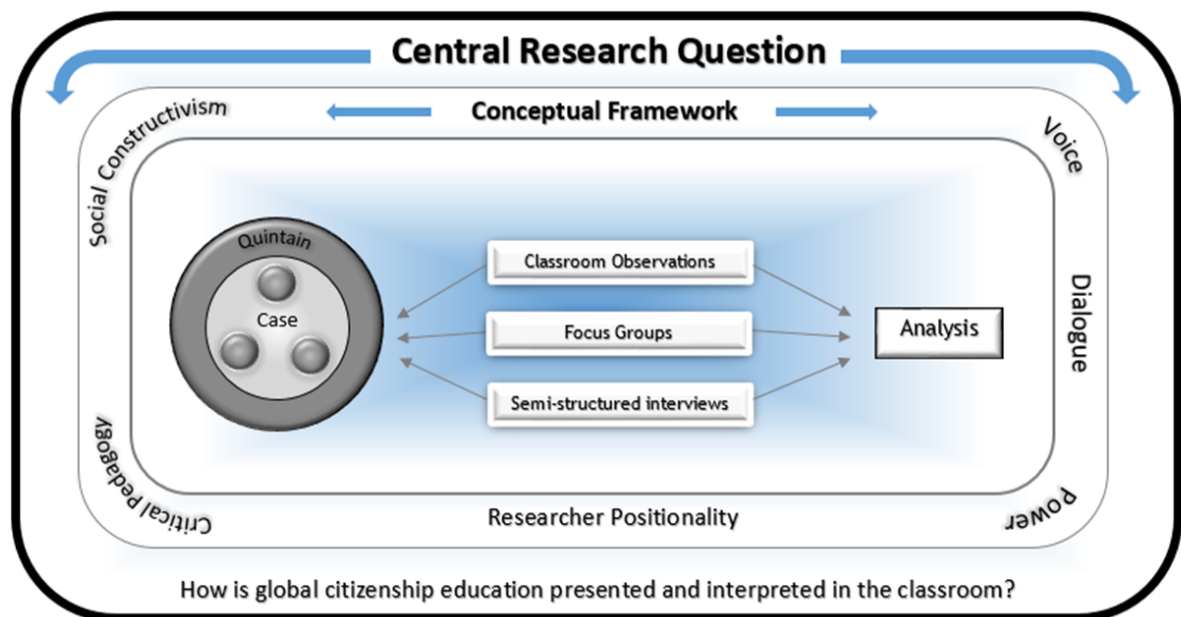
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

Chapters Three and Four present an overview of two core components of the study's research design, the conceptual framework and research methodology. Figure 1 provides an overview of these components and a number of their individual parts that are set within the context of the central research questions. Over the course of the study, there was an ongoing iterative interplay between each of these separate elements and the study's conceptual framework and research questions (Maxwell, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Figure 1 Key components of research design

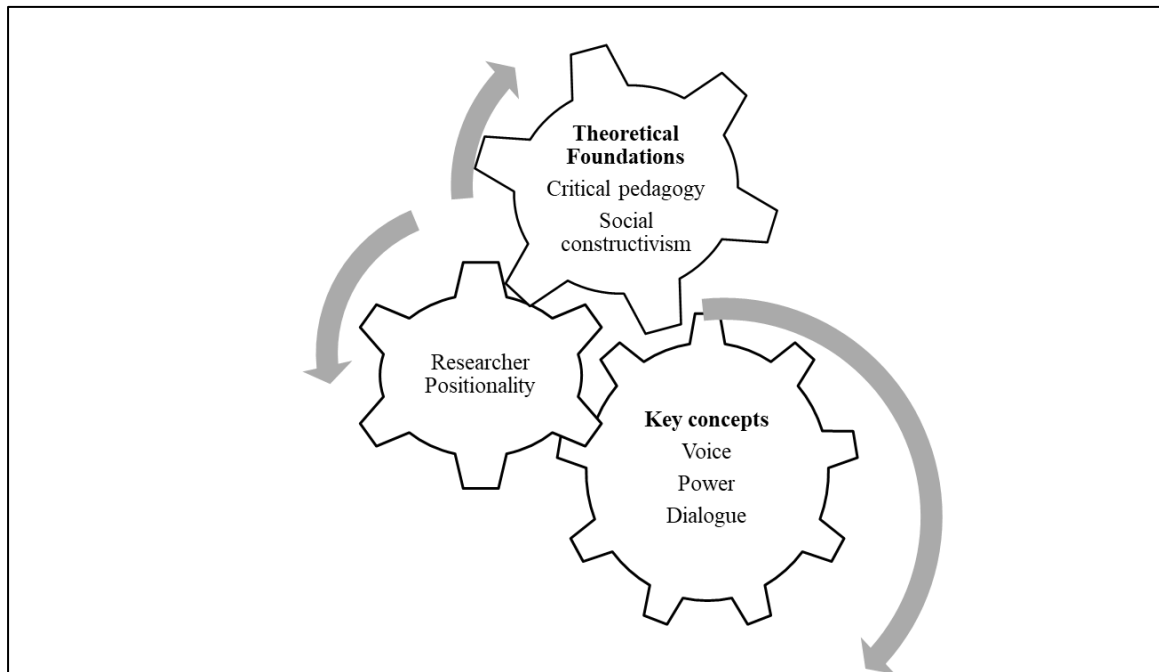
Key components of research design



This chapter provides an overview of the study's conceptual framework, in order to establish the lens through which the data have been collected, examined and analysed (Figure 2). Firstly, I highlight significant assumptions and beliefs that have influenced this frame, as they relate to my own positionality. Secondly, the chapter considers social constructivism and critical pedagogy, two theories that underpin the

study. I set out key tenets and critiques of each theory respectively, in addition to drawing out synergies and deviations between them.

Figure 2 Conceptual framework



Following on, I present an overview of three key concepts (voice, power, dialogue) that also inform the framework. I explore their importance and relevance to the research. The framework has been developed as part of a challenging and dynamic interaction between considerations of my own positionality, the development of my central research questions and the literature review. It further crystallised as I commenced data collection, a process which helped in the identification of the key concepts that are presented here. Finally, it is important to note that in order to support data collection and analysis in a feasible fashion, I designed the conceptual framework to balance a tension between the study's exploratory nature and the need to focus the research (Eisenhart, 1991).

3.1 Researcher positionality

My assumptions and beliefs about the nature of the world (ontology) and how we come to understand it (epistemology), direct and inform how I understand the phenomena I am studying and the methodology I choose (Creswell, 2008; Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995; Luttrell, 2010). Epistemologically,

I am informed by an interpretivist, social constructivist perspective, believing that reality is socially constructed and that there are, and can be, multiple perspectives and interpretations of one event or occurrence. I uphold the contention that within this research paradigm, there can be no truth claims, only interpretations. This orients my thinking and research, as I recognise that the descriptions and understandings that are drawn from this study will be a negotiated understanding between myself and the participants, from within the specific context in which we find ourselves (Bogdan & Biklen, 2010).

My own positionality is shaped by my values, my diverse professional experiences and my shifting identities (Berger, 2015; Kacen & Chaitin, 2006). Regarding the latter, I came to this study with established teacher and GCE practitioner identities, whilst my position as researcher was fledgling. However, the values that underpin these identities remain consistent and connected to a strong sense of fairness and social justice. These values have been coupled with a curiosity about the wider world and a sense of universalism and global minded-ness that developed further during my 12 years at Trócaire. My experiences here particularly influenced my rights-based understanding of development education, whilst also introducing me to critical debates in relation to development and development education. My worldview is also underpinned by an idealism, resulting in a tendency to privilege considerations as to what might be possible, rather than reflect on obstacles and barriers that frustrate or block efforts to bring about change. It may be that this is connected to my position of white, middle class privilege that has provided me with great levels of stability and security, that I recognise are not accessible to most. Though I cannot seek to understand another's position, I remain aware that my own is as a result of deeply unequal and systemic structures that maintain the status quo.

These values and perspectives have influenced the professional roles I have chosen and how I approach them. Coming from a family of teachers, I had always wanted to pursue this career since childhood. However, it was not until I began teaching, and in particular, began to teach Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE), that I became aware of my underlying connection to the value and importance of what I now understand is a pro-social view of education: that is education that supports young people to actively participate in decisions and processes that impact on them and their wider communities, but also education as a means of challenging inequalities and injustice. This understanding further crystallised as I

began working with Trócaire and teachers and students who were passionate about social justice. Primarily, their commitment and energy inspired and exposed me to what is possible when teachers and schools commit to social justice related education initiatives. In addition, it offered, in an informal sense, glimpses of the challenges and pitfalls. I advocated for the necessity, importance and value of development education and justice related issues within formal education. This orientation has solidified even further throughout the course of this research. This latter experience has exposed me to strong neo-liberal forces that influence and operate within education, and of the need for and importance of more socially oriented approaches, in order to resist and disrupt them.

I recognise that these beliefs and experiences will lead to assumptions about what I see and encounter over the course of this study. Of particular significance is my own identity as a teacher and development education practitioner. On one hand, this affords me an insider status and a way of connecting with teachers, in particular, who also share a pro-social view of education (Kacen & Chaitin, 2006). Moreover, my most recent experiences as a teacher educator, continue to inform and challenge my theoretical and practical understandings of the complex endeavour of teaching and learning, the central role of relationships and the wider contexts which influence education and classrooms. In addition, it indicates that I have some fixed ideas related to the implementation of GCE in the classroom that may obscure elements of what I see. I also acknowledge the vested interests that accompany my identity as an advocate of GCE and pro-social education, specifically my aspirations for GCE within formal education.

Reflexivity is the process through which I can name these assumptions and beliefs and use them to support rather than hinder this study. It reminds me that I am part of the social world that I am studying (Maxwell, 2005). Over the course of the study, I want to recognise this, rather than try to suppress or deny it. Emerson et al. (1995) stated that “No field researcher can be a completely neutral, detached observer, outside and independent of the observed phenomenon” (Pollner, 1988, in Emerson et al., 1995, p. 39). Indeed, he suggests that it is critical that researchers are aware of their own emotional responses and activities, as these will shape how they observe and record others (Emerson et al., 1995). It is of particular relevance to observational research, given the importance of human interactions within the approach. Beyond awareness, it is also important to incorporate certain strategies into the study’s research methods

that compel me to address my positionalities. These include tracking decision-making, member checking and prolonged periods of time with research participants. Chapter Four's section on research methods and validity will further address these issues.

3.2 Theoretical foundations

This study is concerned with classroom teaching and learning as it applies to GCE practice. Given the pedagogical concerns associated with GCE and its critical and political intent, outlined in Chapter Two, two theoretical foundations were selected to frame the study and support a critical analysis of classroom negotiations. Social constructivism is a theory that relates to active and co-operative learning (Fosnot, 1996), while critical pedagogy is a founding theory that is associated with and informs GCE and its sub-traditions (Bourn, 2020). I chose to combine these theories as I wanted foundations that focus on and illuminate classroom practices and the active and participatory intent of GCE, in addition to its contested substance. Neither theory alone could deliver this. Furthermore, they were selected given strong elements of complementarity between them, in addition to the capacity of either to extend the other. This section presents each theoretical foundation in turn, before discussing their relevance to this study, their synergies and deviations.

3.2.1 Social constructivism

Dating back to the final decades of the 20th century, constructivism represents a paradigmatic shift within education theory and practice (Applefield, Huber, & Mahnaz, 2001; Fosnot, 1996; Liu & Matthews, 2005). It was preceded by Behaviourism, which viewed human learning as the transmission of knowledge that was external to the individual. This theory was critiqued for being mechanistic and reductionist in its approach, removing the learner from any reality, whilst also reducing them to passive recipients of information (Fosnot, 1996; Liu & Matthews, 2005). The shift was initially epistemological in nature, signalling a move away from the behaviourist tradition, to one where human learning was understood as being actively constructed by the learner (Fosnot, 1996). Today, interpretations and practices of social constructivism vary significantly. Yet, one of the most defining features of all forms of constructivism is the active engagement of learners in the construction of knowledge. This offers an important focus for this study, providing an emphasis on learning and learner's experiences. Further tenets include; the relationship between new and

existing knowledge, the importance of social interaction and, engagement in meaningful learning (Applefield et al., 2001). Defining aspects of constructivism also highlight subjectivity, social context and learning that is connected to reality (Fosnot, 1996; Phillips, 1995).

Within social constructivism, several different interpretations and traditions have been critiqued. These critiques include claims that allegiance to constructivism theory is, at times, over-zealous (Phillips, 1995). Concerns include the risk of minimising, or removing, the role of teachers and a neglect of bodies of knowledge associated with particular disciplines (Biesta, 2013; Kirschner, Sweller, & Clark, 2010). Critics argue that some interpretations of constructivism lead to a focus on the nature of disciplines, to the detriment of their bodies of knowledge (Kirschner et al., 2010). Some suggest that although the theory holds sway, it has not resulted in adequate pedagogical techniques (Biesta, 2013; Kirschner et al., 2010). Moreover, it has been argued that some models of constructivism are not focussed on learning, but instead are more concerned with student-centred learning and democratising classroom practices (McPhail, 2016). Such demarcations provide a useful analytical lens that is focussed on teaching and learning and participatory pedagogies. They indicate different interpretations of the same theory in practice, that can result in different experiences and outcomes for students, in terms of both their levels of participation but also their knowledge.

However, responses to these criticisms of social constructivism assert that the theory has been misinterpreted in part and, in some instances, developed with a degree of superficiality (Liu & Matthews, 2005). Applefield et al. (2001) suggest that certain myths abound in relation to social constructivism. These include: a perceived absence of focus on learning; a lack of thoughtfully planned instruction; an absence of structure from the constructivist classroom; a misplaced belief that if learners are engaged in social interaction, learning will take place and, finally, a view that the role of teachers is less important compared to traditional instruction (Applefield et al., 2001). Davydov's (1995) exploration of Vygotsky's work is helpful in this context. His use of the term "constructivism pedagogy" gives weight to the concept of nurturing within the theory and the central role of teaching and teachers, as knowledgeable experts. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development and subsequent techniques such as scaffolding and modelling mediated by teachers, give expression to this notion of nurturing. Applefield et al. (2001) refer to it as a

“cognitive apprenticeship relationship” between student and teacher (2001, p. 39).

The application of social constructivism in this study provides an important focus on learning, student-teacher relationships and concepts such as scaffolding. It also highlights a series of potential tensions that can arise on the implementation of the theory into practice that is particularly valuable in analysing classroom negotiations. While the next section explores critical pedagogy, synergies and deviations between the two theories are subsequently explored.

3.2.2 Critical pedagogy

Critical pedagogy has been described as a “master discourse” (Morgan, 2000, p. 275) that represents a number of responses to dominant rightist and neo-liberal ideologies that continue to influence educational theory and practice today. The theory is premised on the critical interrogation of knowledge, in order to address social inequalities that privilege some and marginalise the voices and experiences of others. Freire’s (1996) critique of the banking approach to education marks one of the first iterations of critical pedagogy (Burbules, 2002). He identified an oppressive and controlling approach to education, where knowledge was viewed as something static and teacher-student relationships were characterised by authority and silence (Freire, 1996; Shor & Freire, 1987). While Freire is considered the founder of critical pedagogy, its roots and influences go further back and continue today. Freire was strongly influenced by his own life experiences, in addition to Marxist ideology and liberation theology (Burbules, 2002; Irwin, 2012). Since then, critical pedagogy has drawn on several sub-traditions within critical theory, but has been dominated by US academics and cultural theories emerging from the Frankfurt school of thought (Burbules, 2000; Morgan, 2000). For example, McLaren & Giroux (1989) have argued that a critical theory of schooling is required, in order to reposition the relationship between schools and society and specifically in light of dominant neo-liberal forces. Within critical pedagogy, the school is positioned as a “mass-cultural institution” (Giroux, 1989, p. 23), perpetuating a harmful status quo through its structures and knowledge.

By contrast, the theoretical ideas promoted by critical pedagogues set out the emancipatory and transformative potential of education. As a collaborative process between teachers and students, critical

pedagogy encourages questioning and dialogue about power, justice, knowledge and society (Morgan, 2000; Wink, 2005; Zembylas, 2013). Furthermore, it includes a concept of agency that envisages an engaged citizenry who are empowered to struggle for democratic values, social justice and freedom (McLaren & Giroux, 1989). Critical pedagogy gives theoretical and educational expression to many of GCE's aspirations. For example, its reframing of student-teacher relationships places emphasis on participation and empowerment, whilst also identifying a central role for dialogue in classrooms. Drawing on these specific aspects of critical pedagogy will serve as important focal points to support the study's analysis, in order to deepen understandings of how GCE is practised and to illustrate the extent to which students experience participation and dialogue. These concepts will be further explored in the next section. Moreover, critical pedagogy asserts the pro-social purpose and intent of education, enticing us to think beyond the education of individuals and to consider alternatives to the status quo. Subsequently, one of the most important contributions of critical pedagogy to education is its idealised vision of the potential of education for society (Morgan, 2000).

Yet, critical pedagogy has been critiqued on many important levels that highlight its limitations, oversights and omissions. These critiques oftentimes derive from efforts that seek to translate the theory of critical pedagogy into classroom contexts and practice, but also with regards to how critical pedagogy constructs the world that is to be interrogated. As a result, they are important considerations that will help to frame analysis in this study, particularly as I seek to more fully understand how theory and policy translate into GCE classroom practice. Firstly, dominant forms of critical pedagogy are found to be overly singular and dichotomous in worldview (Apple, 2000; Zembylas, 2013). This denies complexity, the significance of social context and the diversity of viewpoints that can exist across a range of social and cultural issues (Apple, 2000; Morgan, 2000). Some treatments of critical pedagogy are considered overly rational and void of emotional dynamics (Ellsworth, 1989; Fernández-Balboa, 1998; Zembylas, 2013). As a result, it makes several assumptions about classrooms, teachers and students. For example, some critics indicate that critical pedagogy assumes that teachers will automatically and willingly ascribe to progressive and emancipatory ideals (Apple, 2000; Lynch, 1989). In addition, Ellsworth's (1989) strong critique highlights several problematic dynamics that emerge as a result of assumptions underpinning the theory.

For example, one significant oversight is the failure to recognise inequalities that exist within schools and educational institutions. Rather, as conceived in theory, critical pedagogy risks masking them with what she refers to as repressive myths, such as voice and dialogue, in addition to imposing its own particular views of society and education (Ellsworth, 1989, p. 310). Moreover, in its failure to recognise social and cultural diversity in classrooms, critical pedagogy risks becoming a form of co-option and indoctrination itself. Bizzell (1991) describes this paradox within critical pedagogy as an impasse for educators, caught between a desire to teach democratically and progressively, whilst at the same time manoeuvre authority and freedom in classrooms, and pursue the political nature of education. These critiques are particularly pertinent for GCE practice and the present study. In the first instance, previous studies have established that GCE is predominately implemented by teachers who are personally passionate about the area. Furthermore, as established in previous chapters, GCE is conceived of as informing students' values and attitudes, particularly in relation to empathy, equality and interdependence. The tensions highlighted here are useful in order to explore and analyse teachers' and students' negotiations in the GCE classroom, the extent to which they experience such an impasse and crucially, how they navigate it.

Whilst critical pedagogy employs the language and rhetoric of empowerment and transformation, criticism indicates that it offers little in terms of tools for application. Significant questions remain as to how the theory, or any of its tenets, can be translated into classroom practice. Central to this critique is the decontextualised nature of the theory (Apple, 2000; Morgan, 2000). Dominant interpretations of critical pedagogy are based on homogenous views of students and fail to acknowledge the diversity of these groups and their biographies, or the extent to which their social status and political orientations impact their capacity and or willingness to participate in classroom deliberations (Apple, 2000; Morgan, 2000; Zembylas, 2013). This is a central concern for the present study that seeks to foreground students' experiences. Having previously established that young peoples' experiences are under-researched and that hierarchical structures and didactic practices continue to dominate formal education in Ireland (Devine, 2003; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Gleeson, 2012; Vieluf et al., 2012), considerations as to student readiness and willingness to engage in democratic practices are to the forefront here. Moreover, the premise that critical pedagogy is based on equal participation of all, denies social and historical structures that have

silenced and excluded some voices and communities, and of power dynamics that exist between students themselves, teachers and students and the wider communities in which schools are situated (Ellsworth, 1989; hooks, 1994). This critique is significant given the contextual nature of schooling and the extent to which a theory with such strong social intent can be translated from one context to another. In the case of GCE within formal education, it is also significant given the focus on participatory methodologies within a context that is established as hierarchical and controlling (Devine, 2003; Morgan, 2000).

Some efforts have been made to develop different interpretations of critical pedagogy. These contributions largely emerge from struggles to implement some of its tenets into practice, particularly dialogue and teacher-student reciprocity (Freire, 1994; Freire & Shor, 1987; hooks, 1994). Key themes to emerge from these explorations include the assertion of the importance of teachers and teaching, and the need to meaningfully and openly consider power as a more fluid dynamic in classrooms (Bizzell, 1991; Freire, 1994; hooks, 1994). hooks (1994) refers to “engaged pedagogy”, an extension of critical and feminist pedagogy that places an emphasis on teacher-student relationships. She describes it as “an expression of political activism” and teaching against the grain (1994, p. 203). This treatment of critical pedagogy, as “engaged” and teaching against the grain, places significant emphasis on the process that takes place between teacher and student. It is a significant distinction within critical pedagogy for this study as it seeks to observe and analyse student-teacher interactions and explore the extent to which these exchanges can contribute to participatory intentions. It also moves the theory away from an ideology in itself and offers it as a resistance to dominant systems that maintain the status quo, rather than a solution to them.

Critical pedagogy offers educators a counter resistance to dominant educational practice, both in terms of its theoretical substance and processes. Crucially, it exposes the non-neutral and political nature of education and indeed demonstrates the need to pursue education as political. In addition, it also holds within it a vision of more participatory and democratic classrooms and student-teacher relationships. The influence of these ideals can clearly be seen in iterations of GCE today, underpinning its participatory pillars and providing legitimacy for its political intent. Yet, it remains unclear if or how the translation of GCE into classroom practice retains this influence or confronts similar tensions. Given the limitations and challenges identified here, it becomes increasingly important to generate empirical evidence from

classroom settings in order to develop or support the practical application of the theoretical ideas that critical pedagogy sets out. The literature highlights serious omissions and limitations within critical pedagogy that undermine the theory and indicate that efforts to translate its tenets into practice are challenging, if not at times, contradictory. Applying these critiques to this study frames the analysis in order to give emphasis to specific aspects of the theory that can also be found within social constructivism. In particular, I have chosen to focus on three key concepts for the present study. They are voice, power and dialogue and I will examine them following a consideration of the synergies and deviations between social constructivism and critical pedagogy.

3.2.3 Theories of learning and intent

Table 1 sets out both discrete and shared elements of the two theories underpinning this study. Together, social constructivism and critical pedagogy represent educational theory that challenges traditional approaches to education and conceive of knowledge as constructed through dialogue, reflection and action. The person is at the centre, learning has social meaning, the agency of the learner is implicit, and a reciprocal relationship between students and teachers is imagined. Within both, there is a democratisation of education processes, that envisages a more fluid and dynamic relationship between teachers and students. They also acknowledge that all knowledge is valid, partial and shared. Social constructivism recognises that learners come to classrooms with valid and useful prior knowledge and experience, while critical pedagogy suggests that education should begin with learners' experiences, and connect with reality and the world. Critical pedagogy is more focussed on the purpose of education from a societal perspective. The student is present, as is the intent to emancipate and empower, but many assumptions are made that overlook diversity in classrooms and students own sense of agency. Social constructivism is more focussed on learners and the theory has wider application across a number of subject areas.

Table 1 *Synergies and deviations in theoretical foundations*

Synergies and deviations in theoretical foundations

| ELEMENTS | SOCIAL | CRITICAL |
|---|----------------|----------|
| | CONSTRUCTIVISM | PEDAGOGY |
| Knowledge as constructed | √ | √ |
| Social meaning of language | √ | √ |
| Education as political | | √ |
| Reciprocal student-teacher relationship | √ | √ |
| Discussion-based methodologies | √ | √ |
| Agency of learner | √ | √ |
| Acknowledges power | | √ |
| Mainstream movement in education | √ | |

Implicitly, both foundations establish truth as subjective and meaning making is connected to the lived reality of the learner and the world around them. The world beyond classroom walls is important and relevant, if perhaps for different reasons. Social constructivism suggests that learning can take place elsewhere, while critical pedagogy proposes that learning must extend beyond the classroom and move into action. In one, learning is shaped and informed in part by society, while the other argues that learning should shape and change society. For both, certain tensions arise at the point of translating the theories into practice. This is particularly significant within the context of this study that is concerned with classroom teaching and learning. Critiques of both demonstrate the complexity of classroom contexts, in terms of cognitive, social and emotional dynamics but also with regards to student-teacher relationships and power that operates inside and outside classrooms and schools.

The theoretical insights presented here help to illuminate the negotiations and relationships that I

observe between teachers and the students in the classroom. They indicate several challenges and tensions across the theories that are very relevant to GCE practice, in addition to assumptions that underpin these theories. These provide important considerations for a more critical analysis of teaching and learning. Moreover, in bringing these two theories together, they highlight key concepts relevant for the present study that is focussed on classroom negotiations in a context where active learning, participation and discussion are to be expected. Voice, power and dialogue are explored in the next section.

3.3 Key concepts

The theories outlined above broadly support the foundations and analysis for this study that is focussed on teaching and learning with political intent. Together they challenge traditional classroom practices and imagine more reciprocal and dialogical student-teacher relationships. Moreover, they imply that many voices need to be heard and that power and responsibility rest with both teacher and student. Accordingly, the concepts of voice, power and dialogue have been identified from within these theories as concepts that can provide more specific focus, in order to analyse how teachers and students navigate GCE practices in the classroom. Negotiation, as alluded to in the central research question, suggests discussion, talk and deliberation, which in turn implies interaction between teachers and students and between students themselves. Consequently, voice and dialogue emerge as mediums through which such discussions can take place, in addition to concepts through which one can analyse these negotiations. Dialogue is fundamental to Freirean education and I suggest that it also evokes the voice of students through its focus on learner-based experiences. Voice is interpreted here as Cook-Sather (2006) presents it to also include the sound and presence of students. This understanding will help to frame the analysis of classroom negotiations. While voice and dialogue play significant roles in classroom interactions, the environment in which they take place is also of great importance. Within this, power emerges as an important consideration for this study, particularly in light of certain critiques of critical pedagogy and also tensions identified in Chapter Two related to GCE's participatory intentions and dominant didactic practices in formal education. Despite presenting the three concepts here as distinct and separate from the theoretical underpinnings, there is a strong interplay between both the concepts and the theories, not least the deeply relational aspects of each. In addition, there is an interdependent relationship between the concepts. I will

now explore each in turn.

3.3.1 Voice

Voice plays an important role in the construction of meaning and knowledge, whether that voice is expressed, silent or silenced (Cook-Sather, 2006; Cruddas, 2007). Within the context of education and schooling, student voice means many things (Baroutsis, McGregor, & Mills, 2016). Literature related to student voice indicates a recent growth in the use of the term, predominantly in policy making processes and research (Cruddas, 2007; Lundy, 2007; Waldron, 2006). More recently, it has been considered in relation to pedagogic voice (Baroutsis et al., 2016). Cook-Sather (2006) maintains that a focus on student voice represents an attempt to reposition students within education research, reform and practice. However, whilst the right of children and young people to have a voice and express their views is acknowledged and welcomed, how this right is realised and practised is critiqued. Cruddas (2007) suggests that a liberal interpretation of childhood could result in voice being framed as “a form of benevolent paternalism” (2007, p. 482). Further risks that have been highlighted include, tokenism, essentialising voice to one single viewpoint and also, at times, rendering power invisible (Cook-Sather, 2006; Cruddas, 2007; hooks, 1994).

Nonetheless, while the concept has been critiqued, it has also been extended and elaborated on. Lundy (2007) clearly states that in realising the right to participate and have a voice, “voice is not enough” (2007). Her interpretation of children’s right to participate extends beyond voice to include the concepts of space, audience and influence (Lundy, 2007). Cook-Sather (2006) suggests that issues of power, communication and participation are also essential considerations. In addition, she highlights that young people have identified the importance of respect and being listened to in school. Consequently, she extends the concept of voice to also include presence and sound (Cook-Sather, 2006). In comparing and contrasting respect to rights, she suggests that:

rights are more a priori, acontextual, more about givens, attributes of being an individual; respect is socially negotiated, relational and more fully contextual. Both are about honouring the dignity and distinctiveness of young people (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 376).

Cook-Sather’s treatment of voice is very relevant for my study. Although it recognises implicit power

dynamics and structural barriers within which teachers and students operate, it also offers snapshots of possibility, as articulated by students. It connects the concept of voice to social constructivism, suggesting a relationship of trust is necessary if authentic learning is to take place. She also draws out the deeply relational and experiential nature of critical pedagogy and Freire's theory of knowledge. However, Cook-Sather sounds a cautionary note, indicating significant variations in how respect plays out in practice. The present study will draw on these distinctions to examine participation in the GCE classroom.

The concept of student “pedagogic” voice (Baroutsis et al., 2016) deals specifically with student voice in the areas of teaching, learning and curriculum. In this sense, it applies the concept to more classroom-based contexts, as opposed to the areas of policy or research. Baroutsis et al. (2016) argue that student participation in schools can be supported by attention to student voice, with regard to matters of curriculum and pedagogy. Within this more democratic approach to schooling, dialogue and listening are important. Cook-Sather (2006) also explores the concept of listening. In this context, reasons for listening, on the part of teachers or researchers, can prompt different types of participation on the part of students. These include, quality control, students as sources of information, compliance and control and, finally, dialogue (Lodge, 2005, cited in Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 377). Within this conceptualisation of dialogue, students’ voices are part of ongoing discussion and, “listening and speaking are the twin responsibilities of all parties” (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 377).

The next section explores concepts of power. Given the risk that a focus on voice can render power relations invisible (Cruddas, 2007), it becomes essential to make power explicit in this study. It can serve as a lens to analyse the context in which classroom interactions take place, but also with a view to interpreting teacher-student relationships and how they impact on GCE practice.

3.3.2 Power

Critical pedagogy and its practices, hold within them a commitment to challenging power, not only in society, but also, in the classroom (Cook-Sather, 2006; Giroux, 1983; McLaren & Giroux, 1989). Given this study’s focus on both the topic of citizenship education and practices and processes within the classroom, power must be considered. Explorations of power relevant to this study describe it as a deeply

relational force that is and can be constructed, deconstructed and reconstructed (Cook-Sather, 2006; Deacon, 2006; Foucault, 1991; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Freire & Shor, 1987; Manke, 1997). Whilst earlier interpretations of power conceived of it in more finite and visible terms, this study understands it as fluid and relational, determined by people as much as the structures that surround them (Deacon, 2006; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Manke, 1997).

Dominant discourses related to power and education identify schools as places of control, hierarchy and conformity (Ball, 1990; Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine, 2003; Foucault, 1991; Manke, 1997). Within this, students are conceived of as obedient and compliant subjects that are passive and silent (Freire & Shor, 1987), while teachers assume power and authority in the classroom. They can control both the physical and learning environment of students (Devine, 2003; Manke, 1997). However, whilst recognising that power is always present, this linear and fixed view of power in schools has been challenged. Deacon (2006) uses a Foucauldian multidimensional view of power relations to highlight that teachers are also subjects of power. He states:

those who exercise power in school are caught up in and subjected by its functions just as much as those over whom power is exercised. In fact, in many everyday educational situations, it is the teacher, performing under the critical gaze of others, over whom power is exercised (Deacon, 2006, p. 184).

This idea of teachers as not only subjects of power, but as also navigating an environment influenced by external power structures is relevant to this study, given the political intent of GCE and dominant neoliberal forces that operate within education systems today (Ball, 2008; Gaynor, 2013). Manke (1997) also challenges concepts of power in the classroom, suggesting that both teacher and students have different responsibilities and therefore different types of power and perhaps different moments of power. As with Foucault, she suggests power is more fluid and, in certain circumstances, a structure that teachers and students can build together (Manke, 1997).

Significantly for GCE practice, relational interpretations of power make possible a shift in dynamics that is dependent on the interactions of those involved. The implication for the classroom therefore is that both teachers and students, through their interactions, can shift and disrupt normative behaviours of passive student and authoritarian teacher. The participatory nature that underpins GCE

pedagogy has the potential to democratise classrooms. One such disruption is the idea of a more reciprocal relationship between teacher and student. Respect and trust emerge as important factors here in creating a more empowering and open space in which all actors can participate (Cook-Sather, 2006; Freire & Ramos, 1996). Student presence and experiences are recognised, and their contributions are valued in a dialogical construction of knowledge. The idea that power can be disrupted in the classroom is impressive, yet it has been argued that such treatments place a great deal of responsibility on both teachers and students, in the face of wider structural issues that can be pervasive and persistent (Ellsworth, 1989; Irwin, 2012; Irwin, O'Shea, & O'Brien, 2011; Mannion et al., 2011). Indeed, Manke (1997) suggests that:

In many cases, students' acceptance of that institutionalised role will be part of the baggage they carry to school and will be actualised in their actions in the classroom, increasing the teacher's ability to shape power relationships as they are constructed and revised (1997, p. 131)

This is a reminder of the far reaching tendrils of power for GCE practices in the classroom. Nevertheless, in the context of this study, trust and respect are useful aspects through which to examine power and relationships between teachers and students, and between students themselves.

hooks (1994) suggests a slightly different kind of teacher-student relationship in the classroom. She recognises the need for certain authority to be granted to teachers and also that student-teacher relationships cannot be equal on all fronts. She states that:

But I'm also not suggesting that I don't have more power. And I'm not trying to say we're all equal here. I'm trying to say that we are equal here to the extent that we are equally committed to creating a learning context (hooks, 1994, p. 153).

Here, hooks makes a distinction between a relationship based on equality regarding mutual learning and dialogue, and other realities, such as assessment, that run alongside that. This prompts a different kind of relationship, an unbalanced one. hooks' interpretation of power and authority in the classroom is taken up by Bizzell (1991) who suggests that an overly singular view of power exists. Her exploration, within the context of critical pedagogy and the work of Giroux and hooks in particular, identifies a greater degree of differentiation, distinguishing between three different types of classroom power; coercion, persuasion and authority (Bizzell, 1991). She suggests that hooks used authority in her own teaching to represent a form

of power in the classroom that is necessary and welcome if students are to grow in critical consciousness (Bizzell, 1991). She states that “hooks seeks a form of legitimate power in the classroom, and it seems that she persuades her students to grant authority to her” (Bizzell, 1991, p.64).

Concepts of power have far reaching consequences for GCE classroom practice. External forces may determine what and how GCE is presented, while essentially it will also impact on the types of relationships students and teachers construct in the classroom. Given the classroom-based nature of this present study, and what has already been established in relation to tensions within the system and at a theoretical level, an analysis of classroom practice through the concept of power is essential in order to develop a deeper understanding of how GCE and the extent to which its political and participatory intent gives rise to possibility and challenge. One particular area of note and relevance is the final concept to underpin the study: dialogue.

3.3.3 Dialogue

Within education contexts, the ideal of dialogue assumes both political and pedagogical purpose (Burbules, 2002). It is at the heart of critical pedagogy and social constructivism, providing theoretical and conceptual foundations for discussion-based approaches that characterise participatory methodologies that are central to GCE (Bourn, 2020). In this context, Freirean interpretations are particularly significant and influential, though other conceptualisations of dialogue are also useful for this study. While each conceptualisation of dialogue offers unique distinctions, synergies are also of note. For example, concepts of dialogue establish it as a purposive, structured, challenging and collaborative endeavour. It is a process that relies on trust and a mutual interest in and commitment to learning, with a view to reaching new understandings (Blackmore, 2016; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Guilherme & Morgan, 2009; hooks, 1994; Lipman, 2002). Distinctions emerge with regards to what constitutes dialogue, in addition to its purpose. I have chosen to focus on two conceptualisations of dialogue: Freire & Ramos (1996) and Burbules (1993). Both are relevant for this present study given their pedagogical value and also connections to critical pedagogy.

Freire stated, “Without dialogue there is no communication and without communication, there can be no true education” (Freire & Ramos, 1996, p.75). For Freire, dialogue was both a process and a means to transformation that had to be underpinned by trust, reciprocity, respect and hope (Freire, 1994;

Freire & Ramos, 1996; Freire & Shor, 1987). It has both an internal and external nature, a deeply humanising act while at the same time, a deeply communicative one. Freire also maintained that dialogue was a pedagogical process through which a more critical consciousness could be realised, through reflection and action upon one's own perspectives, those of others and, a fusion of both in order to attain a new form of knowledge (Bartlett, 2005). This comes about through a collaborative, rather than competing engagement in dialogue with others, that reveals how our own perspectives are shaped and that other perspectives may conflict with, or contradict those which we hold.

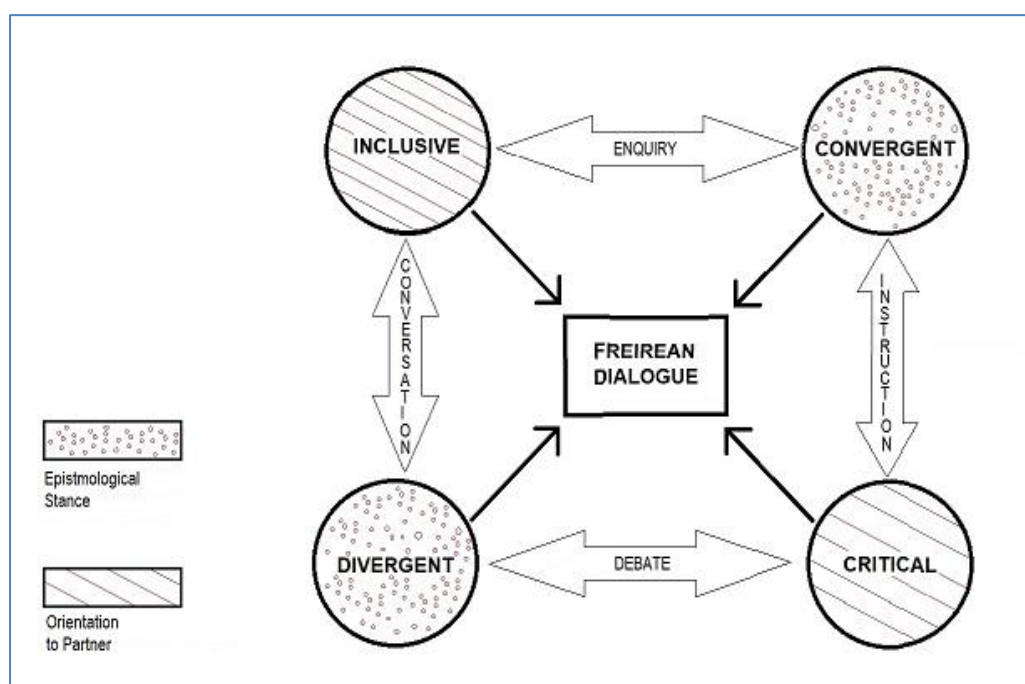
Freire's treatment of dialogue constitutes a very particular type of pedagogy that is deeply relational and transformative in its intent. Indeed, the extent to which it is applicable and achievable within more formal classroom contexts has been questioned (Bartlett, 2005; Ellsworth, 1989). This is significant for this study given the connections between Freire, dialogue and GCE. Concerns have been raised over its appropriation and misinterpretations, in addition to its adoption as an aphorism in education, with little appreciation or understanding of the complexity of the philosophy (Apple, 2000). This creates challenges not only in terms of practical application, but also in seeking to make distinctions between Freirean dialogue and other conceptualisations of dialogue. In addition, these efforts are compounded by a tendency in education literature to use the terms dialogue and discussion interchangeably. The effect is to blur lines at a conceptual level, not to mention how this confusion may impact in seeking to translate theory into practice. Nonetheless, Freirean dialogue has been chosen to inform the present study, given its influence on GCE aspirations, in addition to its fundamental precept that this particular form of dialogue is necessary, if critical consciousness is to be achieved. While other forms of dialogue may have educational value, Freire argues that this form alone is required to affect change and transformation, fundamental aspects of more critical forms of GCE.

Burbules' (1993) treatment of dialogue draws on Freire's interpretation, particularly with regard to relational and epistemological aspects. However, his concept is more versatile and demarcated. Developed more recently, and within a formal education context, it also has a stronger practical and pedagogical application.

Figure 3 illustrates Burbules typology of dialogue and identifies four different types that are determined by two distinctions which he identifies as, two different orientations towards one's partner and an epistemological stance. As set out in

Figure 3, these distinctions can each be expressed in two different ways (inclusive or critical and divergent or convergent) and paired together in a number of combinations, that subsequently determines the type of dialogue that occurs.

Figure 3 *Concepts of dialogue (Burbules, 1993; Freire, 1996)*



The first distinction relates to the epistemological perspective taken in dialogue and one's view of knowledge. A convergent view assumes that dialogue will lead to a final answer, whilst a divergent one understands dialogue as more exploratory and open-ended. Burbules' treatment suggests that both perspectives can make a contribution to dialogue.

The second distinction refers to an orientation towards one's partner in dialogue. According to Burbules (1993), an inclusive orientation seeks to understand what others are saying and give plausibility to what is said, while a critical orientation adopts a more sceptical and questioning stance and does not hesitate to test validity. Crucially, it is in how the distinctions manifest and combine, that impacts on the type of dialogue that occurs. Burbules offers four different possible combinations and resultant types of dialogue: conversation, instruction, inquiry and debate (

Figure 3). Significantly, the typology is not about either/or, but about choosing the right type of dialogue for the purpose or task-at-hand. It is at this point where Burbules' and Freire's treatments of dialogue diverge. Burbules offers greater scope and possibilities for the classroom, whilst also acknowledging the value in different forms of dialogue. Understood from a Freirean perspective, one could argue that Burbules' treatment relates more to types of discussion, rather than dialogue. Alternatively, as suggested in

Figure 3, Freire's interpretation could be viewed as a combination of Burbules' four (

Figure 3). This supports Freire's contention that dialogue is an ongoing communication and interaction and suggests that, in the classroom, Freirean dialogue emerges over time, as opposed to as a result of one particular activity or teaching strategy. These different treatments of dialogue serve as useful lenses through which to analyse the interactions and negotiations recorded in this study. It will give deeper insight into the different purposes of dialogue within GCE teaching and learning, and the extent to which different forms such as inquiry, debate and conversation are valid, and indeed necessary, in GCE practice.

Conclusion

Together with my epistemological and ontological perspectives, the theoretical foundations and concepts presented in this chapter set the framework through which this study is designed, implemented, interpreted and analysed. It gives expression to some of the underlying assumptions that influence the present study, in addition to highlighting key elements that are explicitly pertinent. The conceptual framework remained present throughout the course of the study, whilst remaining open and flexible as the research progressed. The following chapter completes the research design for this study and sets out the research methodology that was employed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Situated within the qualitative research paradigm and rooted in a social constructivist epistemology, I selected a case study to examine and analyse GCE teaching and learning, within the context of the classroom. Participant observations, student focus groups and teacher interviews were the chosen research methods. In total, three post-primary teachers and 34 students from across three different school settings participated in the study. Data collected included field notes from 20 hours of classroom observations over 25 different lessons, three teacher semi-structured interviews and five student focus groups (Table 4). The methodological selection was informed by the central research questions which sought to understand how GCE is practised within a situated context. In addition, the study sought to contribute empirical data from the classroom, in order to extend the field of knowledge in GCE. This chapter sets out the overarching case study approach, in addition to detailing the chosen research methods, the processes of data collection and analysis, and finally, ethical issues and matters of validity.

4.1 A quintain and case study approach

This section addresses a number of specific issues in relation to the case study approach selected for this research. First, it explores the use of Stake's (2006) case/quintain dynamic and subsequent standards that were applied. Second, it defines the characteristics of the case identified for the study, followed by an overview of the selection process and the three settings selected. This study is informed by Stake's (2006) identification of different types of case study that are either intrinsic or instrumental in purpose. This case study has an instrumental purpose and draws on Stake's (2006) concept of the quintain. The quintain is a term coined by Stake to describe a phenomenon or process that is the fundamental concern of the research questions. He describes the relationship between the case and the quintain as symbiotic, i.e. the case is studied to demonstrate what it can tell us about a quintain (Stake, 2006). Stake (2006) states:

We conceptualise the case in various ways to facilitate learning about the quintain. The quintain is something that functions, that operates, that has life....The quintain is something to be described and

interpreted (p. 84)

The case/quintain dynamic is appropriate for this study, given the primary function of the research was to explore and understand a quintain, i.e. the *processes* of GCE teaching and learning in the classroom. Therefore, the instrumental purpose of the case is what it can tell us about the quintain, rather an intrinsic purpose which is focussed on the value of the case itself (Stake, 2006). The use of the quintain is of relevance to this study given that the research questions are concerned with a better understanding of the practice and process of GCE. In addition, this orientation strongly positions analysis and descriptions towards practice, rather than case descriptions. A number of these already exist and, as will be explored shortly, the participating settings were not chosen with this purpose in mind.

4.1.1 Case study standards

Although the quintain was the primary concern of the study, first, it was necessary to respond to a number of methodological issues related specifically to the case. Guided by the literature in the field, the preliminary step was to root the study within the social constructivist paradigm. This step was foundational and set the course for determining further standards which lean heavily on Stakeian interpretations of case study research (Hyett, Kenny, & Dickson-Swift, 2014; Stake, 2006; Yazan, 2015). Accordingly, three further standards were identified and applied to the research design (Table 2). First, it was necessary to ensure that the case was bound by clearly defined spatial and temporal characteristics (VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007; Yazan, 2015). Secondly, multiple sources of data were required to construct thicker and richer descriptions of the case being studied. Thirdly, consideration of context and situatedness was central and required detailed and rich descriptions of the case. The following section applies these standards to this specific study.

Table 2 *Case study standards*

| Standard | Study Design |
|--|--|
| The study must be rooted within a particular research paradigm | This case study is set within the social constructivist paradigm of the study's methodology. |
| The case must be bounded | The case is a classroom |
| Multiple sources of data are essential | Three sources of data were collected across three different settings |
| Context is important | Detailed descriptions of case settings were collected, considered and included in the study |

4.1.2 The Case: GCE Class

GCE class was identified as the case for this study, in order to facilitate the examination of GCE teaching and learning within the specific context of formal classrooms.¹⁰ As a term, it is not a common sight on students' timetables, nor indeed do examples exist of it as a formal curricular subject (Liddy & Tormey, 2013; Sant et al., 2018). In Ireland, a variety of titles are used to describe these curricular spaces and although these titles vary, as I understand it, the GCE class is essentially bound by a number of unique and discrete characteristics (Creswell, 2008; Hyett et al., 2014; Stake, 2006; VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007; Yin, 2003). First, the class is allocated discrete and dedicated time on school timetables, as distinct from extra-curricular GCE activities in a school or GCE lessons integrated into more established subject areas. Second, although there is no formal curriculum, there is a focus on content related to global justice and citizenship issues, such as development, human rights, action or power. Third, the case is assigned a designated teacher and a core group of students. Finally, and crucially, the participants within this space give lived expression to GCE class - their human interactions, behaviours, deliberations, silences and experiences. Within a field characterised by diverse practice and dominated by extra-curricular activities

¹⁰ Within post-primary education in Ireland, core subjects are allocated a number of timetabled slots each week. These classes are locally referred to as History class or Maths class for example.

(Bryan & Bracken, 2011), GCE class becomes an established, recognisable and formal space where GCE can be both practised and bound.

Finally, in this study, the case is represented through three different settings (Table 3), in order to recognise the diversity of GCE practice and the context-specific nature of both it and classrooms. To allow for rich and thick descriptions of its contexts and situationality, it is explored and examined in detail and from a variety of sources including field notes, focus groups and interviews. (Van Wynsberghe, 2007; Yin, 2003). This supports a richer and more robust exploration (Yin, 2003). In addition, the inclusion of three settings also helped to build variety and guard against potential limitations that may have arisen (Stake, 2006). To extend the approach beyond three settings was not within the time constraints of this study.

4.1.3 Settings selection

Having established the case as GCE class, and a desire to study it across three settings, I then needed to identify potentially suitable schools. I wanted to ensure the settings offered timetabled opportunities for students to engage with GCE as a discrete subject area, with no formal curriculum. To this extent, I excluded the CSPE classroom, in addition to other mainstream subjects, for example, Geography and Religious Education, and focussed on senior cycle opportunities. Given the lack of nationally documented information regarding GCE, I used information provided by Worldwide Global Schools (WWGS) as my starting point. They provided me with a list of schools that were participating in their programmes. It is important to note that these schools are atypical to the population of post-primary schools in Ireland in that they offer a range of programmes and activities that are related to GCE.

Table 3 *Case settings overview*

| SETTINGS | St. Xavier's | St. Theresa's College | Dale College |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Overview | | | |
| Module name | International Relations (IR) | ENGAGE | Social Studies |
| Time allocation | 8-10-week module 1x120 mins per week 1x40 mins per week | Year-long 1x40 mins per week Additional extracurricular work | Year-long 2x45 mins per week |
| Topics explored | Conflict, war in Syria, trans-Mediterranean migration, national identity | SDGs, taking action, school engagement | Older people, refugees, direct provision ¹¹ |
| Year group | Transition Year | 5 th year | Transition Year |
| Students | | | |
| Total number in GCE class | 25 | 27 | 25 |
| Number participating in study | 16 | 6 | 12 |
| Age | 15-16-year olds | 17-18-year olds | 15-16-year olds |
| Gender | Female | Female | Female and male |
| Teachers | | | |
| Name | Ms. Coughlan | Ms. Morton | Ms. Crowley |
| Years teaching experience | 17 years | 8 years | 24 years |
| Other subject areas | Geography, CSPE | Religious Education, History, CSPE | English, Spanish, CSPE |
| Relevant CPD | One off development education workshops | Master of Development Studies, 21 st century learning and assessment courses, one-off development education workshops | Active learning methodologies, one-off development education workshops |
| Other relevant experiences | Travels in South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe | Two-week trip to Kenya with NGDO | Has travelled to 42 countries, volunteered in Calais camp |
| School context | | | |
| Patronage | Catholic | Catholic | Joint ETB/Catholic |
| Socio-economic profile | | DEIS status | |
| Geographic location | Suburb, north Dublin | Suburban town, west Dublin | Town in border county to Dublin |
| WWGS Passport Award | Citizen passport | Special passport | Diplomatic passport |

¹¹ Direct provision is the reception system for people who arrive in Ireland seeking asylum or “international protection”. The majority of direct provision centres around the country are privately owned and operated. Standards of accommodation and services vary widely. There have been several calls for the direct provision system to be ended and replaced with a reception system in line with best international practices.

Purposive sampling was then used to identify suitable settings to ensure they could provide sufficient opportunity to contribute to answering the central research questions and fulfil the case criteria (Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2003; Martyn Denscombe, 2002; Hyett et al., 2014; Stake, 2006). Selection prioritised opportunities for learning as opposed to representativeness (Stake, 2006). This was essential and driven by the study's concern to understand the quintain of GCE teaching and learning in greater depth. To satisfy the integrity of the observation phase, the settings also needed to offer at least one timetabled GCE class period each week, the possibility of a six-week observation phase and a reachable geographic location. It was impossible to fully verify these criteria without direct contact with those teachers who were delivering the classes. This was, in part, due to a lack of comprehensive information, but largely due to the precarious nature of GCE provision. In this instance, it was exemplified by changing allocations of both time and teachers, year on year. Consequently, I asked staff in WWGS to share my contact and study details with teachers in eight schools who appeared to offer the possibility of fulfilling the study's selection criteria. I also sought the teachers' permission to get in contact with them directly. Seven teachers initially expressed interest. Given my previously addressed 'insider' status, I decided not to work with teachers with whom I had previously worked. This excluded one.

I then arranged face-to-face meetings with interested teachers, in order to explain the study further, in addition to further investigating the suitability of the setting. Of the final six, two settings were deemed not suitable due to timetabling and year group allocations in the given year. One teacher chose not to participate further.¹² The final sample consisted of three teachers (Ms. Coughlan, Ms. Morton and Ms. Crowley) and 34 students, from three settings: St. Xavier's, St. Theresa's College and Dale College (Table 3). Of the 34 students that participated in the observation phase, 25 were selected to participate in the focus groups (Table 4). Criteria for student focus group selection was based on consent, friendship groupings and availability

4.2 Research methods

The research methods for this study include participant observation, semi-structured interviews and

¹² Although the final three initially met the selection criteria, as the study progressed, it was ultimately only possible to observe ENGAGE for 4 weeks due to temporal factors and other school events (Table 4).

focus groups (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Cohen et al., 2000; Denscombe, 1983; Emerson, 1995; Kvale, 2007; Robson, 2002). These methods were chosen to reveal, build on and understand both the quintain and the case in depth, and from multiple perspectives. In particular, participant observation was selected to address specific gaps that had been previously identified in relation to classroom practice (Bamber, 2020; Sant et al., 2018). Together, the methods also provided opportunities to include voices, such as student voices, which might otherwise be marginalised (Bogdan & Biklen, 2010).

4.2.1 Participant observation

Participant observation was chosen as one of the research methods for this study, in order to gain insights directly from the classroom. This method offered close proximity to the study's quintain and participants in all their complexities and facilitated the collection of rich, valuable and heretofore forgotten or ignored data (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Cohen et al., 2000; Hammersley, 1999). The particular approach adopted for this study drew on ethnographic participant observation techniques that seek to focus on human interactions and experiences. For example, spending a significant period of time in the field was important to highlight certain processes that teachers and students engaged in to make meaning within their specific contexts. Table 4 details the number of lessons observed in each setting, in addition to the number of observation hours. These sequences of time revealed certain elements of cause and effect and the role and influence of relationships on the process (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994). This increased the depth and richness of the study, while at the same time revealing greater complexity (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Furthermore, the participant observation phase was "particularly important for getting at tacit understandings and theory-in-use, as well as aspects of the participants' perspectives that they are reluctant to directly state in interviews" (Maxwell, 2005, p.94).

Table 4 *Data collection*

| SETTING | TIMEFRAME | LESSONS OBSERVED | HOURS OBSERVED | FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS | DURATION of FOCUS GROUP | TEACHER INTERVIEW | SOURCES OF DATA |
|---|-------------------------------|--|--------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------|---|
| St. Xavier's <i>(Ms. Coughlan)</i> | October 2015- January 2016 | 6 x 40 mins 5 x 80 mins (plus one introduction visit) | 10 hours 40 mins | Focus Group 1 Roisín, Kelly, Niamh, Orla, Isobel, Sinead | 58 mins | 1 hour 9 mins | Field notes x 12 |
| | | | | Focus Group 2 Beth, Lucy, Sive, Sasha, Zoe | 1 hour 2 mins | | Focus group transcript x 2 Interview transcript x 1 |
| St. Theresa's College <i>(Ms. Morton)</i> | April-September 2016 | 4 x 40 mins (plus one introduction visit) | 2 hours 40 mins | Focus Group 1 Tess, Saorla, Ciara, Sonya | 55 mins | 1 hour 1 mins | Field notes x 5 Focus group transcript x 1 Interview transcript x 1 |
| Dale College <i>(Ms. Crowley)</i> | September- November 2016 | 10 x 40 mins (plus one introduction visit) | 6 hours 40 mins | Focus Group 1 Rachel, Peter Miriam, Karen Daniel | 59 mins | 55 mins | Field notes x 11 |
| | | | | Focus Group 2 Siobhán, Anne Steven, Helen, Nancy | 58 mins | | Focus group transcript x 2 Interview transcript x 1 |

Whilst significant time was spent in both St. Xavier's and Dale College, unforeseen practical constraints did not allow for a similar observation period in St. Theresa's. Consequently, the most significant impact I observed was a more confined view of the overall experience of the module. I relied on participants' own reports to extend that insight in the interview and focus group. Nonetheless, patterns of classroom practice and engagement did emerge over the course of the observation period and it was felt that across the three settings, engagement with the participants was sufficiently prolonged to draw out real versus idealised behaviour (Anderson-Levitt, 2006). In line with passive participant or observer-as-participant, I did not participate in the activities observed. Interactions with participants during lessons was minimal (Cohen et al., 2000; Robson, 2002; Spradley, 1980).¹³ Furthermore, I was known to all participants as a researcher and by my first name (Cohen et al., 2000; Spradley, 1980). This option was chosen to ensure full disclosure of the study to participants and to obtain informed consent. It was also selected with a view to reducing interruptions to otherwise routine practice. Finally, given the classroom setting, it would not have been possible for me to act as an insider without taking on the role of teacher.

The notion that participant observation can capture real versus idealised behaviour has been challenged on a number of grounds that include, matters of data interpretation and the propensity of participants to change their behaviour. I remained alert to the potential of reactivity (Cohen et al., 2000; Hammersley, 1999; Robson, 2002). Despite the assertion that observation can be non-interventionist and unobtrusive, I did recognise that my presence as researcher would change the nature of what was observed, regardless of the type of participant observation selected. This highlighted a further dilemma. On one hand, there was a need to immerse myself in the setting in order to ensure depth of understanding. On the other, I did not want to intrude to the extent where one may do harm (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011). This was a delicate balancing act. One mechanism I used to counter this was a prolonged period in the setting with participants. This provided the opportunity to build trust over time and, so much as it was possible, to normalise my presence in each setting (Robson, 2002).

¹³ Across the three settings, I chose to sit towards the front and side of the classroom. This gave me a better view of the students' facial expressions than sitting at the back whilst also allowing all participants to have a view of me. I felt that this might help to make me a part of the class in an unobtrusive way, rather than being viewed as someone that was observing from behind.

4.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were selected to complement the classroom observations and to ensure the inclusion of teachers' interpretations (Denscombe, 2002; Kvale, 2007; Robson, 2002). As crucial participants within GCE practice, capturing their interpretations and perspectives was deemed essential. Recognising that the observations could not be exhaustive, the interviews served to work in conjunction with the other methods to deepen the study and to understand wider factors which influenced teaching and learning in the classroom (Hammersley, 1983). Furthermore, interviews with teachers revealed motivations and rationale for events observed within the classroom. The method sought to include teachers as participants, to interpret the sessions I observed from their perspectives, and to explain that world as they saw and understood it (Cohen et al., 2000; Kvale, 1997, cited in Cohen et al, 2000). To this end, interviews took place following the classroom observations and with a gap of between one week and a summer recess. As a qualitative research method, the interview is common, though not without its challenges. I will address these in the validity section of this chapter.

4.2.3 Focus groups

I selected the focus group method to work with student participants. As primary actors and contributors to GCE teaching and learning processes, the inclusion of their own interpretations and perspectives was of crucial value and importance to the study (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lundy, 2007). Literature related to focus groups, as a research method, is limited and describes the method as "methodologically naïve" (Robson, 2002, p. 288). Nonetheless, certain criteria, techniques and weaknesses are set out. The conversational nature of this method was particularly appropriate for use with young people, given its less formal and more participatory and supportive approach. I emphasised this point at the beginning of all focus group sessions, encouraging students to add to what their classmates were saying, or to offer a different perspective. I also informed them that I would address questions to the group, rather than individuals, except for qualifying questions. This was to support Cohen et al.'s (2000) contention that "It is from the interaction of the group that the data emerge" (1997, p. 288). The focus group method also allowed me to generate large amounts of data in a relatively small amount of time and to create a less intimidating space for students. The group setting also provided a natural check and quality control aspect,

as participants sought to understand and be understood (Cohen et al., 2000; Robson, 2002).

Nonetheless, I was also aware of certain challenges related to the method. I was conscious of creating a friendly and relaxed setting for students. As the focus groups took place post-observation, students were relatively familiar with me and knew that I had observed some of the experiences they spoke about. With respect to planning, certain practical matters required attention such as, the size of the group, ensuring adequate attendance, the number of questions and ensuring that participants felt that they had something to say (Cohen et al., 2000). The most challenging of these was ensuring sufficient attendance. Sampling for the focus groups was in some instances limited by consent and the availability of students. Where two focus groups took place in one setting, students were free to organise those groupings themselves.

4.3 Ethics & relationships

Ethics and the issue of gaining access were a key concern for this study. It was important that potential participants understood the purpose of the study, data sources and collection instruments, and how participant identities would be protected (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2008; Denscombe, 2010). Moreover, a considered approach to the issue of informed consent for both participating teachers and young people was paramount, given the observational nature of the study and the site of study. It was both a privilege and a challenge to enter such a space to carry out research. Consequently, the study recognised the secondary school classroom as a private space that centred around important relationships between one teacher and students, and students themselves. In addition, it was alert to power dynamics that may operate against students, particularly in relation to the matter of consent. These dynamics were to the fore during the processes of gaining access and acquiring informed consent. This section sets out the procedures that were followed in relation to both of these areas.

4.3.1 Gaining access

As a first step, the standard practice regarding gaining access to a school is via the Principal and Board of Management. In this instance, however, given the centrality of teachers to this study, and the specific nature of the subject area, the first step in gaining access was to approach teachers. Following the selection process that was detailed in 4.1.3, I provided the participating teachers with a Plain Language

Statement (Appendix A). I asked them to reflect on the study and to respond within a few days. I also offered to answer any further questions or concerns they had. Once teachers agreed to take part in the study, I then issued a formal invitation to their school, via the Principal and Board of Management. The invitation was accompanied by a Plain Language Statement (PLS) which clearly addressed a number of issues (Appendix B). It also stated that no risks to the school had been identified. At this point, if happy to proceed, both the participating teacher and the Principal, on behalf of the school management, were asked to sign informed consent forms (Appendix C and D). The consent form included a number of tick boxes, ensuring that participants understood exactly what the study would involve and allowing them to seek further clarification if necessary.

4.3.2 Student consent

A significant focus of this study is on students' learning, experiences and interpretations. Power dynamics in the classroom have already been set out and, as another adult entering into that space, I was conscious of the extent to which students would feel free to opt in or opt out of the study. To this end, I did emphasise with teachers separately, that students were free to not give consent. I did not want teachers to feel that this would reflect badly on their class. In addition, ensuring students had an authentic opportunity to understand the study and its purposes was deemed essential, not only for them, but also for the principles that underpinned the study (Cook-Sather, 2006; Cruddas, 2007; Lundy, 2007; Waldron, 2006).

On receiving consent from both teachers and Principals, I then arranged to meet the group of potential students and present a short and accessible overview of the study to them. It addressed the study under the following questions: what is research and why carry out a research study?; what is my research question?; what will happen with my research?; how might you participate?; what happens if you do not want to participate? During the presentation I wanted to make clear to students, not only the importance of including and listening to their voice, but also who might listen to that voice and what influence it might have (Lundy, 2007). This was informed by Lundy's alternative conceptual model of Article 12 in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which extends the notion of children's voice to also include the concepts space, audience and influence. (Lundy, 2007). In addition, I indicated that I was interested in as many of the students as possible being involved, so as to hear their different voices (Cruddas, 2007). I

followed the presentation by handing out the student Plain Language Statement and giving students a few minutes to read it and ask any questions (Appendix E). This was followed by the informed consent form for both the students and their parents (Appendix F and H), in addition to a PLS for parents (Appendix G). The students were then asked to discuss the study at home and return the completed forms in time for the next class. Within the consent forms, students and parents were given the options of opting in or out of each phase of the study separately. Whilst the large majority of initial student responses granted consent, I did query the extent to which students really felt they could engage with the option of saying no. None of the students asked significant questions and many filled in the student consent form straight away. Parental consent may indicate a more authentic willingness on the part of students to participate, as it required an additional action and the completion of more paperwork to ensure participation. It is interesting to note that despite receiving consent from 24 students in the first setting, only 12 of those presented parental consent, despite reminders and additional copies being requested.

Collecting parental consent proved difficult in two settings. In St. Theresa's College, I only met the students once a week, therefore I was relying on the students to remember to return the form a full week later. In Dale College, the process was exacerbated by infrequent and inconsistent attendance. I found this presented a dilemma for me as I tried to balance respect and acceptance of students' right not to participate, while at the same time wanting to achieve the maximum participation possible. For example, despite a few reminders, one student who was quite vocal and outspoken during class, never returned their parental consent form and subsequently, their contributions are not included in the study. As the study progressed, the participants were reminded of the voluntary nature of their participation and of the option to withdraw at any time. I also took the opportunity to check-in with the teachers during the observation phase and to ensure their comfort and willingness to continue to participate.

4.4 Data collection

Data were collected across the three different settings between October 2015 and November 2016, as detailed in Table 4. The extent to which I was able to spend time with teachers and/or students outside of the observed lessons, depended on whether the sessions I attended fell around lunch or break times or were running straight into another class period. Any significant discussions I did have during these times

were included in my field notes. In each setting, I also took the opportunity to walk around the school and to take some photographs. At times, I recorded a voice memo having left the school. On the evening of each observation session, I typed up extended field notes which incorporated details from my notebook, the audio recording, an observational schedule and voice memos. Table 4 outlines how much observation time I had in each setting, the sources of data developed and details related to the interviews and focus groups. Research instruments for this study included an observational schedule (Appendix I) and schedules of questions and probes for the semi structured interviews with teachers (Appendix J) and focus group sessions with students (Appendix K). The observational schedule was drawn from the literature review and the conceptual framework. It supported the recording of data during classroom observations. I also took notes in a diary to keep track of processes and decision-making during the different phases of the study. This was to support reflexivity and to develop an audit trail regarding dilemmas encountered and decisions that needed to be made over the course of the study.

Across the three settings, the following sources of data were collected and uploaded to Nvivo 11; twenty-eight sets of field notes which contained classroom observations and reflections, three teacher semi-structured interviews and five student focus group discussions. Audio files of all of the above were also recorded. Those related to classroom observations were used to support the field notes write-up. The interview and focus group sessions were transcribed, followed by further listening to the audio files whilst re-reading.

4.5 Data analysis

Data analysis was an ongoing iterative process that began during the data collection phase and continued over the course of writing up the research findings (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994). I adopted a structured and systemic approach that required ongoing decision-making, reviewing and at times re-routing (Emerson, 1995; Maxwell, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Throughout the analysis phases, there was a clear interplay between the central research questions and the study's conceptual framework. Similarly, data analysis was influenced by my epistemological perspectives and also the research paradigm within which the study is situated (Maxwell, 2005). During the observation phase, data analysis consisted of reading and re-reading data already captured, in parallel to data collection. This helped

to support reflexivity and to guide further observations and collections (Anderson-Levitt, 2006). Regular reading and re-reading of the data took place continually throughout the process, from initial data collection days through to the identification of themes and write-up. Outside of that process, data analysis for my study was broken down into four distinct phases. These are detailed below.

4.5.1 Open coding

Phase One (open coding) focussed on data collected from the first setting visited, St. Xavier's. All sources of data from this setting were analysed in the same way using Nvivo software. Open coding, using a line-by-line technique was employed, given the exploratory nature of the research questions (Charmez, 2006; Emerson, 1995; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). At this stage, codes were multiple and discrete, and also viewed as a means of opening up several lines of enquiry (Emerson, 1995). During this phase, I wanted to remain as open as possible, while at the same time connected to the key concepts in my conceptual framework. In addition, I sought the views of a colleague who also coded two sources of data. Although on occasion, we had used different terminology, I was satisfied that I had not overlooked anything significant. This systematic, chronological and line-by-line approach to coding also ensured I remained rooted in the data (Emerson, 1995). At the end of this open-coding phase, I had analysed all the data from St. Xavier's and identified 215 codes (see Appendix L). At this point, I also needed to make certain decisions. Firstly, I needed to decide on a process to categorise and merge these open codes. Secondly, I had to decide on a coding process for data from the two remaining settings.

4.5.2 Focussed coding

With these choices in mind, I moved onto Phase Two of data analysis. During these transitions, diary recordings and reflections were essential, in addition to conversations with my supervisors. This was a significant turning point in the data's journey from sources to the development of themes (Emerson, 1995). At this point, I was keenly aware of the ethical and professional nature of research and of the integrity and rigour that is required. As a result, I established a systematic approach in order to develop a series of broader focussed codes that were more focussed on the central research questions and the study's conceptual framework. Through this process, I began to identify patterns and relationships between the open codes, and indeed variations. This echoes Maxwell's citation of Strauss, stating that within qualitative

research, “the goal of coding is not to count things, but to “fracture” (Strauss, 1987, p. 29) the data and rearrange them into categories” (Maxwell, 2005, p. 96). To complement and strengthen this process, I also developed analytical memos for each focussed code (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Maxwell, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

On completion of Phase Two, I had identified 45 focussed codes, each with approximately four-five associated sub-codes. Phase Three of the process involved coding data from the other two settings. Following an initial reading of this data and a conversation with my supervisor, I decided to take a line-by-line approach again, but this time working from the focussed codes. I also remained open to the idea that new codes or sub-codes could emerge. By the end of this phase, I had added a further four focussed codes (volunteers, students’ activities, confidence and innovation) as they were new and particular to St. Theresa’s and Dale College. In total, at the end of the three coding phases, 49 focussed codes were developed from the data (Appendix M). One further code, “quotes”, was also created to quickly identify moments or comments that were deemed to be significant or illustrative moments.

4.5.3 Identifying and developing themes

Moving to Phase Four signalled another transition, one where decisions needed to be made and the role of the researcher again came under the spotlight. I had reached a point in data analysis where I needed to identify and develop a set of core themes through which I could present the data and move towards answering the study’s central research questions. At this point, I identified a number of exercises and processes to work through the data and codes in order to maintain a systematic process (Bazeley, 2009; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Chenail, 1995; Saldana, 2013). These included: sorting and organising codes into different groups, accessing themes’ uniqueness in relation to other potential themes, checking for outliers and what was missing and, juxtaposing thematic descriptions and interpretations with the data set itself (Bazeley, 2009; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Saldana, 2013). At this stage, it was also useful to examine how other studies had presented findings. Following on, I read through my analytical memos again, making further notes. I also relied on the writing process to develop potential themes further, drawing out how they correlated to each other and also how they were unique and distinct (Bazeley, 2009; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Saldana, 2013). During this phase, I moved beyond identifying themes (Bazeley, 2009), to consider more

detailed analysis in order to establish linkages and relationships (Cohen et al., 2000). The different perspectives and experiences of the participants were central at this point, as was examining that which was absent from the data set or not said (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Bazeley, 2009; Robson, 2002). At the end of this final phase of analysis, which also included further discussions with my supervisors, I had outlined seven core themes and a number of associated sub-themes (Appendix N). However, analysis continued into the write up phase as some themes coalesced and diverged, to finally inform three overarching ideas that frame each findings chapter.

4.6 Validity

A rigorous approach was applied to this study throughout each stage in order to support the development of credible and valuable findings, whilst also remaining true to a social interpretivist perspective. Designed as a case study and set within the qualitative paradigm, my research needed to address certain issues related to credibility, dependability and transferability (Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994). This section sets out how the study and its processes were designed to respond to these issues, in addition to setting out matters of transferability.

4.6.1 Credibility and dependability

Over the course of my fieldwork, I gathered large quantities of data that underwent significant refinement and analysis. This work was largely completed alone, with support from my supervisors (Ball, 1984; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Consequently, the study's processes and findings face challenges related to credibility and dependability. Moreover, as researcher, I wanted to achieve a systematic and structured approach to both data collection and analysis, and to avoid any manipulation of the data, either consciously or unconsciously. To achieve that and to strengthen the credibility of my final report, I put several procedures in place. Initial field notes were recorded in a notebook during observations. It was important that these notes were primarily descriptive rather than interpretative in nature (Emerson, 1995), whilst recognising that even within a description, the researcher is making selections and choosing events or moments that they deem significant (Emerson, 1995). I followed Spradley's recommendation to divide each page into two columns; the first and larger section related to description, while the second, a smaller column served to take notes that were more interpretative in nature.

Furthermore, observation sessions were audio recorded and these files were used to support more detailed field notes. Audio files recorded another slice of reality, capturing emotion, tone and context in a way that written notes cannot capture (Emerson, 1995). As Anderson-Levitt (2006) indicates:

Such recordings do sometimes allow us to document, as field notes cannot, the changes in intonation and shifts in posture and repaired sentences with which people construct and contest everyday reality (2006, p. 288).

Furthermore, I spent significant periods of time with the participants in each setting (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I met students up to three times a week, interacting with them before class began, in addition to observing their interactions during class. During analysis, I made every effort to remain close to the data, continuously returning to it during theme development and write up phases. Specifically, on a few occasions, I read the data on a settings basis, in addition to a participant basis. I used a diary to reflect on the observation sessions and, at other stages of the research process, particularly when decisions were required on my part. I have made efforts to be as clear and transparent about all of the processes I initiated and why. Ball (1984) suggests that this supports the development of an audit trail, as the data go through a process of interpretation which includes decisions around what counts as data, which data are privileged over others and, the “necessary filtering of reality with which the observer is confronted” (Ball, 1984, p.97). The desire was not to remove myself as researcher from that process, but to acknowledge assumptions and beliefs that were operating, and to bring these to the fore (Hammersley, 1983; Maxwell, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Finally, I used triangulation to reduce challenges to the study’s dependability. As any data set represents only one slice of reality, gathering further data from interviews and focus groups, and from several perspectives, strengthens the claims made in this study (Cohen et al., 2000). It also acknowledges that while observation offers rich sources of data, it is not exhaustive (Hammersley, 1983). Moreover, the use of interviews and focus groups extended the data and gave participants their own voice within the research (Denscombe, 2010). Each teacher was interviewed and students were invited to participate in a focus group. As separate entities, both methods face the same issues of dependability. Denscombe (1984)

recommends a number of built-in checks including reciprocity, so that:

the interviewer and interviewee are engaged in almost a dance, where the respondent must explain their activities and opinions within a particular context so as to appear reasonable and logical to the interviewer, and the need to recognise that respondents are far from passive providers of data (1984, p.115).

The interviews I conducted followed a similar process, and while the dependability of the participants was not in question, it was at times challenging to establish full clarity in certain areas, highlighting the incomplete nature of any one method. Finally, I shared the transcripts of the interview with the teachers to check for meaning and understanding from their viewpoint. Only one teacher responded with a minor amendment.

4.6.2 Transferability

Transferability relates the value and usefulness of the study in understanding wider situations or, applying findings to other scenarios beyond the context of the specific study presented (Cohen et al., 2000, Miles & Huberman, 1994). This principle posed a paradigmatic dilemma for my study given its foundations in social interpretivism and its construction around a case study (Cohen et al., 2000; Stake, 2006). The qualitative research paradigm maintains that each situation is unique and context specific. Therefore, claims that data are generalisable are at best challenging, if not impossible or undesirable (Cohen et al., 2000).

In response, I planned to integrate certain measures to facilitate the usefulness of the study to other similar situations. Firstly, I chose to examine the case across three different settings. This built variety into the study in terms of contexts, participants and data sources (Stake, 2006). Secondly, I have provided rich descriptions of the contexts for the case, so that readers can make their own judgements regarding the transferability of the study to other situations (Cohen et al., 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Thirdly, the triangulation of classroom observations with teacher interviews and student focus groups, provided multiple slices of reality, thereby widening and deepening the perspective and the account. Moreover, triangulation helped to reduce researcher bias and the funnelling of data into a single viewpoint (Cohen et al., 2000).

This approach was particularly valuable and pertinent when examining divergent interpretations of classroom interactions that emerged over the course of the study.

Addressing validity is not an attempt to remove doubt completely or decisively address concerns (Maxwell, 2005). Rather, it is an essential and ongoing element of the research methodology, in order to identify possible weaknesses in the credibility and relevance of the study and, to mitigate against these.

Conclusion

Chapters Three and Four have presented and developed strong theoretical, conceptual and methodological foundations in order to support a coherent and considered approach to this study. The theoretical and conceptual elements were designed and applied in such a way to remain open to the exploratory and qualitative nature of the study. Moreover, the research methodology provides a robust and rigorous framework that supports and strengthens the study's validity and findings, which are now presented over the course of the following three chapters.

CHAPTER FIVE

TRANSLATING GCE INTO CLASSROOM CURRICULA: STRATEGIES, CHALLENGES AND POSSIBILITY FOR PRACTICE

Introduction

A central premise of this study is to move beyond perception-based research (Cohen et al., 2000) and focus on GCE teaching and learning within the situated context of the classroom. Much of the current research is based on teachers' and students' reports of what is happening in schools (Fiedler et al., 2011). This chapter seeks to bridge that gap by presenting empirical evidence to profile three distinct enactments of GCE classroom practice. GCE stands apart within formal education in Ireland. It does not have a statutory status, nor are there any formal guidelines or discrete curricula for the field (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Cusack, 2008; Gleeson et al., 2007; Honan, 2005). As a result, it is argued that curricular constructions of GCE have been dominated by textbooks and NGDO materials that portray softer and more paternal conceptualisations of GCE (Bryan, 2012). On the other hand, in the absence of official curricula to support GCE classroom practice, opportunities emerge for more locally constructed curricula. Teachers who are interested in, or passionate about GCE, have several choices to make in terms of curriculum selection and organisation. Yet, the translation of GCE into classroom curricula also presents a series of challenges, in order to move from ideas or plans to enactment. Teachers must select and organise an array of disciplines and dimensions into meaningful teaching and learning programmes and ensure that GCE retains its criticality and potential to transform. This study found that while teacher-led curriculum design and autonomy can result in important learning moments and empowering experiences for students, it can also result in fragmented and one-dimensional GCE practices. This has implications for more critical forms of GCE.

Drawing on my analysis of classroom observations, teacher interviews and student focus groups, this chapter puts forward two specific arguments in relation to the translation of GCE into locally constructed classroom curricula. In general, I argue that teachers' epistemological and ontological perspectives play a determining role in informing the substance of the modules. These perspectives include, how teachers

understand knowledge, the role of knowledge within GCE practices and, also, their worldviews. This is particularly significant given the absence of state-sanctioned curricula for GCE. Other important, but secondary factors, were identified in the analysis, including teacher subject identity, the wider school context and the role of media and social media. In particular, the study maintains that developing GCE curricula for classroom practice presents challenge and opportunity. Challenges include, identifying solid conceptual foundations for GCE in the classroom, balancing different dimensions of GCE and, building curricula that reflect the breadth and depth of the subject area. Opportunities arose to a lesser extent and were supported by a number of factors including the wider context in which the curriculum was situated.

The chapter is divided into three sections that critically examine the enacted GCE curricula in St. Xavier's, St. Theresa's and Dale College separately (Table 5). The sections begin with a contextual overview of each setting, followed by an outline of the corresponding GCE module, its origins, topics and content. Table 5 identifies key aspects and topics of the curricula across each setting that together shaped and drove how they were enacted in the classroom. This framing emerged primarily through the participating teachers' epistemological and ontological perspectives that underpinned their practice. The result was unique and organic curricula that placed emphases on different dimensions of GCE, related to knowledge, action and disposition. To illustrate this, I draw on UNESCO's (2015) core conceptual dimensions of GCE that relate to cognition, action and values, and identify the dominant dimension for each setting (Table 5). Although these dimensions can be interrelated, and elements of more than one dimension were found within some settings, this chapter will argue that in translating GCE into classroom curricula, one dimension rose to the fore in terms of teaching and learning intentions. This first findings chapter also makes an important contribution in presenting empirical evidence across three settings, in order to profile three distinct approaches to GCE teaching and learning.

Table 5 *Key aspects of locally constructed GCE curricula across three settings*

| SETTING & TEACHER | TEACHER SUBJECT BACKGROUNDS | TOPICS | CORE CONCEPTUAL DIMENSION (UNESCO, 2015) | TEACHERS' EPISTEMOLOGICAL/ ONTOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE | KEY CONCEPTS | STIMULUS/RESOURCES USED DURING OBSERVATION |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|
| ST XAVIER'S Ms. Coughlan | Geography, CSPE | Migration, conflict | Cognitive (knowledge) | Knowledge constituted of facts and concepts that need to be critically analysed | Identity, critical thinking | Sadaka's Palestine & Israel: How will there be Peace? Maps, photos, photo slideshows related to Syria European time lapse map https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WFYKrNptzXw Euronews Jewish Voices for peace, Israel & Palestine: An Animated Introduction https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IklocPTBcP8 |
| ST. THERESA'S Ms. Morton | Religious Education, History, CSPE | Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) | Behavioural (action) | Skills oriented with a view to empowerment | Empowerment, Experiencing democracy | |
| DALE COLLEGE Ms. Crowley | English, Spanish, CSPE | Refugees, older people, direct provision | Socio-emotional (values & disposition) | Knowledge secondary to disposition and emotion | Pro-social, empathy, care | Photographs of migration accessed online Older than Ireland RTE documentary Nike advertisement - Sr. Madonna Buder Podcast - Ray D'Arcy radio show about direct provision Lives in Limbo – Irish Times special online feature Newspaper articles taken from journal.ie, Irish Examiner, Irish Times |

5.1 St. Xavier's Secondary School: A contextual overview

St Xavier's Secondary School is situated in Belview, a suburb of Dublin overlooking the sea. It is an all-female school and the ethos expressed is Catholic. The school is situated within 100 metres of a catholic church and approximately 250 metres of a busy suburban centre. The main road leading to the school is lined with gated, large, detached houses. A 5-bedroomed property on this road sold for €1.2 million in 2016 (www.propertypriceregister.ie, 2017). The Central Statistics Office (CSO) constituency area profile identifies a population of 146,512, with a secondary school-going population of 10,644. "Non-nationals" account for 9% of the population compared to the national average of 12% (CSO, 2011). The school's mission states that "we in St. Xavier's aim to educate the whole of the person and to encourage the qualities of respect, truth, responsibility, happiness and excellence in a caring Christian atmosphere" (Staff handbook, 2014). Inside the school, close to the reception area, there are a number of permanent posters on display. These include one related to mental health, a human rights poster from Amnesty International and a Trócaire batik. Further into the school, the corridors and stairs are narrow and classrooms are small. There are a few noticeboards and some student artwork displayed. Some seem to have been there for quite some time.

Ms. Coughlan taught International relations (IR) on Mondays between 1.45 and 3.05 pm (a double class period) and on Fridays at 10.10 - 10.50 am in the first term of the school year. The teacher and students gathered in two spaces while I observed. For the most part, the classes took place in Ms. Coughlan's home room. On occasions, the class moved to the computer room for one of the two class periods on Mondays. Ms. Coughlan's classroom is square in shape and small in size. There is very little space to move around between desks. At the top of the room are the interactive whiteboard (IWB) and another whiteboard. Beside the IWB, in the right-hand corner, is the teacher's desk and computer. The students' desks are joined together and arranged in one large U-shape around the room. Within the U are four rows of four adjoining desks facing the IWB. There is space for a total of 28 students. Several maps hang on the walls. They appear relatively old and vary in type and focus, including political and topographical maps of Ireland, Europe and the world.

There were a total of 26 female students in IR. They are aged between 15 – 16 years old. Twenty-

five are white and one is of Asian heritage. One student's surname suggests Eastern European heritage and a third is of dual heritage - Irish and unknown. As the weeks' progress, I observe a number of friendship pairings and groupings. Some of the students tend to sit in the same seats every time while a smaller few move about the room. Student attendance in Ms. Coughlan's GCE class was consistent and 18 was the average attendance.

5.1.1 International Relations: a cognitive framework for GCE

International Relations (IR) was a sub-module of a year-long course, on social and environmental education, that was compulsory for all Transition Year (TY) students in St. Xavier's. A number of teachers delivered the year-long module, each responsible for designing and delivering a sub-module that was distinct and of interest to them. IR was built around the exploration of three conflicts in Syria, Yemen and Israel and the Occupied Palestinian Territories. The topics explored included conflict, trans-Mediterranean migration and national identity (Table 5). Content for each of these conflicts was presented through a number of different sources that included: photographs selected by the teacher; a number of different maps and activities from *Palestine & Israel – How will there be a Just Peace* (Gannon & Murtagh, 2012). Ms. Coughlan was responsible for IR. St. Xavier's staff handbook for 2015-2016 lists a total of 31 subject groupings and the responsible teachers. Neither development education nor global citizenship education were identified within this list, which highlights the invisible nature of GCE at a formal, whole school level.

Ms. Coughlan's description of the origins and development of IR echo the findings of previous studies that highlight a strong reliance on individual and isolated teachers to drive GCE in their schools (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016). For example, when I asked her if staff met to plan programmes, Ms. Coughlan stated that "we'd have subject planning meetings but because I'm on my own in TY anyhow I kind of wouldn't" (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier's, interview). This description, in tandem with the absence of paper work such as lessons plans to support the module, indicated an organic and informal approach to creating and developing the module. Ms. Coughlan also spoke about how she would "tweak" the module every year and went on to say:

[there was] no direct thought in my head, “I’ll stop doing this now”. It just evolved, you know. I’ve always been interested [in international relations] so I had a lot of information that was brewing to come out (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier’s, interview).

Clearly, Ms. Coughlan had a passion for and interest in the subject area that went beyond a professional responsibility. This reflects a commitment some teachers demonstrate to GCE by developing related modules for students on their own initiative. Furthermore, the reference to “a lot of information” by Ms. Coughlan in the excerpt above, is an indication of a particular leaning towards substantive knowledge in IR. Through her practice, there was a strong focus on content knowledge which is aligned to cognitive dimensions of GCE that also emphasise thinking skills (UNESCO, 2015). The next two sections explore the building blocks that Ms. Coughlan relied on in practice, to accentuate this dimension of GCE in St. Xavier’s.

5.1.2 The role of teacher subject identity

Ms. Coughlan’s identity as a Geography teacher was very strong and played a significant role in informing, not only her worldview, but also the selection, organisation and presentation of content for IR. She highlighted the roots of the module in her Geography background and particular elements of the Leaving Certificate Geography syllabus. She stated:

It evolved really. It started as the Culture & Identity module in the Leaving Cert course. So it began with this is national identity, this is ethnicity...Then I became a bit more practical, lots of little case studies...and maybe then talking about say Sikhism or Pakistan/India and the conflict there you know (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier’s, interview).

Her identity as a Geographer also served as a lens through which she explored subject matter. For example, her use of maps was frequent and particularly distinct. She regularly referred to herself as a Geographer, stating in class, “this is how geographers look at History” (St Xavier’s, field notes, Week 5), and on another occasion, explained “why she, as a geographer, is interested in religion” (St. Xavier’s, field notes, Week 5). On one occasion, when students were studying a map of Africa to illustrate migration flows, Ms. Coughlan seemed keen to stress with students the complex nature of the continent. She stated:

we have one image of Africa coming into our head...the whole time...and that's damaging (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 3).

She went on to talk about some of its geographical features, including that the continent had approximately 60 countries and 1 billion people. She finished by saying, “yet we’ve the same image or a mushed up image in our heads”, that she wanted to “unpick” (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 3). This was a clear challenge to overly simplistic narratives that have been found to dominate within GCE practices (Bourn, 2015; Bryan & Bracken, 2011). Through Geography, Ms. Coughlan was clearly aware of the harmful nature of reductive and overly singular viewpoints and following sections will explore this further.

In foregrounding this disciplinary identity, Ms. Coughlan provided a significant lens for students through which to understand GCE topics. It was not only embedded in the origins of the module, but also infused how it was presented in practice. Providing this disciplinary approach helped to reduce the risk of an overly linear perspective and inferred that there are many ways of understanding a topic. It is a significant practice to highlight as it exemplifies how teachers' subject knowledge and identities can contribute to more solid knowledge foundations for GCE (Bourn, 2015; Standish, 2014). One such example is provided here. By way of introducing the topic of conflict in Yemen and Israel and the Occupied Palestinian Territories, Ms. Coughlan explored the concepts of identity and nationhood before presenting students to the specific conflicts themselves. These lessons included a whole class conversation on “what makes the Irish, Irish” and a very brief conversation about borders, the impact of colonisers changing borders in Africa and the impact of grouping peoples and countries together (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 5). During another lesson, I observed Ms. Coughlan talk about identity as something that:

...can be “hazy but powerful” ...and an “extremely important feeling and emotion...and ethnic bond” that she wanted students to keep in their heads (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

Her request to students to keep the concept “in their heads”, suggests that Ms. Coughlan understood the concept of Identity, and in particular ethnic identity, as a basis for understanding other issues she planned to explore. Whilst the concept of identity presented here risks being exclusionary and problematic, this particular representation comes from the Geography Leaving Certificate curriculum (NCCA, 2003). I focus

on it in order to highlight what Parker (2018) describes as an appropriate core aspect of subject matter, in order to explore a more peripheral aspect, such as a specific conflict.

Over the course of the study, it was also one of the few examples whereby students deliberately had the opportunity to learn and to think about the topics they were encountering at a more conceptual level. This type of curriculum organisation is significant for GCE because it moves the focus from a symptomatic viewpoint (Bryan & Bracken, 2011) to one that provides students with the opportunity to explore more structural and historical aspects of conflict. Rather than students focusing on the symptoms or impacts of conflict, they were presented with an opportunity to explore some of the underlying causes. By contrast, the role of subject identities in the other two settings was less explicit or formative (Table 5). Rather, other factors such as professional development and media, emerged as more significant. These will be examined in the forthcoming sections. For now, one other teacher did speak about how she tried to integrate development education into her other subject areas. She stated:

I try and bring it in, not just in Development Education but also in other, like in English...even Spanish. We're doing immigration at the moment and I'm all about giving Mexicans a voice with regard to Donald Trump (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

This idea of integrating GCE into other subject areas is well established (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Honan, 2005; Liddy & Tormey, 2013; Sant et al., 2018; UNESCO, 2015). Indeed, social subjects, in particular Geography, have been identified as having strong connections to GCE-related issues (Gleeson et al., 2007; Liddy & Tormey, 2013). Conversely, the strong presence of Ms. Coughlan's "Geographer" identity within her GCE practice, offers another view and extends what we already know about the relationship between other subject areas and GCE within formal education (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Honan, 2005). It demonstrates how a particular subject can potentially be used to strengthen and deepen GCE curricula and also, the types of knowledge and expertise that teachers can draw on. In this instance, Ms. Coughlan's Geography identity served as one building block to support a strong cognitive dimension within her practice.

5.1.3 Scaffolding GCE cognitive learning

The cognitive dimension of IR was also informed by Ms. Coughlan's complex epistemological perspectives that, on one hand, valued established bodies of knowledge (Young, 2008), yet on the other, understood knowledge as socially constructed (Mercer, 1995; Young, 2008). This was exemplified by two further building blocks that Ms. Coughlan relied on in class, with a view to scaffolding student learning. These related to "facts" and critical thinking. This section examines how they were presented in class, why Ms. Coughlan identified them as important and the extent to which they were realised in practice.

5.1.3.1 "*Facts, facts, facts*"

On a regular basis, I observed Ms. Coughlan talk about facts in the classroom. References were often straight forward, asking students to gather facts, or pinpointing certain information as factual. For example, during a lesson on Syria, before students carried out research online, Ms. Coughlan put the following on the board:

War in Syria

- very complicated
- over 4 years

These are the players in that war

1. Assad
2. Free Syria Army
3. Kurds
4. I.S (Islamic State)

For each, find 5 facts

(St Xavier's, field notes, Week 2).

On another occasion, students completed an activity adapted from *Palestine & Israel – How will there be*

a Just Peace? They were presented with “basic fact cards” (Gannon & Murtagh, 2012, p. 9) that included information such as “Palestine and Israel are in the Middle East – on the eastern side of the Mediterranean Sea” and three separate fact cards stating why Jerusalem is a sacred city for Christians, Jews and Muslims respectively. Both of these instances were planned in order to serve as introductions to topics. This indicated that Ms. Coughlan sought to establish some context and a basic level of information as a key starting point for students (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Bourn, 2015). More broadly, this emphasis served to highlight students’ limited prior knowledge, the newness of these topics for some and, subsequently, the stages that are required in order to attempt to address complex global issues in the classroom. Ms. Coughlan’s instructions to “gather the facts first, then we can discuss it” (St. Xavier’s, field notes, Week 2) positioned facts as content or information that was required prior to discussing a topic. In the absence of an established body of knowledge associated for GCE, Ms. Coughlan’s use of facts, echoes what Young (2008) refers to as powerful knowledge – that is, specialised knowledge that students can access in school, to help make sense of the world around them, or indeed, the issues they are exploring.

This perspective was confirmed in interview, whereby Ms. Coughlan described her use of “facts” as a “foundation” that provided a basis from which to engage further. In addition, her account identified the potential value and purpose of facts within GCE teaching and learning:

It means that you ...have a ...basis, a factual basis, a foundation whether it is where is Syria? I suppose it’s a real teachery thing to do, what was its population, what was its capital city? That you’ve just an inroad in and it’s an easy thing to get and it’s not debatable and it’s the beginning...There are places where I’ll embrace controversy in the course you know and I’m really happy to have the discussion and I encourage emotional connection and all sorts of other things but I do like a foundation, that inroad to be very, very factual and I like them to feel they’re on very concrete territory as well.... You need something, in the shifting sands you need something (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier’s, interview).

Facts were described by Ms. Coughlan as an “in-road”, that positioned them as part of a scaffold, by means of an introduction to a topic. She defined “facts” as beyond debate and a starting point for herself and

students, that provided them both with a basis from which to engage in discussion or “emotional connections”. Her contribution here is significant, as it highlights challenges faced by both teachers and students as they negotiate GCE practice. Firstly, Ms. Coughlan recognised controversial and emotional aspects of GCE (Bourn, 2015; Schuitema et al., 2017; Tallon & McGregor, 2014; Tallon, 2012). This demonstrates a view of knowledge that is open to interpretation and debate (Young, 2008). However, in a more contradictory sense, she also seems to suggest that some knowledge is beyond debate. This is problematic, as Young (2008) contends that although access to powerful knowledge is important in education contexts, it should always be open to critique. Secondly, Ms. Coughlan’s reference to “shifting sands”, reflects the changing and complex nature of the subject area that was described by students as “changing constantly” (St Xavier’s, focus group 1), and a class where “there’s no real answers” (Dale College, focus group 1). At the level of classroom practice, these contributions highlight the challenge of an open curricular area that is built around contemporary issues, and correlated risks associated with insufficient rigour and a weak or absent knowledge base (Bourn, 2015; Ellis, 2016).

Ms. Coughlan’s desire to respond to this uncertainty and provide some foundations and scaffolding for her students is noteworthy. Within the context of change and complexity, “facts” provided Ms. Coughlan with what she described as “concrete territory”, and an inferred basis from which to explore an issue further. As a result, “facts” were established as a starting point in a GCE learning journey that also necessitated researching a topic and identifying a certain level of basic information. While a reliance on the notion of “facts” within GCE could be problematic and stand in contradiction to its emphasis on multiple perspectives and criticality (de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Freire & Ramos, 1996), the following section explores aspects of a more nuanced epistemological stance.

5.1.3.2 “Critically challenge”

A second building block identified within the cognitive framing of IR was expressed by Ms. Coughlan in class as, to “critically challenge”. It is connected to a key tenet of GCE which seeks to encourage critical thinking amongst learners (Andreotti, 2006; Tormey, 2014; UNESCO, 2015). This explicit reference by Ms. Coughlan, in class, extended the view of knowledge presented as “facts”. It acknowledged the social basis of knowledge and suggested engagement in a more complex process that

necessitated critical thinking to interrogate facts, rather than just a simple exercise in gathering facts. This further exemplified Ms. Coughlan's epistemological perspectives, indicating distinctions she made between different types of knowledge (Young, 2008). I observed Ms. Coughlan saying to students, "I want you to untangle it a little bit and get the facts" (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 4), which suggested that facts may not always be immediately accessible. I also observed her encouraging students to "critically challenge" and to "accept nothing, challenge everything" (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 3). Alongside this she also explained to students what she meant by this and praised them for doing so:

Ms. Coughlan says "good girl Louise, you have to challenge everything...We don't absolutely know for sure...what is difficult then is you have to then pick out as much of the facts.... you have to do what Louise was doing there...is critically challenge things...questions things deeper" (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

This was a potentially radical call in a formal education setting as it established knowledge as partial and open to interrogation (Young, 2008). In doing so, Ms. Coughlan's GCE practice aligned with both Freirean philosophy and more recent literature that asserts the provisional and pluralistic nature of knowledge (de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Young, 2008). However, there was also a tension here that I did not observe arising in the classroom. If students followed Ms. Coughlan's invitation to challenge everything, what becomes of the solid foundation that was accredited to facts? On one hand students were encouraged to understand a topic via a number of facts that were not debatable, whilst on the other hand suggesting that these facts should be challenged. The interpretation is reminiscent of Young's careful identification of powerful knowledge, a type of knowledge that stands apart from that derived from experience. It is a type of knowledge that is established and useful in education contexts, even though it is also open to critique. This further exemplifies the complexity of GCE and possible tensions inherent within its practice. It raises questions as to how to build GCE curricula that provide solid foundations from which deliberation can be based. This matter will be addressed further in section three.

Aspects to illuminate what informed this "critically challenge" building block arose over the course of the study. They emerged largely as a result of personal beliefs held by Ms. Coughlan that related to

students and the risk of stereotyping. She was particularly sensitive to any comments made by students that seemed to stem from stereotypical views, as previously evidenced in relation to comments about the continent of Africa. In addition, Ms. Coughlan maintained that some students in the school were too accepting of information they engaged with and reported a concern regarding students' sources of information about GCE-related issues. She was particularly keen to address what she reported to be perceived elements of Islamophobia amongst students:

My big thing at the minute, my mission at the minute and I do see it almost like as a mission is anti-Islamic racism is an issue. It's a big issue, they're not aware of it. It's very insidious and it's very dangerous.... They're not thinking. They're not.... They accept. I know that's part of the age as well but... if they continue to do that into adulthood that's quite dangerous, it's a sheep like mentality in essence. You have to critically challenge.... I want them to just not accept. That's not good (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier's, interview).

These are very strong views that reveal perceptions Ms. Coughlan held about students and the purpose of GCE. In part, they positioned GCE practices within a familiar role of supporting learners to understand and appreciate multiple perspectives (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; L. Davies, 2006). Indeed, connections between GCE and intercultural education are well documented (Fiedler, n.d.; OECD, 2018; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018; Yemini et al., 2019). Moreover, her views indicate that her intention to expose students to aspects of critical thinking was underpinned by the position that ideas can be dangerous and require attention and interrogation in order to reveal assumptions and distinguish between fact and value claims (Tormey, 2014). However, Ms. Coughlan also recognised that this particular building block was difficult to practice. She stated that "It's a lot to take on, it can be overwhelming" and acknowledged that "me saying it doesn't necessarily mean they're going to do it and I understand that" (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier's, interview). This second building block then stands in contrast to her first, "facts", that she described as "an easy thing to get" (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier's, interview). Moreover, it echoes previous studies findings that, at times there is a mismatch between what teachers want to achieve and what they accomplish in practice (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bully, 2009). Although Ms. Coughlan demonstrated an awareness and a desire to support students to learn how to "critically challenge", she struggled to scaffold this in class for

students, in a way that she did not with “facts”. This concurs with previous evidence that indicates that the development of critical thinking is both complex and necessarily a long term endeavour (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Liddy & Tormey, 2013; Tormey, 2014).

This mismatch was confirmed by students’ descriptions of “critically challenge”. They spoke about the idea in very broad terms, as reflected by Isobel below:

I just, I guess you can’t believe everything you see in pictures like. There’s always a story behind it. You should just not accept everything, to be asking questions about it rather than just accepting everything you see (St. Xavier’s, focus group 1).

A number spoke about not accepting what you see or hear and the role of asking questions within that. Their descriptions were quite opaque and suggested a superficial understanding on their part. No student elaborated on what those questions might be and only Lucy, below, identified a risk that may arise if ideas or opinions go unchallenged:

...like our teacher was saying that if you don’t challenge stuff and you just kind of accept it and it can harm a lot of people (St. Xavier’s, focus group 2).

While Isobel and Lucy did offer slightly more sophisticated understandings, acknowledging the need to ask more questions and the risks of acceptance, student interpretations predominantly remained simplistic and did not suggest how they might do this in any meaningful way. Their rather vague interpretations of Ms. Coughlan’s frame and all-encompassing statements like “wait until you hear everything” imply that her challenge to her students, risked leaving them in a half-way house and unable, for example, to discriminate between sources that are trustworthy and those that are not.

In summary, Ms. Coughlan used a number of building blocks to construct the enactment of the IR curriculum that are noteworthy. Students had the opportunity to research and learn about topics they may otherwise have not encountered. At the very least, they were introduced to the idea of knowledge as partial and contested. Nonetheless, despite this powerful message that was clearly and consistently articulated and demonstrated in class, how this aspect of the module was implemented failed to support students to follow

through in learning. Whilst Ms. Coughlan's verbal framing of her GCE practice revealed a desire to provoke, to challenge and indeed to address racism, this particular aspect of her practice served more as a refrain and an indication of how Ms. Coughlan understood knowledge, as opposed to a process that clearly brought students through a learning journey, in order to meaningfully develop the capacity to do this.

5.2 St. Theresa's College: a contextual overview

St. Theresa's College is located approximately 1km from one of Dublin's major thoroughfares and approximately 500 m from the bustling suburban village centre of Monalee. The school itself is situated on a narrow road, lined with semi-detached houses. A 3-bedroomed house on this road sold for €337,000 in 2016 (www.propertypriceregister.ie, 2017). St. Theresa's College was established by a religious order of nuns in 1969, on the same grounds where a modern school building stands today. References to the school's Catholic ethos, as set out by the religious order, are referenced on the school's website, in the school's prospectus and by both the participating teacher and students. The school is under a large trust for Catholic schools for girls and is managed by a lay female Principal. The school building is a modern, purpose-built, bright and colourful space. The corridors are bright and wide. There are motivational quotes and images of inspiring people beautifully and purposefully displayed all over the school's main corridors. These include; "key skills of the junior cycle", "reading is the key to your success", "reduce, reuse, recycle", an image of Malala Yousafza and her quote "one child, one teacher, one pen and one book can change the world".

Several initiatives are running in the school. Those listed on the school's website include green and yellow flag committees, community engagement projects and the College For Every Student (CFES) programme. Information boards around the school provide details of student initiatives including, the Trinity Access programme and work with local primary schools. On the school website, the mission statement is reflected in a short phrase, "to develop the personal, academic and spiritual potential of each student in a caring and disciplined manner" (St. Theresa's College, School Prospectus). The staff handbook for 2016/2017 presents a picture of a large and organised operation. One section lists 21 school policies that relate to both teacher and student issues. The handbook sets out the supports for students who speak English as a second language. There is a multicultural centre in the school and Polish is offered as a subject

for Polish students. The school also has an intercultural policy, a multicultural policy and a hijab policy available on its website. It lists over 32 languages spoken in the school and 21 nationalities.

Ms. Morton taught ENGAGE every Thursday, for the full academic year, between 11.10 am - 11.50 am.¹⁴ A number of sporadic lunchtime sessions also took place. It is an optional class for 5th years and 25 students were on the class list. Ms. Morton's classroom is quite big in size and square in shape. The tables are organised into seven group clusters, each seating between four to six students. It is clear that Ms. Morton is also a History teacher as there is some student project work related to The 1916 Rising, hanging on one wall. She also has "key words", such as "Describe", "Analyse" and "Assess", displayed over the whiteboard. Her desk and computer are in the corner, opposite the door but she is rarely behind it or at it. She has two whiteboards, one for projecting and one for writing on. On this board, there are also some brightly coloured, rectangular flashcards with "date", "learning outcomes" and "homework" typed on them. I do not observe Ms. Morton referring to them during the time I am there. On the back wall, there are a number of posters related to wellbeing and mental health.

The ENGAGE students are in 5th year and aged 16 – 17 years old. They seem friendly, confident and relaxed in the class and used to getting up, moving around and doing things. Three ethnicities are represented, six of African heritage, two of Asian and 17 white. Generally, they sit in the same seats each time, though they often then break into different groups and move around. The middle table at the top of the classroom usually becomes the table for most focussed discussions. Participation in the module was based on student choice. Of the 25 students on the class list, approximately 20 signed up to get involved. Although the other five students did not sign up, they were also allocated to this time slot given constraints of timetabling.

5.2.1 ENGAGE: action and empowerment

During 2015 - 2016, ENGAGE was allocated a timetabled slot by the Principal for the first time and Ms. Morton was responsible for it. She was one of two teachers identified as responsible for "dev ed" in

¹⁴ ENGAGE is a pseudonym. The name derives from a national education programme of the same name that seeks to encourage community engagement and social action, led by students.

the school handbook, which indicated managerial recognition for GCE that was not evident in the other two settings. Moreover, this formal arrangement conferred top-down accountability on Ms. Morton to deliver GCE experiences for students that was not expected of either Ms. Crowley or Ms. Coughlan. The module originated from an extracurricular activity and successful involvement in the wider national ENGAGE programme, in addition to Ms. Morton's involvement with WorldWise Global Schools (WWGS). It combined a focus on the SDGs, as prioritised by WWGS, with school and community action, the focal point for the national ENGAGE programme. Subsequently, students in St. Theresa's College worked to bring the issue of the SDGs to their wider school community during 2015 - 2016. The remainder of this section explores that work.

The concept of action stands as one of the fundamental pillars within GCE (Bourn, 2015; Gleeson et al., 2007; McCloskey, 2018; UNESCO, 2015). Critical pedagogy asserts the notion of engaged and agentic citizens (Freire & Ramos, 1996; Giroux, 1983; McLaren & Giroux, 1989), while action can also be understood as a practice of citizenship (Lawy & Biesta, 2006; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Currently, dominant forms of action in schools have been described as obedient, paternalistic and individualistic in nature (Andreotti, 2009; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Hartung, 2017; Tallon & McGregor, 2014). They are rarely political and tend to be solutions-focussed, rather than problem posing (Freire & Ramos, 1996; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016). In addition, Hartung (2017) has critiqued how young people can be positioned within conceptualisations of GCE action, bestowing on them a certain level of responsibility for solving political situations. UNESCO (2015) identified action within a third dimension of GCE and described it as behaviour-related, with a view "to act effectively and responsibly at local, national and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world" (2015, p. 14).

Action served as the dominant and deliberate organising principle that underpinned ENGAGE in St. Theresa's College. It was evident in the organisation and execution of the module and an aspect that Ms. Morton spoke about, at length, in interview. This emphasis revealed a particular epistemological perspective on the part of Ms. Morton that foregrounded skills and procedural aspects of knowledge and understood GCE as a means of empowerment. The lessons I observed had a strong emphasis on planning and carrying out activities, and all participants clearly identified the module with this action orientation.

Two students, Ciara and Tess, explained why they liked the module because “you got stuff done” (St. Theresa’s College, focus group), while Saorla spoke about the active nature of the lessons, relative to her other classroom experiences:

In normal classes we like to be spoon fed, get given the notes and working off them but in ENGAGE we’re like doing the work and finding information. You are the notes! (St. Theresa’s College, focus group).

Consequently, the lessons were practical in nature, with a strong focus on doing, and getting tasks agreed and completed. These tasks included: preparation for awareness raising days in the school; an address at a school assembly to mark the school’s annual celebration day; writing a rap about the SDGs; public speaking and presenting to their teachers on integrating the SDGs into their teaching. Sonya explained some of the work that was involved in preparing for the celebration day event:

I think it was like three or four people went up and spoke about it and then a group of us done a rap and then like the rest of us would have been, like loads of behind the scenes work (St. Theresa’s College, focus group).

Over the course of the observation phase, which took place towards the end of module and the academic year, I noted that the module “feels like an action oriented class...planning, organising etc. rather than the teaching and learning of content per se” (St. Theresa’s College, field notes, Week 2). Indeed, the lessons I observed were notable for the lack of time dedicated to more cognitive aspects of GCE or subject matter. For example, the SDGs served as a focal point on only one occasion that I observed. This arose when a student presented an overview of the SDGs for her peers. I noted:

Saorla begins to go through the slides...The class is quiet and most of the students are silent and looking at the presentation...As Saorla reads out the slides, Ms. Morton is extending, clarifying and asking for volunteers to take responsibility for each slide at the showcase the following week (St. Theresa’s College, field notes, Week 2).

However, there was no discussion about the SDGs. Rather the purpose centred on preparing a presentation

about the Goals. When I asked Ms. Morton whether or not she taught about the SDGs at any stage over the course of the module, she stated:

I probably missed out on that, let's teach about the SDGs and let's look at that.... in my head the module is to get the whole school involved, right?... That's the purpose of it, get others involved" (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa's College, interview).

This strong sense of purpose was informed undoubtedly, by the module's connection to the wider national ENGAGE programme. This encouraged students to involve their wider school community in an issue they cared about. Moreover, it is possible that this module was understood as an extension of a TY development education module that Ms. Morton had also taught the previous year. For example, Ciara stated that she "started it in TY", while Sonya recalled that:

in TY...one of my modules was Development Education with Ms. Morton and then in 5th year it wasn't on my timetable but I got a chance to move here because I was really interested in it. So I just wanted to learn more about it basically (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

During Ms. Morton's interview, further contributing factors emerged to explain the focus on action. Here, she spoke about a change in her approach to GCE:

I've shifted from content to skills.... So I think what was in my mind, the thing is that they're able to give themselves the skills to (a) be interested in it number one and then to have the skills to want to do something about it and to find out about it (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa's College, interview).

Ms. Morton connected her module to a focus on skills that would enable students to learn how to respond to issues that interested them in the future. In doing so, she also made a distinction between content and skills. Such an approach is akin to interpretations of GCE as a competency for students to develop (Franch, 2019; Mannion et al., 2011; Standish, 2014; Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). However, in the excerpt below Ms. Morton recognised the potential gaps in student learning that arose as a result of this overly procedural focus.

We ended up doing a lot of looking at how can we get teachers involved in it but I actually feel like

if you ask them [students] their own personal knowledge on the SDGs in particular is probably not that strong. Looking back now I'm like that was, you know, to do a little bit of training with them I think is important (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa's College, interview).

The effect was to create quite a singular and one-dimensional learning experience of GCE for students in St. Theresa's that resulted in a number of gaps.

One particular gap within the module was limited opportunities for reflection on action (Blackmore, 2016; Bourn, 2015; Freire & Ramos, 1996). In class, I did not observe structured opportunities for students to critically reflect on the SDGs as a framework, or indeed, their own actions. The closest associated contribution came from Ms. Morton at the end of the last lesson of the year. I noted:

Ms. Morton acknowledges it's been a busy year, she says "some [students] did a little, others did alot, to everyone who did something, well done"...She finishes by thanking them, saying they may not have achieved "much physically" this year like the celebration day but what they have achieved will be long lasting (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 4).

Here, the emphasis was very much on what students had achieved, whilst also acknowledging they did not achieve everything they had hoped. However, there was no reflection on the value or purpose of the actions themselves. Moreover, the uncritical adoption of the SDGs as an initiative to be promoted, risked aligning the type of action undertaken in St. Theresa's, to what has been referred to as "obedient action" (Bryan & Bracken, 2011) or "managed activism" (Biccum, 2015). Bryan & Bracken (2011) maintain that activism in post-primary schools in Ireland are oftentimes "channelled into apolitical, uncritical actions" that foreclose "possibilities for dialogue about the limitations of these kinds of development interventions" (2011, p. 18). Such actions risk becoming a vehicle for the promotion of state foreign policy that, in turn, obscures how states are implicated in the causes of development challenges in the first instance (Biccum, 2015; Bryan & Bracken, 2011).

However, at this point, it is important to note that Ms. Morton was experimenting with a new approach. As such, it raises questions as to what can be expected of one module or one teacher in terms of trying to address the multi-dimensional nature of GCE, particularly within the established constraints of

formal education settings (Gaynor, 2013; Liddy & Tormey, 2013). In re-orientating the module towards an action dimension that emphasised skills, other important dimensions were undermined, such as critical thinking in relation to the SDGs as a development intervention, and the idea of action itself. Ms. Morton's approach also raised questions as to what counts as knowledge in GCE and the correlation between knowledge and skills. For example, although students in ENGAGE did not formally develop their knowledge in relation to the SDGs, their experience of action introduced them to ideas about how to organise events, how to convey messages and how to communicate with different groups. The next subsection sets out distinctive aspects of the action dimension in St. Theresa's that set it apart from dominant forms of action in schools. It explores Ms. Morton's understanding of the role and the nature of action to empower students, and how this fundamentally shaped their experiences.

5.2.2 Experiencing democracy in action

As previously documented, students participating in ENGAGE, worked throughout the year to raise awareness of the SDGs in their school, by organising a number of activities for their peers. Crucially, it was their plans to integrate development education and the SDGs into their school's curriculum, that marked their action apart from those previously identified in literature (Andreotti, 2006; Bourn, 2015; Gleeson et al., 2007; Hartung, 2017; Tallon & McGregor, 2014). Below, Tess described some of the work she, and her peers did with their teachers:

It was kind of talking about like how we could fit the global goals into lessons, that's what our aim is, isn't it? For the next 30 years like! [giggles]. For teachers to link the goals with their classes. So we linked them all up. I can't remember, it was like poverty with Home Ec and stuff like that you know? (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

School curricula have been identified as one of many aspects of schooling over which students have very little control or power (Ball, 2008; Deacon, 2006; Devine, 2003; Foucault, 1991). Yet, with the support of Ms. Morton, a number of students in St. Theresa's made plans to work with their teachers across a number of subject areas, in order to identify ways to integrate the SDGs into teaching in the school. These plans included the preparation and delivery of an input, by students, for their teachers, on the SDGs. This took

place during a whole school professional development session and required a meeting with the students, and their Principal beforehand, in order to obtain her permission and support. I observed students brief Ms. Morton on their meeting with the Principal. I noted that:

Ms. Morton also asks the students how the Principal responded to their ideas. This suggests that Ms. Morton and the Principal haven't spoken, and that it was left to the students to explain their project and their ideas to the Principal and to seek her permission to address their teachers at the staff meeting at the start of the year (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 4).

Davies (2006) maintains that creating opportunities for students to experience democracy in action in schools, such as influencing curriculum, though rare, are powerful experiences. Seeking and gaining access to their Principal and teachers, in order to effect teaching practices in their school, is an example of what Lawy & Biesta (2006) describe as citizenship in practice. They state:

In some situations, young people are taken seriously and have real opportunities for shaping and changing the conditions of their lives. However, in other situations young people are not seen as legitimate participants, their voices are ignored and they have little opportunity for shaping and changing the situations they are in (Lawy & Biesta, 2006, p. 45).

Ms. Morton recognised her students as not only legitimate participants whose voices should be listened to, but also whose voices could influence school curriculum (Lundy, 2007). This supported practices that extended beyond normative peer awareness raising activities that are associated with softer forms of GCE.

This recognition of students as legitimate actors in their school was further emphasised by a comment Ms. Morton made in class. It arose as she and the students prepared for the session with their teachers. I noted that:

Ms. Morton gives the students an example of a comment a student made to her about group work yesterday. Her reflection was that the student had a perspective she wouldn't have thought about - she is telling the students that teachers get inputs from academics and "experts", but that it "really makes a difference when teachers hear from students" (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 4).

For Ms. Morton's students, this particular aspect of their action, both empowered them and served as a lesson in citizenship (Cook-Sather, 2006; L. Davies, 2006; Lawy & Biesta, 2006; Lundy, 2007). A number of students reported developing their public speaking skills and a growth in confidence. Below, Saorla reflects on her feelings after meeting with her teachers:

I was quite nervous at the start but then afterwards yeah, it was like a fulfilment being like I've done it like, do you get me? (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

Sonya also noted a change, highlighting some of the challenges they faced initially:

I think because at the start we couldn't think of anything to do...we couldn't think of any ideas and then we weren't working together very well. Then after, we got a huge display done outside the study hall, like we went to conferences in different schools and we done the work we wanted to do in this school as well (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

The excerpt above suggests that students overcame obstacles they encountered and completed the module, with an overall sense of achievement and satisfaction.

The notion of experiencing democracy or citizenship, very much informed the foundations of ENGAGE in St. Theresa's College. The expression of GCE evidenced in this module was underpinned by an understanding of knowledge that foregrounded procedural aspects and a view of GCE as the practice of citizenship. This, in turn, placed an emphasis on learning for and through citizenship, rather than learning about citizenship. Consequently, Ms. Morton's framing of the module was underpinned by a desire for students to experience citizenship and engage in authentic action in order to learn appropriate skills, and experience a sense of empowerment. This, she hoped, could and would be sustained and replicated in their future lives and careers. Indeed, Davies (2006) highlights that such school-based experiences are one of two predictors of whether or not people "become active citizens" (2006, p. 16), an aspiration Ms. Morton addressed below:

Whatever it is that happens in the world in ten years' time, if they're working in a company that they realise, now I've said it to them before you don't have to be working in Development Education you

can go and bring, or Global Citizenship, you can bring that into your company or into your medicine or into your physio, into whatever you're doing, your community, you don't have to go and volunteer for three years (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa's College, interview).

Consequently, the action experienced in this setting was very much focussed on students' local environment and their immediate spheres of influence. This helped to shift the locus for change from a distant, removed and global level and to illuminate the local-global nexus (Osler & Starkey, 2003; Karen Pashby, 2011). Moreover, as expressed by Ms. Morton above, it served to highlight possibilities for action within one's own context which she hoped students would replicate in the future.

Students interpreted their experiences along these lines and the excerpts below demonstrate a sense of empowerment and possibility:

So people in school start doing it because if we don't start it then no one else will start it, like we have to set an example for the younger students and then it all adds up...And they can pass the message on (Saorla, St. Theresa's College, focus group).

It sounds like a whole massive thing that like the governments have to come together and change but it's actually little things that we can do ourselves and get other people involved as well and help them to know about it (Sonya, St. Theresa's College, focus group).

In particular, Saorla and Sonya reported a sense of empowerment, in the first instance as role models for younger students. Secondly, whilst they recognised the broad and political nature of the issues encapsulated by the SDGs, they also identified the potential of citizen action as a possible source of change.

5.2.3 A challenge to dominant practices

Alongside Ms. Morton's intentions for her students, she was also quietly and deliberately determined to re-frame how development education and action were understood in her school. The principles that informed the action in St. Theresa's College were intended to serve as an alternative to charity type approaches that Ms. Morton suggested had prevailed in the school. Rather, ENGAGE sought to look inward and to seek to change elements of their own school system. In the following excerpt, Ms. Morton

acknowledged the presence of and risks associated with a more symptomatic approach to GCE that are overly focussed on the symptoms of global justice issues and dominated by fundraising initiatives (Bryan & Bracken, 2011). On a number of occasions, she reported a desire to challenge dominant narratives and to offer an alternative:

They pick up on what teachers are saying or how they're saying it and what the world is saying and what we're reiterating and the questions that we're asking.....So hopefully that will just turn, shift the consciousness that we're moving away from the traditional charity model to being global citizens and attempting to do that and giving people the skills to do that....In my mind I kind of, the future of where I'm at is bringing like a whole school community into thinking that way and not necessarily solving the problems but being capable of interacting with those things (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa's College, interview).

This indicates a clear intention on her part to resist a quick fix, individual approach and to instead think more systematically and long-term. She was at ease explaining this to students, emphasising the value of both their contributions and the process, rather than the specific outcomes (Bourn, 2015; Lawy & Biesta, 2006).

Ms. Morton: We are going to put local and global citizenship and development education on the map in the school....when you come back in 5 years to say hello, you'll say, that's because of us, that's what we did this year (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 4).

She carried this vision through into her GCE practice, enabling students to feel empowered and part of a collective that could change aspects of their school and curriculum, while at the same time, not suggesting change was an easy or short term endeavour.

5.2.4 Supportive and enabling contexts

The deliberate and alternative approach adopted by Ms. Morton echoes de Oliveira Andreotti's (2014) argument for intellectual autonomy amongst teachers, whereby she calls on them to "to resist instrumentalist thinking and to reclaim the autonomy of the profession" (2014, p.10). Ms. Morton claimed this space and autonomy, setting out a deliberate intention to do things differently, both in terms of students'

experiences and in how GCE was conceived of and practised in her school. This determination was underpinned by a strong ontological perspective that supported Ms. Morton to understand GCE as a space of possibility, “in imagining (and doing) otherwise” (Andreotti, 2012, p. 19). Furthermore, she was supported in this endeavour by a number of other key factors explored below.

Firstly, Ms. Morton had completed extensive and relevant studies that supported her GCE practice. It is of note that two of these experiences were third level courses and included a Masters of Development and a course on student learning. Combined, these studies provided her with a unique ontological perspective and critical frame through which to examine and analyse established development education practices in her school and to think more deeply about student experiences. Ms. Morton highlighted aspects of this in interview. She stated:

I’m very aware that somebody else that’s doing Dev Ed that hasn’t gone abroad like I have and done a Masters in it; I’m always researching and looking up, that they mightn’t...they might be coming from the exact same point of view as the students and it doesn’t come from a place of badness, it just comes from this is what they’re always being bombarded with.....But I suppose when I try to do it I try to get them [students] aware of what’s not being said rather than what is being said (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa’s College, interview).

Ms. Morton suggested that her studies had prompted her to think differently about development issues and that this had impacted on her GCE practices with students.

Secondly, school leadership in St. Theresa’s College provided a range of supports for both student and teacher endeavours. There were several initiatives running in the school, including a project that sought to support schools to develop new models of learning, with and for students. In the excerpt below, Ms. Morton acknowledged the supportive nature of her school environment:

Like this is the best environment I’ve ever worked in. I probably have the freedom now to go and do what I’d like to do...this is the first time where now I’m kind of thinking bigger about it and having a bit more. The Principal here is very supportive...we had really, really good supervision and substitution structure so that if I want to go off for a day or to do something or if I’ve an event on it’s

not a big deal to get cover...sort of allows that sort of freedom (Ms. Morton, St. Theresa's College, interview).

She set out very practical support that was available but also a type of professional and managerial support that opened up spaces to experiment and to think "bigger", or differently. This wider context in St. Theresa's set it apart from the other two settings. Although the other two teachers in the study did express certain levels of autonomy in the classroom, broader professional support or encouragement from management was described in more constrained and laissez-faire terms. Indeed, Ms. Coughlan stated that GCE was not "a major priority" for management (St Xavier's, interview), while Ms. Crowley stated that:

I don't know if I would say we're encouraged to do it [GCE] but we're certainly allowed to do social studies and if you want to take a class in social studies, no problem. But that's as far as it goes I think" (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

ENGAGE stands as an exception in this study because of its impact on students' experiences of democracy and Ms. Morton's use of autonomy to think and act differently. Moreover, the timetabling of a module that is based around action provokes questions related to the types of knowledge that count in GCE practices and the role of cognitive learning within more behavioural dimensions of GCE. Experiences from this setting also confirmed the importance and value of school leadership support for the field (Doggett et al., 2016).

5.3 Dale College: a contextual overview

Dale College is in Glenkeeba, a small town located 17 km from Dublin city, in a bordering county. The town has a population of just under 7,000, of which over 1,000 are of secondary school going age. "Non-nationals" account for 11.3% of the population while just over 60% of households have two cars or more (CSO, 2011). The town has several, large and modern housing estates. A 4-bedroomed house in this area sold for €454,000 in 2015 (www.propertypriceregister.ie, 2017). The school is mixed gender and the ethos is inter-denominational. Its website suggests that management and trusteeship of the school is shared between the county's Education and Training Board (ETB) and the Bishop of the Diocese in which the school is located. The school opened in 1994 and has an enrolment of over 1,100 students. The school

consists of two large buildings, one of which is a two-storey extension. The school is referred to as a campus and feels large in scale. Visitors to the school must report to a reception area which is not accessible for students and there is a strict visitor sign in and card policy. Inside, the corridors are wide and sprawling. Throughout the school, there are several awards, banners and certificates of achievement on display, and impressive art work. The walls are busy, displaying a wide range of initiatives. From observing students move about, I can see that the majority are white, in addition to a number of students of African heritage.

Ms. Crowley taught Social Studies which was timetabled for two 40-minute class periods each week, at 11.10 am on Mondays and at 1.45 pm on Tuesdays. The module ran for the full academic calendar and was compulsory for all TY students. At the beginning of the school year, the class was involved in a wider development education event. This event was organised by Ms. Crowley and another colleague in the school, with the support of a third level Faculty of Education. It was a day-long conference for TY students from the local area. At the event, the students had the opportunity to participate in a variety of workshops facilitated by a number of invited NGOs.

Ms. Crowley's classroom is square in shape and quite spacious. It is a colourful classroom and her subject areas are evident from the displays and work exhibited around the room. There are brightly coloured flashcards with lists of Spanish conjugated verbs, a stack of Steinbeck novels under the teacher's desk and, a pile of small English dictionaries on the window sill. The whiteboard is positioned in the middle of the wall and at the top of the room, and used for both projection and writing on. Ms. Crowley's desk is also at the top of the room and in the middle. Beside the desk, there is a flipchart stand which she also uses. The desks are arranged in four rows and three columns – the middle column has four tables joined together, while the two side columns comprise of two tables each. There were 25 students in Social Studies, 13 girls and 12 boys. Ms. Crowley described them as a quiet group and I observed the girls as being particularly quiet. There was one student of African heritage in the group, a Portuguese student, and a student who had migrated from Australia with her family. Although there were 25 students on the class list, the average attendance over my observation period was 14. At times, it was as low as eight. Three students, stood out for their almost complete attendance.

5.3.1 Social Studies: a socio-emotional framework

In Dale College, GCE was embedded in a Social Studies module. It had been established as part of the TY timetable several years previously, by a teacher who had since been on leave. Ms. Crowley was responsible for teaching two different groups of students during the year of the study. She described herself as one of two staff members “who are considered the Dev Ed teachers, you know, they care about the world!” (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview). However, there was no school document to establish her official responsibilities, highlighting again the peripheral nature of these modules in some formal education settings. The group I observed was timetabled for two 40-minute class periods each week. Topics they explored included older people, direct provision and migration (Table 3). The module was to also include an action component in the following term. This aspect was, at the time, undecided, but one idea Ms. Crowley mentioned in interview was the development and delivery of workshops for first years, based on the theme of direct provision.

The organisation of GCE within a wider social studies curriculum in Dale College, provided a pro-social orientation that is reflected in UNESCO’s (2015) socio-emotional dimension of GCE. Here, the emphasis is on instilling certain values and attitudes amongst students, in addition to developing a “sense of belonging to a common humanity, sharing values and responsibilities, empathy and solidarity” (2015, p.15). This section will examine how the Social Studies frame in Dale College, and Ms. Crowley’s focus on empathy, brought this dimension to the fore. It will also explore the role and influence of media as a further distinctive aspect of the curriculum in Dale College.

5.3.2 Teaching for disposition

Ms. Crowley became involved in GCE as a result of an extracurricular activity she initiated approximately eight years previously. The activity had centred around development education and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Since then, Ms. Crowley stated that the subject area was “close to my heart”, whilst also expressing a “love of DevEd” (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview). Beyond expressing this personal commitment and passion, that was also evident amongst the other participating teachers, a further perspective that infused Ms. Crowley’s practice, emerged in interview. She stated that:

...it worries me about the kind of world that's going to be in their hands to look after and I think it's very important that we are active citizens and for our country to improve that we're all in it together and we're looking after each other (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

This ontological perspective is important to highlight, as it was a key informant that shaped the curriculum in Dale College. It highlights, in particular, the values of care and solidarity, in addition to reinforcing the action dimension of GCE. The statement illustrates socio-emotional aspects of GCE that underpinned Ms. Crowley's understanding of its purpose and practice.

Indeed, Ms. Crowley confirmed this central focus. In interview, she spoke about a desire to develop empathy amongst students. She stated:

Create empathy which is so hard to do sometimes, so hard to do...create empathy, make them care...in some ways ...the learning outcome is about how they feel about something not necessarily about what they know about something (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

This excerpt illustrates that teaching for disposition served as a core aspect of the GCE curriculum in Dale College. Moreover, it highlights its primacy over content knowledge or understanding. In addition, it points to the challenge of values-based education in practice (Asbrand, 2008; Brown, 2015). Ms. Crowley identified part of this challenge as a conflict between her own values-base and that of students. She acknowledged that while she did feel deeply about the issues:

...it is something they [students] are learning and they should not feel a compulsion to feel deeply necessarily or be upset about something" (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

This is important and represents a dilemma for teachers engaged in values-based education. Ms. Crowley's reflection suggests that GCE teachers may associate their teaching intentions with personal beliefs or feelings rather than curricular intentions (Yamashita, 2006).

Notwithstanding this, the desire to generate emotional responses amongst students followed through into classroom practice, albeit it in a more implicit, tentative manner. Most often, the intention emerged through Ms. Crowley's questioning in class. For example, on one occasion, she sought to ascertain

students' level of concern about issues they had explored in a newspaper article, related to Ireland's aging population. It was entitled "There'll be a million over-65s in Ireland by 2031 - experts say we need a plan" and related to projected services that may be required, and the funding of same. I noted that:

Following the feedback on information from the article, Ms Crowley asks the whole class "were any of you aware of this sort of thing?", Does it "worry you at all?...Does it bother you?" The majority of students are silent, deadpan, one or two quietly say, "no", "no, not really" ...Ms. Crowley then asks the students "how old will your parents be by 2031"? It is established that they'll be between late 50s - 70s and she follows this again with "so, does this give you food for thought?" (Dale College, field notes, Week 2).

As the conversation developed and students appeared unconcerned, Ms. Crowley moved the issue closer to their own experiences, in an effort to "create" an element of concern amongst students, for the issue of old age. However, at the end of the lesson, I noted that "it feels like Ms. Crowley is trying to direct them [students] into a particular way of thinking, but they are not there really" (Dale College, field notes, Week 2). In other words, the students did not seem to connect with this issue, or indeed the feelings that Ms. Crowley had hoped she could evoke. This echoes her previous assertion that empathy is not something that can necessarily be learned.

In class, the most explicit reference to empathy arose during a walking debate. The following excerpt illustrates an opportunity Ms. Crowley exploited, to briefly explore the concept of empathy with students. It arose following a contribution from one student, Rachel. I noted:

At times, Ms. Crowley draws out or extends what students are saying...one student Rachel says "we're all going to be old"

Ms. Crowley says, "yes, so therefore what?"

Rachel: so we'll all be in their position as well.

Ms. Crowley: so therefore?

Rachel: They're [older people] not a burden

Ms. Crowley follows this and says that Rachel "has touched on something called empathy" and how "empathy is a very important quality to have, you're empathetic", she explains

(Dale College, field notes, Week 3).

It was an incidental exploration of empathy, yet significant, as it indicated that Ms. Crowley was particularly alert to the potential of teaching moments that exemplified dispositions she sought to promote.

Teaching for disposition is a common feature of GCE objectives across policy and practice (Biesta et al., 2009; Global Education Network Europe, 2015; Irish Aid, 2017; Tallon, 2012). Empathy and care are key dispositions associated with the global citizen (Bourn, 2015; UNESCO, 2015). Indeed, aspects of a values-based approach was evident across all the settings studied. However, an over-emphasis on such values has been critiqued as overly-paternalistic and unhelpful in fulfilling more radical aspects of GCE (Andreotti, 2006; Boler, 1997; Bryan, 2012; Bryan & Bracken, 2011). Bourn's (2015) pedagogical framework maintains that such dispositions need to be extended and to include a focus on a sense of justice and an understanding of power. There was some evidence of these latter frames at work in Dale College. Firstly, GCE was positioned within a wider social studies context that lent a pro-social orientation to the curriculum. Secondly, the chosen topics provided students with opportunities to explore a variety of issues that they may not otherwise have encountered, such as direct provision. This helped to extend and deepen students' understanding of the issue of migration beyond what featured in mainstream media at the time. Thirdly, Ms. Crowley selected topics of both local and global resonance, which reduced the risk of them becoming about a "distant Other", and offered the potential to identify common concepts across diverse issues such as older people and direct provision.

A small number of students in Dale College understood and recognised this framework. They described the lessons in a broader, more conceptual way whilst also drawing analogies across and between different topics, as expressed in the excerpts below:

Like social studies, as Peter says, it is what it says on the tin. You're going

there to talk about, talk to other people about how things work between people in the world (Daniel, Dale College, focus group 1).

We've been doing a lot on the refugee situation and also old age and

how that works in society and how we feel. (Anne, Dale College, focus group 1).

These students understood that the module sought to examine how society worked, or not, for and between people. Significantly, one student framed the module in equality terms, referencing "human rights" and "unfair treatment" of groups.

...and then with the refugees like you might as well take all their human rights away. Like they're being thrown in centres, like one room. They're given less than €20 a week...it's just it's not fair (Siobhán, Dale College, focus group 1).

However, this is the only example of a social justice interpretation of GCE and one of very few references to human rights across the study. I did also observe Ms. Crowley allude to human rights once in class. It arose over the course of a walking debate when students were responding to the statement "older people should retire in order to make way for younger people" (Dale College, field notes, Week 3). I noted that:

Ms. Crowley asks, "is it written down anywhere that you should be allowed work?...the right to work...is that a human right, the right to work?" (Dale College, field notes, Week 3).

The reference was fleeting however, and served to highlight a contrast between Ms. Crowley's contributions in interview, and what was explicitly explored in practice. In interview, Ms. Crowley did acknowledge the rights-based nature of the issues she explored. She stated:

We're talking about human rights and denial of human rights and issues of justice and all that. How can politics not come into that?..You talk about refugees, you say well what's the government doing about it? (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

Nonetheless, while Ms. Crowley did select topics connected to the denial of human rights as a basis for her curriculum, in class, there was little evidence to suggest that she planned to use them as explicit anchors on

which to hang the various topics she explored. Though human rights were inferred, and briefly mentioned, a more overt human rights framework may have served to ground student learning and support deeper and more critical engagement.

It has been argued that there is a need to root GCE in more established frameworks, in order to move towards deeper and more meaningful manifestations in practice (Ellis, 2016; Mallon, 2018; Pashby & Sund, 2020; Ruane, 2017; Waldron & Oberman, 2016). Mallon (2018) found that peace education programmes that were built around international humanitarian law (IHL), provided educators with robust and independent frameworks for deeper learning and critical engagement (Mallon, 2018). They provide legal and humanitarian perspectives that are perceived as being less likely to be open to debate or bias (Mallon, 2018). Others argue for GCE to be rooted in a right-based framework or ethical, political or legal understanding (Lundy & Martínez Sainz, 2018; Pashby & Sund, 2020; Ruane, 2017). The social studies frame in Dale College did provide a broad anchor on which to hang various topics explored. However, a more explicit and consistent use of the lens of human rights, for example, could have deepened student learning in relation to equality and justice. In terms of curriculum organisation, Parker et al. (2018) argue that such a conceptual frame is “depth-worthy” (2018, p. 273) and should serve as a core aspect of a curriculum, in order to scaffold more peripheral and topical content. However, despite identifying a strong correlation between human rights and GCE in interview, in practice this connection was diffused and overlooked as an opportunity to ground and deepen student learning.

5.3.2.1 Beyond dispositions

At this point, it is important to note that Ms. Crowley did not completely eschew the cognitive dimension of GCE. Indeed, she did express a desire for students to “be more informed” (Dale College, interview). A number of activities in class, provided students with the chance to gather information about topics they were exploring. In addition, Ms. Crowley used homework to extend these opportunities. Dale College was the only setting in which homework was explicitly set, and oftentimes returned to the following day. It added a formality and certain status to the subject. On one occasion, students were required to listen to a podcast about direct provision and write a one-page report on the information they acquired. I noted that:

Ms. Crowley is very clear that she would like the students to listen to the remainder of the podcast. She says “I really need you to do this report for tomorrow ...I’m expecting at least an A4 page report” and adds that she wants it to be handed in tomorrow, even if students won’t be attending class (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

This example highlights possibilities for extending GCE time-tabled allocations, in order to dedicate more time in class, to group work and discussion. Moreover, these activities acknowledged the role and importance of information and content, whilst also maintaining their peripheral status, compared to students’ responses and emotions.

5.3.3 The role and influence of media in building GCE curricula

Across the three settings, media was confirmed as a leading source of information on global issues for all participants (Gleeson et al., 2007; Hogan, 2011; Smith, 2004). However, its role and influence on GCE curriculum was most pronounced in Dale College. This was demonstrated in the selection of stimuli (Table 5), through to aspects of critical media literacy within the module. In the first instance, Ms. Crowley indicated that she accessed and identified subject matter and material for the module, primarily through various media sources that included film and Facebook. She stated that:

So I’m always reinventing the wheel. So while other teachers...you know, will have for example powerpoints [and] do a bit of tweaking...I can’t do that. I have to do something new or something that’s current and I’ll be honest, it could be the night before, it could be the week before I’m listening to a podcast while running and I go “oh God, that would be great to use in class” and I’ll try and incorporate it some way (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

Two aspects are of note in Ms. Crowley description above. Firstly, she reports an active and ongoing approach to building and developing her curriculum that is consistent with good practice. Secondly, she identifies media as a source of inspiration and content. Connections and relationships between media, media literacy and GCE are well established (Bryan, 2011; Jeffers, 2008a; Kellner & Share, 2005; Tallon, 2013). A number of studies have explored the use of film, documentaries and media production within GCE, whilst media has also been identified as having the biggest influence on young people’s

understanding of GCE-related issues (Garcia, Seglem, & Share, 2013; Gleeson et al., 2007; Jeffers, 2008a). In Dale College, Ms. Crowley primarily used material drawn from news media and social media, in their raw form. They had been gathered over time, from a number of online Irish media sources that were largely contemporary (Table 5). Photographs used depicted scenes of migration, refugee camps, direct provision centres, children, families and adults. These materials were then used as sources of information to present and explore themes and to prompt and stimulate discussion.

Though predominantly used as sources of information or stimulus for discussion, there was some evidence that Ms. Crowley also sought to explore these materials as cultural artefacts in themselves (Tallon, 2013). She incorporated elements of critical media literacy into the GCE curriculum that ensured students not only engaged with the issues raised in the text, but also the text itself (Kellner & Share, 2005; Tallon, 2013). For example, Ms. Crowley dedicated a group work activity to exploring the role of media in the world and on another occasion, I observed her “asking students if they think the newspaper article is reliable...and what type of source is it from” (Dale College, field notes, Week 2). On another occasion, Ms. Crowley preceded a screening of a TV documentary about older people in Ireland, with a brief, whole-class discussion related to the purpose of such a documentary. The excerpt below reflects some of this discussion:

Ms. Crowley asks students to discuss in pairs, whether they think a documentary about older people is worthwhile...she clarifies, “do you think it’s worthwhile to watch something like this and why?” ...She offers a prompt, “how often do we see people like this on TV?...Eventually, she asks the students, “do you think they have a voice in our society?” and then asks them to think again about why a broadcaster might invest in a programme like this (Dale College, field notes, Week 1).

Clearly, Ms. Crowley wanted to highlight the role of the documentary in representing voices that she felt may otherwise be marginalised. Some of the materials selected were also designed to challenge stereotypes, such as an advertisement about Sr. Madonna Buder, an 86-year old woman who competes in Ironman competitions. Furthermore, it should be noted that Ms. Crowley made efforts to select and present topics that were not headline stories, such as direct provision in Ireland. During a group discussion based on a

number of online news articles about the topic, I observed:

Ms. Crowley asked one group, “have you seen this on the news, heard anything about it?...Should it be on the news?”, Daniel responds and says something about when people see this on the news, they think it’s all happening in the “Med” without realising its almost on our doorstep. Ms. Crowley follows this by asking, “why do you think it’s not on the news?” Steven suggests it’s “embarrassing” and “shameful” (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

The stimulus and materials presented by Ms. Crowley drew only from media sources. This is unsurprising, given the nature of GCE and its focus on current affairs and contemporary issues. It highlights the need for new and recent content. Moreover, more progressive educational reforms seek to break a dependency on textbooks and increase teachers’ autonomy in order to build more localised programmes (NCCA, 2015; Willemse et al., 2015). However, a sole reliance on media sources does raise questions as to what should or can inform GCE curricula and a tension for teachers when building their curriculum. Previous studies found a problematic, over reliance on NGDO materials (Bourn, 2015; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Tallon, 2012). The practices highlighted in Dale College, indicate that although teachers demonstrate creativity and commitment to resourcing their curricula, the types of materials are limited and significantly influenced by media.

Conclusion

This chapter has illustrated the translation of GCE curricula into classroom practice. Drawing on UNESCO’s (2015) three-dimensional framing of GCE that includes cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioural domains, the findings indicate significant variations in how GCE is practised and a central role for teachers in that process. In general, I argued that teachers are powerful brokers in determining how the curricula were informed and enacted. Furthermore, I contend that teachers are, in turn, influenced by a variety of factors that include subject disciplines, media, professional studies and epistemological and ontological perspectives. This confirms the argument that curriculum design, selection and organisation are not neutral processes (Apple, 1993; Parker, 2018; Young, 1971) and is particularly significant for GCE where there is no formal or discrete curriculum. Whilst GCE teachers are afforded significant autonomy,

substantial responsibilities and expectations are also placed on them with little recourse to professional support or collaboration. Teachers are faced with the challenge of constructing curricula that are multi-dimensional, conceptual and topical in nature. Several choices need to be made in order to establish solid cognitive foundations whilst also addressing emotions, values and opportunities to experience democracy. This chapter points to a tension between the autonomy and freedom that an open curriculum presents and the responsibility and capacity required to do so successfully. Findings presented here show that teachers are willing to step into this space and largely rely on personal experiences and interests, and other professional knowledge in order to create the foundations for their GCE curriculum.

However, this chapter also argued that a number of risks can arise as a result of the open-curricular nature of GCE in formal settings. These include gaps in curriculum organisation that can result in modules that are overly one-dimensional and oftentimes lacking in a more conceptual framing of GCE. For example, there was a marked absence of a more justice oriented lens. The lack of any significant explorations of human rights or political or legal frameworks was striking. Moreover, although there was some presence of unifying and foundational concepts, these were not returned to or drawn upon sufficiently in order to deepen student learning. Furthermore, I suggest that how the curricula were organised and developed was limited in terms of how they were used to both support and scaffold student learning. In some instances, a combination of these factors contributed to a pit stop type of approach to learning that reduced opportunities for greater depth. This, in turn weakened the potential for more critical forms of GCE. Finally, research to date has suggested that the constraining nature of formal education contexts and symptomatic approaches result in softer iterations of GCE. This study extends that understanding by highlighting how the formation and organisation of GCE curricula can also undermine the potential for more critical forms of GCE. The next chapter explores methodological issues concerning GCE classroom practice and in particular interpretations of and approaches to its participatory and emancipatory intentions.

CHAPTER SIX

PARTICIPATION IN THE GCE CLASSROOM: A TYPOLOGY OF PRACTICES

Introduction

There is a dearth of research into classroom implementations of active and participatory methodologies, despite these approaches being fundamental features of GCE practice (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McCormack & O’Flaherty, 2010). This is problematic given the established challenges of translating key tenets of social constructivism and critical pedagogy into meaningful and emancipatory teaching and learning programmes (Ellsworth, 1989; McPhail, 2016; Morgan, 2000). Challenges include a lack of adequate pedagogical tools, in addition to tensions and contradictions that emerge, particularly in relation to student-teacher relationships and power in the classroom. This chapter presents a typology of GCE practices within formal education contexts. The typology seeks to classify distinctive aspects of teaching strategies, underlying motivations and human dynamics, in order to highlight important characteristics of and differences in GCE classroom practice. It is derived from an analysis of the study’s classroom observations, teacher interviews and student focus groups and is also informed by the study’s conceptual framework and literature related to teacher education, the pedagogy of relation and teacher identities (Cochran-Smith, 2012; Korthagen, 2012; Margonis, 2004). In particular, it is focussed on the empowering and emancipatory intent of GCE and draws on key theoretical work in this area (Bizzell, 1991; Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine, 2003; Ellsworth, 1989; Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994).

The typology is organised as a matrix structure to establish three distinct orientations (normative, adaptive and disruptive) that can be applied across three core pillars (pedagogy, purpose and person) of GCE practice (Table 6). It serves as an illustrative tool to amplify and critically examine significant aspects of GCE classroom practice. In doing so, it simplifies and demarcates processes and dynamics that, in practice, are more fluid and complex (Anderson-Levitt, 2006). However, the distinctions are offered in order to identify new dynamics that together play a key role in determining the extent to which GCE’s critical iterations and empowering intent are realised.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first separately defines the pillars and orientations of

the typology, whilst also setting out how certain combinations can effect practice differently. The following three sections then apply the typology's orientations to the context of this study, in order to critically examine *pedagogy* and *purpose* in each setting separately. The final section explores *person* across the settings. Collectively, these sections draw on empirical evidence and theoretical foundations to illustrate how certain features of the typology, together with how they are combined, can shape student experiences of participation in GCE class. Fundamentally, I argue that pedagogy, purpose and person need to cohere and be filtered through a disruptive orientation, in order for GCE to move towards its emancipatory intent (Table 6).

6.1 GCE practice: pillars and orientations

This section defines the different pillars and orientations identified within the typology. It presents core features of each and how they have the potential to influence practice.

6.1.1 Pillars of GCE practice

The three core pillars of GCE classroom practice in the typology are identified as *pedagogy*, *purpose* and *person*. The selection of these three particular pillars was informed by literature related to teacher education but also by my classroom observations and the student focus groups. *Pedagogy* is defined as strategies and approaches adopted and implemented by teachers. It is the leading and most explicit of the three pillars and manifests in the styles, methodologies and activities adopted. The centrality of this pillar emerged predominantly through data analysis of the classroom observations. Participatory and emancipatory pedagogies are particularly relevant in this context. *Purpose* is related to both teacher motivations and intentions regarding GCE pedagogy. Analysed in this context, it reveals particular stances that underpin the strategies implemented by teachers *vis-à-vis* students and student participation (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Korthagen, 2012; Waldron, 2012). Finally, *person* refers to teacher dispositions, personal and professional identities and backgrounds. This pillar relates to teacher attitudes personified in the classroom but also to their relationships with students. It resonates particularly with relational aspects of GCE and the pedagogy of relation, that is concerned with the importance of relationships between students and teachers, in order for learning to take place (Biesta, 2004; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Margonis, 2004; Sidorkin, 2000).

6.1.2 Orientations and stances

It could be argued that the typology's pillars form essential aspects of any classroom practice. However, considered through different orientations, they become particularly significant for GCE practice (Table 6). Whilst the pillars are always present, albeit to varying degrees, how they are oriented can vary significantly. As a result of these variations, I argue that the participatory nature of GCE practice is realised and experienced in very different ways. Three orientations were identified from in-depth analysis of the data, in tandem with literature related to student participation and critical pedagogy (Bartlett, 2005; Bizzell, 1991; Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). Of particular note, was the distinctive approaches to GCE across the three settings. As a result, three orientations were developed: normative, adaptive and disruptive (Table 6). Within GCE practice, a normative orientation is infused by *pedagogy* that is didactic and teacher led. Subject content is foremost, as opposed to methodologies or processes, and the pedagogical *purpose* establishes "participation-as-pragmatism". This refers to a stance where student participation is planned, in order to vary pedagogy rather than empower students. The *person* of teacher is distant and authoritarian, adopting an impersonal disposition. An adaptive orientation adopts teaching strategies that include active learning and group work. It is characterised by a reflective disposition that seeks to adjust practice. However, it is largely underpinned by a *purpose* that adopts a more technical stance, "participation-as-technical". This stance is overly reliant on the transferral of active learning techniques, in order to implement GCE pedagogy. Student-teacher relationships are more rigidly defined along learner-facilitator lines, and the stance risks misappropriating key tenets of social constructivism and critical pedagogy, such as student-led learning, reciprocity and teacher-as-authority (Bizzell, 1991; Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994; Wink, 2005). As a result, the emancipatory intent of GCE can be diffused or lost. Finally, a disruptive orientation roots *purpose* in a stance of "participation-as-empowerment". Students are to the fore, rather than content, and *person* is more explicitly political or provocative, and at times, reflexive. Andreotti (2014) describes this latter disposition as one that is connected to collective and cultural dynamics and contrasts it to a reflective disposition that is more concerned with individual practice. *Pedagogy* filtered through this orientation is student-led and collaborative, with reciprocal student-teacher relationships that are more closely aligned to GCE's more radical and transformative intent.

These three orientations, informed by an analysis of distinctive approaches across the three settings and the theoretical and conceptual foundations that frame the study, were developed in order to identify more tacit and idiosyncratic aspects of GCE classroom practice that ultimately shape how the pillars are uniquely operationalised and experienced by participants. In this regard, it is important to emphasise the matrix nature of the typology's structure. This particular framing is significant as it seeks to move beyond overly restrictive delineations that risk identifying one teacher or classroom with one single type of practice. Instead, it seeks to capture fluid and complex aspects of human interactions in the classroom (Anderson-Levitt, 2006). In the context of this study, whilst one orientation did tend to dominate practice across the three pillars in each setting, there were instances where GCE practice was filtered through more than one. This indicates that although the pedagogical approach (pedagogy) in a classroom may be normative, the dispositions personified (person) can be disruptive. As a result, the matrix structure suggests that different pillars can be expressed through different orientations, even in one class or by one teacher. The next sections apply the typology to the three different classroom settings, in order to exemplify how its features manifest in practice.

Table 6 *A typology of GCE classroom practice*

| ORIENTATIONS | PEDAGOGY <i>Teaching approaches, strategies</i> | PURPOSE <i>Motivations, intentions, pedagogical stances</i> | PERSON <i>Dispositions, identity, student-teacher relationships</i> |
|---------------------|--|---|---|
| Normative | Didactic, teacher-led, feedback patterns | Participation-as-pragmatic | Authoritarian, distant; impersonal |
| Adaptive | Active learning methodologies, small group discussion, process-led | Participation-as-technical | Facilitator, guide, reflective |
| Disruptive | Scaffolded facilitation, action-focussed, student-led, reciprocal | Participation-as-empowering | Reflexive, personable, collaborative, provocative, political, passionate |

6.2 Normative orientations in pedagogy and purpose

The IR module in St. Xavier's was permeated by GCE practice that was predominantly aligned to normative aspects of the typology. Ms. Coughlan's teaching approach was predominantly traditional and didactic in style and pedagogy was teacher led, with a strong focus on content, as opposed to process. In addition, discussions and student participation were directed and controlled by Ms. Coughlan and most frequently occurred at a whole class level. Oftentimes, these interactions were prompted by a question from Ms. Coughlan that was at times, responded to by a chorus of student voices or, directly by an individual student, chosen by the teacher. The excerpt below provides an example of one such interaction that arose during a lesson, focussed on identity:

Ms. Coughlan moves on to ask, what makes the Irish, Irish?...There is a mixture of a chorus of responses along with a few hands going up. Ms. Coughlan asks Ava, then Ruth...Zoe offers a response about drinking. Ms. Coughlan asks "is that absolutely true"? There is an animated chorus of responses for this but I can't decipher any of them...Ms. Coughlan begins to talk about stereotypes (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

Over the course of the eight-week observation phase, Ms. Coughlan devised only two activities based on group work, in addition to one walking debate. She described her approach as "old-fashioned" and indicated in interview, and in class, that she did not focus on active learning or "skills" (St Xavier's, interview and field notes, Week 1).

In the classroom, Ms. Coughlan appeared highly knowledgeable and presented significant amounts of content whilst talking at a fast pace and at times, at length, to the whole class. For example, during a lesson on migration, I noted that Ms. Coughlan displayed "quite a lot of knowledge in relation to refugees, direct provision and UN charters" (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 3). During an introductory lesson on Israel & Palestine, I observed the following:

Ms. Coughlan presents a "rough guide" to Islam [that included] ...the branches of Islam, Sunni and Shi'a, what Islam means, "surrender to God" ...its origins in the 5th/6th centuries...the geographic regions where it is practised...that it is the fastest growing of the worlds' religions and ...how

spellings of the Koran/Qur'an differ because of translations from Arabic to English (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

The breadth of her knowledge included historical, political and geographic accounts, in addition to specialised terminology related to war, religions, migration and identity.

This type of pedagogical practice foregrounds content and subject knowledge, and positions Ms. Coughlan as the knowledge holder, whilst reducing students to passive recipients of information (Freire & Ramos, 1996). It is closely aligned to normative teaching approaches within the typology. Accordingly, the majority of students experienced this practice in silence, as discussions were most frequently conducted between Ms. Coughlan and one student, rather than between students. At the end of one lesson, I noted that "there was very little space for students to think, reflect or talk to each other in a structured way" (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 3). Consequently, there was little space in this approach for students to construct meaning together. This style is indicative of the banking approach to teaching, whereby lessons were led by content that was deemed important and necessary for students to know (Freire & Ramos, 1996). In this sense, knowledge was viewed as static, and students were positioned as receivers of that knowledge, that also suggested a limited view, on the part of Ms. Coughlan, of the contributions they could make. In turn, evidence indicates that students accepted this role which reinforced previous studies' findings that students can reify these passive roles, thereby further enabling teachers to assert control (Devine, 2003; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Manke, 1997). Within this context, Ms. Coughlan risked aligning herself to a more authoritarian form of power in the classroom (Bizzell, 1991) that is associated with normative dispositions within the typology (Table 6).

This normative orientation was particularly evident on the few occasions when Ms. Coughlan did chose to use group work and strategies associated with active learning (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 6).¹⁵ These activities were designed to position students as active participants in the construction of knowledge.

¹⁵ Ms. Coughlan devised two activities based on group work. The first involved the selection and discussion of a photo by a group of students. The second was based on the concept of 'Each One, Teach One. Both activities were taken from Gannon, M., & Murtagh, E. (2012). *Palestine & Israel: How will there be a just peace?* Dublin: CDVEC Curriculum Development Unit:Sadaka.

However, they were largely unsuccessful in supporting authentic participation, because of the delivery of the methodologies and students' responses within this more didactic context. This was particularly the case for *Each One, Teach One*, a teaching method designed to encourage individual students to read and summarise different "fact cards" about Israel and Palestine and to then share this with their peers. The intention was to position students in the role of "teacher", whereby they assumed responsibility to teach their peers about the information they summarised. However, students appeared unfamiliar with this more agentic role and therefore reluctant to embrace it. I noted that:

when the opportunity arose for them [students] to discuss issues with their peers, their conversations quickly changed to unrelated matters, whilst some seemed confused by the information presented to them. During whole class feedback, there was quite a bit of giggling which suggested embarrassment and discomfort in the role of educator... (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 6).

Moreover, Ms. Coughlan did not play an active role during the group conversations, opting instead to set up the next activity. This decision, though perhaps made for practical reasons, undermined the crucial role of the teacher within participatory practice (Andreotti, 2012; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Giroux, 1983). The subsequent whole class discussion that did take place was hesitant and stunted on the part of students, with little evidence that any meaningful exchanges had occurred during the activity. Ms. Coughlan herself expressed dissatisfaction with how it had unfolded and suggested she needed to revert to talking (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 6). This example also highlights the challenges such a shift in role presents for students, particularly given the contrast between the intended empowering positioning of the activity and the more prevalent didactic approach within Ms. Coughlan's practice. It points to the need for greater support for students and a more explicit reconstructing of classroom dynamics and relationships (Cook-Sather, 2006; Manke, 1997).

The dearth of meaningful student participation identified within Ms. Coughlan's practice, tallies with previous quantitative research that identified the dominance of structured pedagogical practice in Irish classrooms (Gleeson, 2012; OECD, 2009). Together, these findings highlight wider contextual challenges for GCE practice and the impact of control and hierarchy on students' interactions within formal education

(Devine, 2003). This study found that an authoritarian disposition, associated with the typology's normative orientation, contributes to an environment that can hinder the intent of participatory pedagogies. Given the dominant, passive positioning to which students were accustomed, they were unfamiliar with and uncertain about more participatory approaches. Indeed, Ms. Coughlan's demeanour during the activity suggested that she too was uncertain of her new position. This incident highlighted a tension between the positioning of both teachers and students within the theoretical pillars of GCE pedagogy, and the wider formal education context that affords control to teachers and hinders student participation in the classroom (Ellsworth, 1989; hooks, 1994). Previous studies have established that support and training is required for teachers to begin to overcome this tension (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McSharry & Cusack, 2016). The present study extends that and raises questions as to the extent to which teachers *understand* the emancipatory intent of GCE pedagogy and students' readiness and willingness to engage, particularly in light of the context in which learning takes place. This relates particularly to the second pillar within the typology, purpose, which is explored below.

6.2.1 Purpose – supporting or foreclosing student participation?

This section examines other aspects of Ms. Coughlan's practice that were more closely aligned to adaptive orientations (Table 6), particularly in relation to the use of student-led learning. One example of this involved online research carried out, in class, by students. At times, Ms. Coughlan created the opportunity for students to carry out individual and independent research to introduce a topic. This strategy included a number of steps that students repeated several times over the course of the module.¹⁶ During one lesson on migration, students were provided with the terms "economic migrant", "asylum seeker", "refugee" and, "The UN Charter for Refugees" and "direct provision", as optional terms (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 3). Students responded enthusiastically to these tasks and I observed them researching a number of different search engines and sources including *Google*, *Wikipedia*, *Time* and *Encyclopedia Britannica*. This independent research was then followed by whole class feedback, drawing out what

¹⁶ Firstly, Ms. Coughlan pre-selected and provided upto five key terms related to the focal topic. Students were then free to explore websites and online sources of their own choosing to find out information about these areas. They had approximately 15-20 minutes to carry out this task.

students had uncovered. On one occasion I noted that:

There is a flow to the lesson now...Ms. Coughlan looks for some information students have found, takes it and then extends it. At one point she comments on the complicated nature of the situation...on another she gives a brief overview of the international context of the war, prompting a comment about Russia and a reference to the map of the world on the wall. Ms. Coughlan also talks about American funding of the Free Syria Army (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 2).

Ms. Coughlan described this process as a pooling of ideas through “scaffolded” discussion. She explained:

So I got them to do some research and then I suppose in my head I'm pulling it together then. So when they get their research...we'll pool it all together and then I'll add to it or it will add to my information...you could call them scaffolded discussions (Ms. Coughlan, St Xavier's, interview).

Yet, throughout this process, Ms. Coughlan controlled the feedback and students had few opportunities to discuss the substance in detail, or amongst their peers. These interventions were largely led by Ms. Coughlan. As illustrated above, they primarily involved her asking one student for a piece of information on one key term or, at times, asking if others had found something similar or different, whilst Ms. Coughlan also extended and added to the information students had retrieved.

On the one hand this approach is characteristic of a normative orientation. However, it also created some space for learners to build on their own sources of knowledge and information that resonated with them. This was evident during a walking debate that followed the research activity and related to different kinds of migration, the UN charter for refugees and direct provision. Ms. Coughlan invited students to agree or disagree with the statement that “Ireland should open its doors to all Syrian refugees who seek to live here” (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 3). In the excerpt below, I noted one student, Lucy, used some of the information that had been shared arising from the research, in order to make a contribution to the debate. She was responding to comments that some students had made linking refugees to terrorist attacks:

Lucy speaks about not looking at them as all bad, that “we're [people in Ireland] just presuming that they're all bad” ...she mentions that fact Sive found out that 50% of refugees are children, and she

says, that they're not going to be bad and they "deserve to live somewhere" (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 3).

This process enabled some students to contribute to the wider construction of knowledge in their classroom (Bourn, 2015; Fosnot, 1996; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Phillips, 1995).

Fundamentally however, this research strategy was limited in terms of student participation and empowerment. I argue that this was due to the purpose that underpinned the approach, Ms. Coughlan's treatment of student presence in the classroom and the role of more participatory pedagogies therein. The interview with Ms. Coughlan revealed a largely practical motivation for the use of student-led research in the classroom, as opposed to a connection with principles related to student empowerment or participation (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lingard & Mills, 2007). This is associated with a "participation-as pragmatism" stance within the typology. Ms. Coughlan stated that:

I've started doing that, bringing them up to the computer room...That is a feature of this year only because the double class was too hard going for everyone concerned and they weren't listening (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier's, interview).

She explained that her rationale for introducing student-led research was informed by a perception that a double-class period was too long and that students "weren't listening".¹⁷ The result was a rather pragmatic approach, whereby student contributions were sought to ultimately break up the perception of a long class period, rather than driven by a desire to recognise and create spaces for authentic student presence and contributions (Cook-Sather, 2006). Although, at times, students were actively engaged through some of the pedagogical approaches Ms. Coughlan chose, the participation-as-pragmatic stance diluted the empowering potential of the pedagogy.

I argue that distinctions between the values or principles which underpin pedagogical approaches are crucial to highlight, as they play a significant role in determining how the pedagogy is implemented in

¹⁷ A double-class period refers to two timetabled periods allocated to one lesson, back-to-back. In the case of St. Xavier's, this was an allocation of 80 minutes, as opposed to 40 minutes for one class period.

practice (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Korthagen, 2012; Waldron, 2012). Given Ms. Coughlan's practical positioning *vis-a-vis* participatory pedagogies, opportunities for student led discussions and peer-to-peer learning were largely foreclosed because the practice was not selected, in this first instance, with this in mind. Although I observed students discussing information with their peers on a small number of occasions, and exploring different views on issues such as ethnicity as they carried out their research, these conversations remained at the margins, informal and unheard. Moreover, these interactions were unrecognised as learning spaces or as part of a potentially empowering pedagogical approach to increase student engagement (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lingard, 2007). Consequently, whilst Ms. Coughlan employed some pedagogical strategies that had the potential to disrupt and reconstruct power dynamics in her classroom, the opportunity to do so did not materialise. This failure to adopt a pedagogical stance that recognised participation-as-empowering was most likely due to a blindspot that Boler (1996) describes as "inscribed habits of inattention" (1996, p.16) and the "selectivity of attention" (1996, p. 16). Devine & McGillicuddy (2016) refer to "dysconsciousness", a term originally associated with critical multicultural education theory (King, 1991). They borrow the term to define an uncritical habit of mind, that is an outcome of prevailing cultural practices within Irish formal education, which fails to position pedagogy as an emancipatory process for students (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; OECD, 2009).

Overall, Ms Coughlan's pedagogical practice appeared to be more intuitive and habitual, arising as a result of pragmatism, successful experiences and personal style, rather than a planned or ideological attachment to the empowering nature of GCE practices. Within her approach, there were opportunities to follow a more disruptive route that had the potential to empower students (Cook-Sather, 2006; Manke, 1997). Yet, these possibilities were either not seen or not pursued. The former assumes that Ms. Coughlan was primarily concerned with content and skills, rather than understanding GCE as participatory pedagogy that also promotes student participation and empowerment. Findings explored in Chapter Four support this analysis, highlighting the extent to which more cognitive dimensions of GCE dominated practice in this setting. The latter raises questions related to teacher capacity in order to deliver participatory pedagogies in the classroom, in addition to support required for students to engage with these approaches. Ultimately, Ms. Coughlan's dominant pedagogical stance illustrates the nature of control in classrooms, the extent to

which dominant dynamics prevail, and the ensuing impact of this on student participation.

6.3 Adaptive orientations in pedagogy and purpose

This section of the chapter moves on to explore GCE practice as applied through an adaptive orientation (Table 6). It critically analyses the strategies and methodologies adopted and enacted by Ms. Crowley in Dale College, that were characterised by a number of aspects associated with this orientation. Firstly, Ms. Crowley used a significant number of active learning methodologies, resulting in a strong process-led focus. In addition, lessons followed a particular pattern whereby Ms. Crowley structured each class period around a theme that was represented through certain stimuli (Table 6) that students then discussed in small groups. Principally, each lesson included two types of activity that included brainstorming, spider diagrams, think-pair-share, group discussions and walking debates. To follow, Ms. Crowley commonly facilitated some whole class discussion or at times, a brief individual reflection that required students to record some notes. Ms. Crowley's approach to group work was structured and planned. She used a variety of techniques to form pairs and groups and gave students clear and timed tasks. Oftentimes, she provided them with a prompt sheet that included a number of different discussion points or questions. Ms. Crowley was explicit with students about the purpose of group work and frequently encouraged them to focus and engage with the task-at-hand. Before one activity I noted:

Ms. Crowley asks the students to discuss the photos, using the prompts provided and adds that she wants students to “tease out good quality answers” and “stay focussed on the task” ...she then says she is giving them 10 minutes to complete the task and decides on the spot to assign students different roles such as “scribe, reporter and listener” (Dale College, field notes, Week 6).

She also instructed students on how she wanted them to form their groups, encouraging them not to sit in lines but in a square so that they could see each other and reminding students that she would be “listening actively” and circulating to groups as they carried out their task.

Within her practice, Ms. Crowley's frequent use of active learning methodologies intended to position students as active contributors to their own and their peers' learning. There was some evidence to suggest that groups completed tasks they had been assigned, in addition to exchanging ideas, information

and opinions. One of the more extended discussions held in small groups related to a series of photographs depicting scenes of migration, alongside a series of questions about the photo. The excerpt below is illustrative of how students engaged with the lesson:

Students voluntarily moved from one question to another at their own pace and checked to see if they had covered all the questions...I can hear students discussing, agreeing, disagreeing, saying for example, “I think it’s a good photo to be honest...” or asking “what makes it good or bad?” and one group discussed whether they thought the people depicted in the photo were refugees or asylum seekers... (Dale College, field notes, Week 6).

The excerpt demonstrates how students could move through this activity independently whilst also discussing aspects of migration they had already learned, about such as direct provision. Another activity resulted in students capturing in brainstorm format, what they had learned about refugees. Notes from one group included:

...asylum seekers...majority from Syria...no passports...come from overseas on boats...Calais...from war-torn countries...20,000 being taken in the UK...Ireland is taking 2,000...people in D.P [direct provision] can’t work...no food choice...limited resources...they get €19.10 a week...they can’t cook their own food...meals are at a fixed time...people in D.P feel their dignity is taken away (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

Such an approach is indicative of a pedagogical orientation that had adapted to approaches promoted within GCE literature and resources that seek to locate students as central to the construction of knowledge in the classroom (Andreotti & Souza, 2008; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bryan, 2013; McCormack & O’Flaherty, 2010; McMorow, 2006). However, such claims make several assumptions related to student readiness, context and interest (Morgan, 2000). Although students in Dale College did respond to the tasks set by Ms. Crowley, I frequently noted a “flat”, “subdued” and at times, “tense” atmosphere and questioned how “relaxed” students appeared (Dale College, field notes, Weeks 1,3,5). On one occasion, whilst students were listening to a podcast, I noted:

Students look serious/deadpan...most are quiet or silent, a few staring into space...I can see approximately 10 students writing...the students look unmoved as they listen (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

There were several possible reasons for this that highlight dissonances between what is imagined in theory and what is possible in practice (Cochran-Smith, 2012; Ellsworth, 1989; Lingard & Mills, 2007). I identified a number of reasons that include, the specific local context in which the pedagogies were implemented, the authenticity of interactions, the influence of classroom power dynamics and a pedagogical stance that positioned participation-as-technical. I will now look at each of these in turn.

Firstly, erratic student attendance had a significant impact on classroom dynamics in Dale College that did not support a conducive environment for participatory pedagogies.¹⁸ This arose largely due to the TY context in which the module was located and is significant given the importance of TY as one of the few meaningful spaces for GCE within formal education. The frequent, inconsistent, unpredictable and high volume of absenteeism affected the lessons in a number of ways. At a practical level, it impeded Ms. Crowley's plans to continue and build on previous lessons and required the use of valuable time to recap lessons for absent students. Furthermore, I suggest that erratic attendance did not support the development of strong student-to-student or teacher-student relationships which are essential aspects of participatory pedagogy and co-operative learning (hooks, 1994). In some cases, students did not know one another.

This absenteeism was directly linked to the type of TY student experience in Dale College. Activities connected to music and sport were prioritised during the course of my observations which in turn impacted significantly and negatively on GCE practices. In St Xavier's, whilst the same issues of attendance did not arise, students did spend one week during the observation phase on community placement. Moreover, at the time of the study, Ms. Coughlan had reported that some aspects of the TY programme in St Xavier's

¹⁸ One of the first tasks Ms. Crowley faced at the start of each lesson was establishing which students were, or were not, in attendance at the previous lesson. Although there were 25 students on the class list, the average attendance over my observation period was 14 and at times it was as low as eight. The most common reasons for lack of attendance were noted as 'sport' or 'extracurricular'. These terms refer to specialisms TY students in Dale College could select at the beginning of the year. Absenteeism from classes for these specific purposes was authorised.

were under review because of an issue with absenteeism at the end of the school year (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 5). TY is recognised as a valuable and alternative space within formal education that can afford some students opportunities to engage in a variety of activities and initiatives such as work experience, trips abroad, mini-companies and outdoor activities (Clerkin, 2019). Indeed, it is acknowledged as one of the few spaces within formal education where GCE can be developed (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Honan, 2005). However, reports also highlight that some students and parents have described TY as a “doss year” (Clerkin, 2019, p. 60).¹⁹ While the teachers in this study worked hard to ensure that their TY GCE courses did not fall into this category, their wider school context risked undermining their commitment. This highlighted further the precarious status of GCE in formal education, even in spaces that are deemed conducive to innovative and progressive work. It is noted here to highlight the significance of local contexts, classroom dynamics and wider contextual factors that may impede learning beyond pedagogy itself.

The second factor relates to classroom power dynamics. During Ms. Crowley's lessons, compliance may have precipitated student engagement rather than empowerment or indeed, indignation about the issues explored. Although Ms. Crowley had selected relevant, current and interesting materials to examine, at the end of one lesson I queried if “students really connect to this issue” (Dale College, field notes, Week 2) whilst at times, I wondered about the authentic nature of their interactions. During one group discussion based on a newspaper article about direct provision which Ms. Crowley had asked the groups to read and summarise, I noted of one student that:

...his tone and comments suggest he hasn't read the article ...his responses are exaggerated to the extent that his engagement does not seem genuine...he says, “I don't see why they can't send him back” ...and “Oh my *god*”, when one student tells him the person in the story may be killed if he returns to his country of origin. He seems to express faux shock (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

¹⁹ In this report, Clerkin (2019) reported a “non-negligible” minority of students described a “lacklustre, bored experience characterised by perceptions of doing nothing” (Clerkin, 2019, p. 60)

Some student responses therefore challenged the notion suggested within critical pedagogy that a unity of values or purpose will exist amongst a group of learners (Ellsworth, 1989). Moreover, at times it appeared that some students were simply moving from one question to another in order to complete a task as opposed to meaningfully engaging with the materials that were presented to them. Again, during the same activity on newspaper articles related to direct provision, Ms. Crowley had asked students to summarise the story in five sentences and to discuss “what the story has to do with direct provision” (Dale College, field notes, Week, 5). As the students worked in groups, I noted:

There are three groups and Ms. Crowley is circulating to each one...the students are very quiet...one student in each group has taken the lead and seems to be suggesting sentences [as requested by Ms. Crowley above] ...there are very few contributions from female students...Group 2 are silent now...Ms. Crowley moves over to them and reminds them what they have to do...Group 1 are discussing the details quietly, uncertainly... (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

Although the value of teacher-led questioning is recognised and explored further in Chapter Seven, the examples presented here highlight the risks of tightly controlled activities whereby teachers determine who students sit with, for how long they discuss a topic and the questions they are to discuss. The examples here present an overly imposed and restricted structure that left limited space for student autonomy in key areas such as questioning (Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine, 2002; Manke, 1997). I suggest that this was influenced by Ms. Crowley’s pedagogical stance at the time and explore the pillar of *purpose* below.

6.3.1 Purpose – diluting the potential to empower

In interview, Ms. Crowley was particularly contemplative about her recent experiences of professional development that had focussed on teaching strategies and active learning. This context suggests that her systematic application of active learning methodologies was influenced primarily by a technisation of pedagogy which removes pedagogy from its context and is driven by policy, rather than teachers or local contexts (Cochran-Smith, 2012; Korthagen, 2012; Lingard & Mills, 2007). Ms. Crowley’s GCE practice was at the time informed by a pedagogical stance that was infused by “participation-as-technical”. I suggest that this arose, not so much because Ms. Crowley did not see other possibilities, but

because of the privileging of this orientation within curriculum policy and her related CPD at the time. The excerpt below illustrates Ms. Crowley's commitment to professional development and a genuine attempt on her part to engage with new ideas to inform her teaching. She stated:

I'm always trying to get to in-services and I leave the in-service thinking "oh my God, these are great ideas" and then I go home and I put them into practice and it just doesn't work as well as it did in the in-service and what I saw in the video and the brilliant teacher in the classroom (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview).

Yet, her reflection also pointed to a disconnect between how she experienced CPD and how those largely positive experiences did not replicate in her classroom. For Ms. Crowley, it resulted in a worrying sense of failure in her own practice. However, it is widely accepted that within teacher education, knowledge of technical aspects and of "what works" is not enough to bridge the gap between theory and practice (Cochran-Smith, 2012; Gleeson, 2012; Korthagen, 2012; Waldron, 2012). The tensions Ms. Crowley raised also echo a critique of critical education and the challenges teachers face when attempting to implement complex processes within formal education settings (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Morgan, 2000; Willemse et al., 2015). This highlights a lacuna in professional development for teachers who want to be responsive to "great ideas" yet need ongoing support to move beyond technical aspects of practice and ultimately change their practice (Bentall, 2020; Bully, 2009; Gleeson, 2012). The next paragraph examines this and focuses particularly on Ms. Crowley's concerns related to the implications of some techniques for teacher-student relationships and classroom power dynamics.

This study coincided with a renewed emphasis in Irish education on group work and student-led learning within government policy, most particularly within the revised junior cycle curriculum (NCCA, 2015). As a result, Ms. Crowley had been participating in related professional development and was clearly grappling with a number of tensions it raised, notably with regards to student participation and teacher authority. In the excerpt below, she expressed being troubled by the training experience that she interpreted as suggesting a new and reduced role for the teacher.

While I'm not all "chalk and talk" I think, I think it's very hard to sometimes just be the

facilitator...Well I think really the teacher should probably just be the facilitator and that they're owning the learning and they're guiding where the learning is going but that's very, very complex...I was using quite a lot of them [active learning methodologies] but it seems to me that it's almost like the teacher...the more silent the teacher is in the room the better. I find that... I don't know what to do with that (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview)

Ms. Crowley was clearly struggling with narrow interpretations of teacher as facilitator. Moreover, her struggle was twofold: she acknowledged that student-led learning was a complex process to support and one that unsettled her sense of self in the classroom. Her description also reveals an interpretation of these methodologies as having a silencing effect on the teacher and of classroom power dynamics as a zero-sum game.

Both Freire (1994) and hooks (1994) have responded to this, offering different treatments of power in the classroom where teacher authority is required, but not to be exaggerated (Freire, 1994) and students grant teachers authority to teach (hooks, 1994). Yet, in this instance, Ms. Crowley appeared genuinely concerned by the version of active learning as promoted through her CPD. It was a narrow interpretation that focused on student-led learning, as opposed to forms of participation that are also concerned with more reciprocal student-teacher relationships and empowering aspects of participatory pedagogy. Such an approach is concerned not only with learning but also with student voice, presence and democratic education (Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). Consequently, although many teaching strategies that offer the potential to increase student participation were in place with Ms. Crowley's practice, the dominance of a pedagogical stance of participation-as-technical diluted opportunities for a more participatory and empowering experience for students. Ms. Crowley was clearly conflicted about her practice and particularly how that positioned her in relation to students and knowledge. She was troubled by a particular interpretation of active learning that limited the role of teacher to that of a guide. A focus on Ms. Crowley's pedagogical practice confirms that teaching is more than a technical implementation of established practices and also highlights the importance of relational aspects of pedagogy that are crucial to GCE. This will be explored later in the chapter.

6.4 Disruptive orientations in pedagogy and purpose

In St. Theresa's College, a disruptive orientation was identified across all three pillars of Ms. Morton's GCE practice (Table 6). This orientation represents the pinnacle of the typology. Striking features of Ms. Morton's GCE pedagogical practice were the active nature of the lessons and the dominance of group work and student participation, even within the context of a 40-minute timetabled slot. The practice stood apart from those previously presented in this chapter and prevailing narratives related to students' experiences of formal schooling (Devine, 2003; Gleeson, 2012) because it was built on the premise of student self-selection, student-led action and a project-oriented approach. During observations, I frequently noted the busy and planning-oriented nature of the lessons. On one occasion, I recorded the number and types of tasks identified for one lesson that focussed on students' preparation for a Development Education celebration day.²⁰ These included:

preparation of ribbons, a display for the school, an application form for schools to put forward their development education work, an announcement about the event, work on the SDG presentation and an information letter for teachers (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 3).

In establishing a clear student-centred and action focus, the module was connected to and rooted in two of GCE's central tenets, social transformation and transformation of the self (Bourn, 2015; Freire & Ramos, 1996). The emphasis on action was rooted in the origins of the module which began, as noted in Chapter Five, as an extra-curricular activity that had been then allocated a discrete, timetabled slot by the school principal. From the outset, the opt-in nature of the module positioned students as active and autonomous participants, thereby already disrupting dominant school structures that control students' time and space (Devine, 2003; Cook-Sather, 2006; Manke, 1997). This was a crucial, contextual factor that highlighted how a shift in control at a school structural level, can subsequently influence classroom dynamics (McSharry & Cusack, 2016).

When I began observations in St. Theresa's College, decisions had already been made regarding the

²⁰ This event did not ultimately happen that year but Ms. Morton hoped it would happen the following academic year.

types of actions students would take. Consequently, the lessons I observed were focussed on planning for and executing those ideas and thinking about plans for the following academic year. This work was largely carried out in small groups. Some of the group work I observed included tasks previously noted. As the group work took place, Ms. Morton visited each table in turn, listening to the discussion, seeking clarification or suggesting what students needed to do in order to realise their plans. She could be overheard saying, “what do you need to do?”, “what I need you to do is...” (St. Theresa’s College, field notes, Weeks 2 & 3). At times, students called her over to their group or approached her with a question. Ms. Morton seemed keenly aware of her pedagogical stance in the GCE classroom. She referred to the optional nature of the module for students on a number of occasions and, in the excerpt below, to how this then prompted her to think differently about her engagement with them.

I suppose I’m more a facilitator in those classes I think than a teacher per se...Yeah it is a lot less formal than any of my other classes...It is more of us working together I suppose and me facilitating them (Ms. Morton, St Theresa’s College, interview).

Within her GCE practice, Ms. Morton strongly identified her role with that of a facilitator which she reported, was somewhat different to the approach she might normally take with students in a classroom. She associated the role of teacher as formal and distant, compared to a more collaborative and reciprocal role for a facilitator.

Within her classroom practice, Ms. Morton displayed small but significant signs of this pedagogical stance. I rarely observed her teaching or talking from the top of the classroom and she was more inclined to position herself to the side. In addition, I noted her body language where at times, she sat at a table with a group of students and on one occasion “leaned over, arms straight, hands on desk, between two students...listening as they talked” (St. Theresa’s College, field notes, Week 3). During the same lesson I also noted:

There is lively talk in the class now. The teacher is listening, responding to questions and asking students a question or asking them to do something...I hear her ask, “how are you girls getting on?” (St. Theresa’s College, field notes, Week 3).

Whole class moments and discussion led by Ms. Morton were rare. Most frequently, they served to recap what had been discussed or planned, to identify tasks that needed to be completed or, to look for volunteers. At all times, Ms. Morton also remained attentive and responsive, prompting and motivating students whilst also keeping an eye on practical matters. This was evidenced by the extent to which I observed her moving around the room, checking in with various groups, listening to students' ideas and plans and prompting further development by asking "how can you do that", "what do you need to do next" and frequently speaking in the "we" (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Weeks 2,3,4)

Students in Ms. Morton's GCE classroom were positioned as active participants who took responsibility to plan and execute the ideas and activities agreed upon. There was evidence to suggest that they prepared the materials used for awareness raising activities in the school and on one occasion, a student presented a power point presentation that had been prepared by a number of students for a national showcase event. I noted that:

She sat at the teacher's desk and computer to do this and her classmates were quiet as she presented an overview of the SDGs. As she moved through the presentation, Ms. Morton, at times, supports or extends what she says, while on others she looks for volunteers to take responsibility for different slides of the day of the showcase (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 2).

I also observed students frequently working from Ms. Morton's computer to research a topic or prepare display materials. She appeared determined to explicitly adopt a pedagogical stance that supported and followed students, rather than imposing and dictating what they did. This was evident from how Ms. Morton chose to interact with students, in addition to the extent to which their deliberations, plans and activities became the focal point for the module. This is one of the distinctive characteristics of her approach across the settings. In this instance, students were not only positioned in a more participatory way through interactions with their teacher and peers, but they also played a role in determining substantive content.

In addition, students seemed at ease in the classroom and accustomed to getting up, moving around and carrying out tasks, independent of their teacher. There was a sense that this was very much their space.

The active and participatory nature of the classroom was also noted by students, as reflected in the excerpt below. Sonya described the experience in a relational sense that is connected to the principle of reciprocity within participatory pedagogies (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Freire & Ramos, 1996):

I think in a class like sometimes it's like teacher/student, like there's a big gap between us but in ENGAGE it's like the teacher is there to help and guide us but like we're all running it together (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

Sonya understands Ms. Morton's role as collaborative and supportive, indicating a sense of empowerment, responsibility and autonomy over her own learning. I also noted these attitudes over the course of the observation phase. During a lesson to prepare for the national showcase, I observed that:

several students opted quickly and with ease to take on different tasks and to present on different aspects of the project (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 2).

Furthermore, on a number of occasions I noted the serious yet relaxed demeanour of students during the lessons (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 2). In addition, Ms. Morton spoke about making "decisions together" (St. Theresa's College, field notes, Week 2). Significantly, this experience is in contrast to other student-teacher interactions that position students and teachers at a distance from each other. It offered a response to Ms. Crowley's concern that teacher-as-facilitator must stand apart from students and presented evidence of the potential for teachers to relinquish some elements of control, whilst at the same time remaining responsible for learning and close to students.

Whilst Ms. Morton's practice was action-focussed and described and understood by students in participatory terms, during observations, she used the least amount of active learning methodologies associated with GCE, as illustrated in Table 6. Group work was oriented towards planning a project, public speaking, organising school events and raising awareness. As such, it could be argued that the participatory nature of Ms. Morton's pedagogical practice arose more so as a result of the nature of the module and its connection to a wider national programme, rather than a deliberate intent on the part of Ms. Morton (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). Without doubt, the reorientation of purpose from the outset, in addition to wider

structural support did effect what happened in the classroom. Nonetheless, Ms. Morton consciously considered the experience of students throughout this module. It was a conscious and distinctive aspect of Ms. Morton's *purpose*. She shaped and delivered her practice so that students could experience participation-as-empowerment.

This section has explored two pillars of GCE practice within the typology, how they manifested across the orientations and subsequent impacts on student participation. The study found both pedagogy and purpose are malleable and open to interpretation by teachers with different motivations and ways of understanding students, student participation and learning. Purpose was identified as a crucial factor that influenced how teachers positioned themselves within their pedagogical practice but also how students were ultimately positioned in terms of participation (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). Indeed, Andreotti (2009) has stated:

[teachers'] ethical/political choices in terms of the role of education will be based on their interpretations of their mandate, which are based more on their assumptions of the needs of society, communities and learners than on the ideological and practical constraints of the school (2009, p. 10)

A focus on purpose reveals interpretations of participatory pedagogies that range from a practical or technical tool to vary practice and support group work and student-led learning, through to more ideological perspectives related to student empowerment. With the exception of Ms. Morton, there was a paucity of thought related to students' experiences of these approaches and this, in turn, foreclosed or diluted teaching strategies that had the potential to bolster student voice and participation (Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Lundy, 2007). Moreover, there was little evidence to suggest an understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of GCE pedagogy, particularly in relation to its emancipatory and participatory dimensions. Only Ms. Morton connected GCE practice to empowering her students. This inattention to student experience and empowerment indicates a significant obstacle at classroom level, that requires a reimaging of power and authority within GCE pedagogy. Crucially, teachers and students need to be supported in order to navigate that process.

6.5 Person: the third constituent pillar within GCE practice

This section is focussed on the typology's third and final pillar related to the idea of teacher as person. As already noted, teachers are recognised as playing a significant role in determining the presence of GCE in schools in Ireland, despite structural and professional barriers that they face (Ball, 2008; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Bully, 2009; Mannion et al., 2011; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; Waldron et al., 2011). This study extends that understanding to also include the role the teacher *as person* can play, in determining students' experiences of GCE and the classroom environments created. Across the settings, these two elements were influenced by teacher passion and dispositions conveyed in the classroom, in addition to student-teacher relationships. Together, these resonate particularly with relational aspects of GCE and wider literature pertaining to the pedagogy of relation (Biesta, 2004; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Margonis, 2004; Sidorkin, 2000). Here, the importance of the relationship between student and teacher is established as a precondition for learning to take place (Margonis, 2004).

Identifying *person* as a core pillar of GCE teaching and learning extends our understanding of practice beyond a series of techniques, in order to highlight the importance of human relations in creating conducive environments that can be inspiring, open, political and supportive. With regard to this study, those relationships were enhanced when students understood their teachers as human, through their personal passion for the subject and, more fundamentally, through students' descriptions of interactions that were based on trust, care and respect (Biesta, 2004; Cook-Sather, 2006). This section explores teacher passion and some of the significant dispositions that emerged over the course of the study. It presents students' experiences of these and the impact of certain dispositions on student-teacher relationships and learning.

6.5.1 Teacher passion

Each of the participating teachers identified with a societal purpose of education that echoes the concept of transformation of self and society found in critical pedagogy (Freire & Ramos, 1996; Giroux, 2016; hooks, 1994). They expressed a simultaneous personal passion for global justice issues alongside a passion for including this in their teaching - a characteristic within the disruptive orientation of person (Table 6). In addition, their articulations were connected to a vision for what they wanted students to essentially experience and learn. At times, this vision was also acknowledged as the ultimate motivating

and driving force of their work. Ms. Coughlan stated that:

...a little bit of my role is to kind of make a change. It's definitely there, there's no question of it and it is sometimes the more reason for getting up in the morning you know (Ms. Coughlan, St. Xavier's, interview).

The importance of connecting teaching to a strong sense of purpose and passion has been highlighted as critical to teacher education, in order to support the authentic implementation of democratic practices in classrooms and schools (Fielding, 2012; Korthagen, 2012; Waldron, 2012). This study extends that contribution, by highlighting the importance of what Korthagen (2012) refers to as a "person-oriented view" (2012, p. 124) of teachers which seeks to extend teaching beyond the mere adoption of certain competencies, or indeed pedagogies (Gleeson & Donnabháin, 2009; Korthagen, 2012; Lingard, 2007).

Students understood their teachers' passions for global justice issues which, in turn, inspired some, and added a layer of authenticity to GCE practices. A number of students spoke about teacher enthusiasm, their voluntary work or studies, as indicators of their teachers' commitment that they noted and appreciated. Ms. Morton's personal interest was noted by one of her students. Tess stated that:

When they're [the teacher] interested in it really helps like. So Miss Morton did something like that in college; she did international relations and stuff, that was really helpful. She's so interested in it like so you kind of can't help to jump on board (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

In addition, in the excerpt below, Stephen spoke about Ms. Crowley's willingness to share some of her own experiences and the impact of this on his attitude to GCE. He reported that:

Miss Crowley does a lot of volunteer work and she tells us about the things she's been through; she even shows us pictures sometimes. I think it really helps knowing that she's not just teaching us and telling us about it, she actually gets involved (Dale College, focus group 1).

The excerpt is important as it indicates that Stephen was not only interested in what Ms. Crowley had done, but that she herself was personally committed, and, "not just teaching us and telling us". Through Stephen it also becomes clear that Ms. Crowley was willing to share some aspects of her person with students. This

added a degree of authenticity to her practice that was absent within her technical, pedagogical stance.

6.5.2 Teacher dispositions

Teacher dispositions emerged as another important factor within this third pillar, in determining the type of environment in which GCE learning takes place. It was a notable feature during the observation phase and students also identified it as important. Dispositions I observed and reported included; enthusiasm, interest, respect, genuine engagement with both topics and students, in addition to a caring, open and personable approach. At times, these were demonstrated by teachers' willingness to put aside their plans and respond to something particular they noted in their interactions with students. On one occasion, noted below, Ms. Coughlan diverged from her plans, in order to talk to students about their feelings in relation to incidents in Paris which arose during the observation phase:²¹

Ms. Coughlan says she's going to be honest with the class, that she's spending more on the topic of refugees than she did with the last class and part of it is that their reaction to the discussions is very different...she asks is what happened in Paris last weekend related any in way to our discussion...There is a chorus of "yeah". Ms. Coughlan says, "Ok, then let's discuss" (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

The subsequent discussion created an important space for students to give voice to opinions they had encountered and dilemmas they were grappling with, in relation to issues of migration and security that had been prompted by the incident in Paris. This responsiveness to students, that I also observed in the other settings, indicates that teachers were actively listening to students' contributions and at times, openly disposed to pursuing student needs or interests.

Ms. Coughlan described herself as honest, direct and humorous. On my first day in the setting, I described her as "matter-of-fact and open" (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 1). She frequently offered her own personal experiences or opinions on a topic, often in provocative terms. For example, on one occasion,

²¹ On November 13th 2015, there was a series of six coordinated terrorist attacks in Paris. 127 people were confirmed dead and 350 injured. Sites targeted included a rock concert, Stade de France and a number of cafes. On Saturday morning, IS claimed they had ordered the attacks. The classroom scene described above was observed the week following the event.

she offered her own views on a photograph she was using as a stimulus, that depicted a scene of a border checkpoint. Ms. Coughlan described it as “evocative...and extremely powerful and distressing” before inviting students to share their responses (St. Xavier’s, field notes, Week 3). On another, during a walking debate that considered the statement “Ireland should change its system of direct provision”, Ms. Coughlan said, “me, I would change it completely” (St. Xavier’s, field notes, Week 3). In addition, as previously examined in Chapter Four, Ms. Coughlan encouraged students to question information they were presented with in order to think differently. This is where Ms. Coughlan’s practice was most aligned to a more disruptive orientation and political aspects of GCE. It also positioned students as more active and agentic in the construction of knowledge (Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994; Wink, 2005). Moreover, Ms. Coughlan suggested that she invited students to question and critique what *she* was saying, stating at times that she was “trying to think of ways of making them critically challenge me” (St. Xavier’s, interview). However, because classroom discussions were led and controlled by Ms. Coughlan, there was little space or opportunity for students to really engage with this invitation in a meaningful way. Despite this, students interpreted the refrain in quite powerful terms and this will be explored further in Chapter Seven. It is included here as it highlights the matrix nature of the typology and how GCE practice is not exclusively tied to techniques, strategies or stances but can also be shaped through disposition.

Both Ms. Morton and Ms. Crowley presented slightly more distant personas in the classroom than Ms. Coughlan. They adopted serious and professional tones, yet remained courteous and respectful of students. I rarely observed them expressing personal opinions, though they consistently displayed an interest in students’ contributions, through how they responded verbally and also in how they circulated during group tasks. One aspect of Ms. Morton’s disposition that was noteworthy, related to her autonomous and reflexive persona that filtered through into her practice and further bolstered her disruptive orientation. Andreotti (2014) describes reflexivity in practice as reflection that moves beyond a focus on individual processes, to one that considers more collective systems and cultures that may impact on practice. The previous chapter illustrated how Ms. Morton imbued this characteristic in seeking to challenge dominant GCE practices that prevailed in her school, particularly in relation to action.

Ms. Crowley’s attitude towards students’ contributions during whole class feedback, was a notable

feature of her practice. She made a particular effort to note, verbatim, on the board, students' inputs or to negotiate with them an alternative, as illustrated by the excerpts below:

Ms. Crowley writes up on the board what the students say...at one point, she asks the student..."can I say ...too difficult to manage", which seems to acknowledge that she is interpreting their words (Dale College, field notes, Week 2).

...Ms. Crowley moves on to another group...one of the students answers but very quietly ...she starts writing on the board "people who"...then she stops..."Ok, when you say people in Third World countries, what do you mean?"...the student responds again very quietly... "countries in Africa and South America" ... Ms. Crowley asks, "are all countries in south America or Africa...Third...World...countries..."(her tone goes up to stress question)...there's a small chorus of "no"...Ms. Crowley says "OK, we're all going no"...little pause here...she begins to ask if anyone knows another term...(Dale College, field notes, Week 1).

I observed a clear intention by Ms. Crowley to represent exactly what students stated, repeating what they said as she wrote, whilst also clarifying and qualifying what they meant. These were not big gestures but did suggest a collaborative and respectful disposition on her part, that afforded legitimacy and audience to student contributions which were sought and valued, and did not go unrecognised (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lundy, 2007).

Nonetheless, the concerns that Ms. Crowley voiced in relation to pedagogy and purpose, may have also restricted her persona in the classroom. Despite a firm and strong personal commitment to development education and human rights, as stated in her interview, Ms. Crowley appeared less inclined to portray this in the classroom. She rarely chose to participate in the discussions or debates with students, or to offer a personal view. As a result, she positioned herself outside of conversations in which students were engaged. This diffused her personal passion and risked aligning her practice to a more normative orientation that describes the teacher as distant (Table 6). I suggest however that this was largely due to the technical pedagogical stance that infused Ms. Crowley's practice at the time. She may have been overly concerned with foregrounding student contributions, to the extent that it restricted her own participation.

Whilst Ms. Crowley's pedagogical approaches created spaces for students to interact with one another, it reduced opportunities to facilitate an authentic conversation between teacher and students. This reduced her role to more limited interpretations of teacher as facilitator, that risked distancing herself from students. Indeed, one of her students commented on this. Daniel stated that:

Well I think in social studies anyway the teacher doesn't really have as much or may as strict a role as they would say like a maths teacher who'd be teaching you "this is how you do this, take it down" and all that. Whereas like it almost seems the teacher in social studies class just have, kind of like starts off an idea and then sets everyone off on it. So like you're able to then think to yourself, you're not like taught what to think. You're kind of just let off on your own and then like the teacher will stop the class, be like ok, what's all your opinions on it and then they'll give you another task and say go off on that now (Dale College, focus group 1).

Daniel's interpretation of Ms. Crowley's approach, identifies a very limited role for the teacher and mirrors Ms. Crowley's description of teacher as silent. He defines it in quite positive terms from a student's perspective, contrasting it to being "taught what to think" that echoes the banking approach to education (Freire & Ramos, 1996). Nonetheless, this interpretation also threatens to minimise or foreclose valuable and necessary contributions that teachers must make, in order to extend or deepen learning (Biesta, 2013).

This is a longstanding critique of certain interpretations of social constructivism, that reduce the role of teacher to a mere guide or facilitator of learning, whilst Biesta (2013) suggests that they remove the act of being taught. Although these interpretations of constructivism are contested (Applefield et al., 2001; Liu & Matthews, 2005) this study has found them to operate, in practice, amongst teachers and students. Ms. Crowley had extensive experience teaching GCE, in addition to a strong personal commitment and several related experiences that included, travel across 42 countries and time volunteering in displacement camps in Calais. Yet, her pedagogical orientation did not afford sufficient opportunities for her to engage at a more direct or personal level with students, during classroom discussions. There may have been what Freire referred to as an "exaggerated emphasis" (1994, p. 99) on freedom through Ms. Crowley's pedagogical orientation, and a diminished emphasis on authority (Freire, 1994). This may have related to Ms. Crowley's

concerns about a values-based curriculum as explored in Chapter Five. However, it may also be connected to what Bizzell (1991) suggests is an overly singular view of power within the classroom, whereby teachers are powerful and students are passive. Drawing on hooks's (1994) work, she stated that "a simple inversion of this position whereby the students' personal experiences become the sole topic of discussion while the teacher sits passively by" (1991, p. 52) does not grant a form of authority to teachers that is ultimately necessary if students are to grow and move towards critical consciousness (Bizzell, 1991; hooks, 1994). Whilst Ms. Crowley was not passive in facilitating students to engage in discussions with each other, her technical approach, that was focused on student-led learning, may have constrained her own contributions and her authority to teach.

Crucially, students across the three settings recognised and described similar dispositions in their GCE teachers, to those I observed. They identified the relationship they held with their GCE teachers in particular terms, that supported their participation in classroom discussions and helped create more trusting and at times, reciprocal relationships. The excerpts below illustrate students' sense of comfort in their GCE classrooms, which they largely attributed to their teachers' personable dispositions, as opposed to pedagogical approaches. They stated that:

Sonya: I think it makes you more comfortable in the classroom and it takes off pressure as well because you feel like you have a teacher that you can talk to, like they can relate to you on a human level because sometimes they seem like so... distant.

Saorla: Aliens! (giggles)

Sonya : So it's like when you feel like they can understand you and they can help you with a problem well then it's easier to learn because you know they're actually there for you (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

This style opened possibilities for students to relate to their teachers and feel related to. In addition, it reduced the sense of distance students expressed they sometimes feel in school between themselves and teachers. A number of students commented on teacher honesty, observing their willingness to acknowledge

that sometimes they did not know the answer to a question or comment. This open and honest disposition is important within GCE, given its emphasis on reciprocity and uncertainty (Andreotti, 2009; Andreotti, 2014; Freire & Ramos, 1996). It also suggests that for some teachers, it was through *person*, in addition to, or in spite of, their pedagogical stance, that a more disruptive orientation is imbued.

For example, many students described a sense of being listened to. They understood that their GCE teachers were both open to and genuinely interested in what they had to say, stating that “she really values your opinion” (Dale College, focus group 1) and, “everyone can have their own opinion, own idea...She doesn’t turn it down” (St. Xavier’s, focus group 1). Not only did this seem to stand in stark contrast to their dominant classroom experiences, but it also afforded validity and respect for their opinions. This points to the potentially empowering nature of GCE practices, if teachers are perceived as authentic in approach. Previous studies have found students to place significant value on being listened to and a corresponding sense of being respected (Cook-Sather, 2006). This, in turn, helps to create a safer, friendly environment for student participation, as it recognises student voice and presence (Cook-Sather, 2006). Moreover, the types of listening teachers were engaged in is important to note. Following Lodge’s (2005) typology of different types of listening, teachers predominantly listened for understanding and inclusion, rather than quality control or assessment. This distinction is significant, as it helps to position students as contributors, rather than passive receivers, an important aspect of GCE pedagogy. Within a formal education context, where power resides predominantly with teachers, these dispositions become magnified and are seen as significant gestures of trust and reciprocity that perhaps pedagogy alone cannot create.

In summary, this section has attempted to illustrate the important role of person in GCE practice. Elements include teacher disposition and the kinds of relationships they develop and hold with their students. Together these factors influence not only the substance and practice of GCE, but crucially, in this instance, the learning environment itself. Students’ descriptions of their teachers draw out the deeply relational nature of critical pedagogy and of the centrality of trust and respect between teacher and student (Cook-Sather, 2006; hooks, 1994). If these dispositions are absent, it is difficult to imagine the more empowering and emancipatory aspects of GCE practice being realised.

Conclusion

This chapter set out a typology of GCE practices that established its three core pillars and three further orientations through which these pillars can be filtered. As a contribution, it helps to draw lines of distinction between classroom experiences and the extent to which pedagogy, purpose and person influence GCE practice and together drive and shape very different experiences for students. The chapter highlighted how all three pillars are evident in all GCE practice, but that each setting was predominantly characterised by one orientation, albeit elements of others were also present. This was particularly the case in relation to person, whereby elements of a more disruptive orientation were found in students' interpretations of their relationships with their teachers. Orientations in pedagogy varied significantly. Those of both Ms. Crowley and Ms. Morton were influenced by a more reflective and adaptive approach, whilst Ms. Coughlan applied a predominantly normative orientation. The study also established purpose as key to determining the extent to which the more empowering intent of GCE is either foreclosed, diluted or opened up. I argued that where teachers understood students' position within GCE and the emancipatory aspects its practice, this was more likely to impact on students' participatory experiences. With the exception of Ms. Morton's pedagogical stance, a striking disparity was found between how students are positioned as empowered and autonomous learners within GCE pedagogy at a theoretical level and how they are thought about and positioned in the GCE classroom.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DIALOGUE AND DISCUSSION AS GCE CLASSROOM PRACTICE- STRATEGIES, INTERPRETATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Introduction

Dialogue and discussion are important conceptual and pedagogical features of GCE. They are the focus of this chapter, given their centrality to GCE practice and the extent to which they arose over the course of data collection and analysis. Discussion is viewed as a valuable teaching and learning strategy through which students learn about global justice issues. Concepts of dialogue, particularly Freirean dialogue, describe it as a deeply relational and complex process, that can lead to critical conscious and transformative change (Freire & Ramos, 1996). Together, dialogue and discussion provide the basis for GCE processes and intentions that include opportunities to develop a sense of multi-perspectivity and the ability to negotiate and deliberate with others (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Burbules, 1993; Hand & Levinson, 2012). As such, they are expressions of citizenship, giving effect to concepts such as voice, participation and democracy (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Burbules, 1993; Morgan & Guilherme, 2012; Schuitema et al., 2017).

At times, discussion and dialogue are used interchangeably in education literature (Howe & Abedin, 2013). Here, however, they are understood as distinct, but related. Consequently, the findings in this chapter are supported by two bodies of literature. Firstly, I draw on the study's conceptual framework that brings together the work of Freire & Ramos (1996) and Burbules (1993). This sets out four different types of dialogue - conversation, instruction, enquiry and debate (Burbules, 1993), that together move towards a practical expression of Freire's theory (

Figure 3). As developed in Chapter Three, I argue that this frame provides a more delineated lens to identify various ways in which dialogue finds expression in practice. In addition, the frame suggests that a combination of all four types are required, in order to move towards Freirean dialogue. Secondly, I draw on empirical studies related to discussion as a classroom practice within citizenship education contexts (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Bloome, 2015; Parker & Hess, 2001; Schuitema et al., 2017). Together, these

theoretical and empirical studies identify key characteristics of GCE dialogue and discussion, that support the analysis of classroom practices identified in this study.

To begin, I critically analyse the spaces created for discussion within GCE practice, setting out key characteristics of teaching strategies implemented and the types of dialogue that emerged. I argue that many of these approaches provided valuable learning moments for students and featured elements of dialogue developed in Chapter Three (

Figure 3). However, they did not move towards Freirean dialogue. In addition, I maintain that the strategies adopted were primarily employed with a view to learning *with* discussion (Parker & Hess, 2001). Next, I focus on student participation in classroom discussions. I explore students' interpretations of classroom discussion as a principal feature of their GCE experience that in turn, contributed to a positive counterpoint to more traditional and didactic encounters. However, I also identify a number of obstacles that impeded students' capacity to engage more deeply in those discursive spaces. These relate to subject confidence and the social nature of GCE learning. Finally, I critically examine students' understandings of the role of multiple perspectives within GCE discussion, and argue that some understandings risk limiting the potential for more critical forms of dialogue.

7.1 Characteristics of GCE classroom discussion

Across the settings, teachers created spaces for particular types of discussion to take place, with a view to students learning about different dimensions of GCE. It was a prominent feature of GCE practice, although teaching strategies, purposes and resultant outcomes varied. This was evident during my observations but also notable in students' interpretations of their GCE classroom experience. The next section will examine students' experiences and interpretations. First, I explore different teaching strategies that required or encouraged discussion, and critically analyse their characteristics. Data for this section are drawn from Dale College (Ms. Crowley) and St. Xavier's (Ms. Coughlan). Although, discussions did take place in St. Theresa's (Ms. Morton), they were largely directed towards organising plans and initiatives and as such, are not included in this section.

7.1.1 Small group discussion

Group work was one of the defining strategies of GCE practice in Dale College. Ms. Crowley set up many of her tasks and group activities with the distinct purpose of learning with discussion. As noted in the previous chapters, this strategy followed a distinct pattern that included a stimulus provided by Ms. Crowley, followed by clear instructions or questions that directed students' discussions. At times, Ms. Crowley emphasised the importance of approaching the task as a group, stating on a number of occasions, for example, "I want you as a group to discuss the questions and the statements" and "I would like you all to write down a summary that you agree on" (Dale College, field notes, Weeks 5 and 6). Another example below, sets out the questions students were to discuss, based on their interrogation of a news article.

What do you think is the main part of the story? What are the main facts of the story? What does the headline say? (Dale College, field notes, Week 2).

This task included a number of steps that required students to gather a range of information, whilst also generating opportunities for students to discuss what they felt were the most important aspects of the story. In setting up the activity as a group discussion, as opposed to an individual written task, Ms. Crowley created the potential for a type of dialogue that was both inclusive and convergent, defined by Burbules as inquiry (

Figure 3). This type of dialogue is exploratory in nature but also requires deliberation amongst students to reach a conclusion. In this sense, the approach adopted by Ms. Crowley, offered students an opportunity to experience some aspects of deliberation, negotiation and synthesis that are key features of dialogue (Burbules, 1993; Freire & Ramos, 1996).

During these tasks, Ms. Crowley frequently circulated to different groups, at times checking to ensure students remained on task, but also to ask further questions. Bloome (2015) highlights the value of teacher questions in influencing the nature of the discussion in small groups. This became evident during the exchanges Ms. Crowley had with students as she moved from group to group. It was during these interactions that she posed the most critical questions for students to consider. For example, after listening to a podcast that featured the stories of two people living in direct provision in Ireland, Ms. Crowley asked

students to discuss what they learned about this system of accommodation for asylum seekers. As she set up the task, she said, “I want to hear you talking...I want to hear you speaking...I’m going to be listening actively while you’re doing that” (Dale College, field notes, Week 5). When she began to circulate to each group, I noted:

Students are doing this quietly...they are reading their notes, and picking out information...Ms. Crowley is engaging with them as she goes around, asking questions like, “what did we find out?” and probing them. One group is talking about the allowance adults receive in direct provision ...Ms. Crowley asks them if they found out what they buy with that and there is a conversation about “calling overseas”...Ms. Crowley says, “it doesn’t go far, does it, if you want to ring abroad...” and then moves to the next group...she asks “anything about their conditions?”...one student says something about accommodation centres...Ms. Crowley asks if they said anything about “what ones are government-owned and what ones are private-owned?”...students flick through their notes...Ms. Crowley returns to her desk (Dale College, field notes, Week 5).

This excerpt exemplifies a type of critical prompting that is demanded of GCE practices (Andreotti, 2006; Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994). Through her questions, Ms. Crowley encouraged students to more deeply consider implications for people living under the direct provision system. Her question relating to the ownership of accommodation centres is of particular note. This line of enquiry drew attention to a controversial aspect of the Irish state’s direct provision system, whereby private companies, paid by the state, profit from the operation of Centres. In doing so, Ms. Crowley, albeit fleetingly, shed a light on some of the more hidden aspects of the system, and addressed the “who benefits?” question that is so fundamental to more critical iterations of GCE. It also suggests that Ms. Crowley had a particular instructional purpose in mind. Though initially framed as an inclusive and divergent discussion that is indicative of conversational dialogue (Burbules, 1993), Ms. Crowley’s interventions moved the discussion towards a more critical and convergent type of dialogue, that is associated with instruction (Burbules, 1993). This exemplifies the central role of teachers in discussion, in addition to the fluid nature of classroom practice and the possibilities for dialogue to move between different types.

7.1.2 Whole class discussion

Oftentimes, Ms. Crowley also led a whole class discussion, to extend or follow on from small group work. Most often, this strategy served as a form of feedback, in order to gather a contribution from each group respectively, that was then noted on the board verbatim, as detailed in Chapter Six. At times, Ms. Crowley also asked students to elaborate on their contributions. For example, during a feedback discussion on the role of newspapers in the world, the following exchange took place between a student and Ms. Crowley. I noted:

Daniel offers his group's contribution which is related to how newspapers carry advertisements. Ms. Crowley says, "hmm", and begins to write this on the board. As she does, she asks Daniel to "elaborate a little bit on that". Daniel responds by talking about banner ads and paid advertisements (Dale College, field notes, Week 2).

This is an example of "co-regulated discussion" (Schuitema et al., 2017, p. 17) whereby teachers regulate content through student contributions. It helps to generate authentic questions and keep discussions open (Schuitema et al., 2017). On another occasion, a discussion took place about the reliability of media sources. The excerpt below details how the discussion was prompted and also the role played by Ms. Crowley.

Ms. Crowley has asked students to write down the "facts" Peter is calling out from a newspaper article his group has reviewed...a student calls out after the first statement, "is that, like, a fact?" ...this prompts Ms. Crowley to invite the student to ask Peter directly...Ms. Crowley also talks about different types of media...tabloid, broadsheet, online journals, like the journal.ie... (Dale College, field notes, Week 2).

This is further evidence of the use of co-regulated discussion by Ms. Crowley, in order to advance student thinking about media. The effect was to create opportunities for students to engage with each other, whilst also providing the teacher with an opportunity to make "content contributions" (Schuitema et al., 2017), in response to student contributions. As a result, learning opportunities were extended beyond the content of the text, to also include thinking about the reliability of media sources and the different types of sources

available to students. Ms. Crowley's prompts to students to elaborate on or support their contributions, further reinforces the role of the teacher in modelling a more critical orientation towards' one's partner in dialogue.

By contrast, Ms. Coughlan most frequently adopted a whole class approach, in order to generate discussion in St. Xavier's. In this setting, discussions were most often teacher-led, brief and unsustained, with students contributing little more than a sentence or two. The excerpt below offers a typical example. This particular discussion took place during a lesson on the issue of identity, specifically national or ethnic identity.

Ms. Coughlan asks the students, "do we have an identity? (short pause) ...she adds, "even in the class" ...tentatively some students offer, "we're Year 4s" ...Ms. Coughlan says, "good, anything bigger than that?" another says, "we're all girls", another, "we're all around the same age" ...Ms. Coughlan then moves on to talk about "what makes the Irish, Irish" (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

These types of interactions are described by Schuitema et al. (2017) as teacher-regulated. In this context, the focus is on content and teachers predominantly determine both the direction of the discussion and substance of the content. This strategy also relies on individual contributions, thereby foreclosing collaborative interactions that are associated with more dialogical forms of discussion (Bickmore & Parker, 2014). During these classroom exchanges in St. Xavier's, there were no opportunities for students to respond to their peers or to deliberate on what makes the Irish, Irish. Rather, the discussion was conversational and inclusive in nature (Burbules, 1993). Although this approach exposes students to the concept of multiple perspectives, discussion that remains in this realm does not support deliberation, a form of discussion that requires responding to or resolving differences. I will return to this idea shortly.

7.1.3 Discussion as debate

Two walking debates, one in St Xavier's and the other in Dale College, featured the most explicit use of discussion to generate contrasting or opposing arguments or viewpoints. In these instances, discussions were bound by a specific purpose that encouraged a more critical and divergent type of dialogue

(Burbules, 1993). For example, whilst setting up the debate in St. Xavier's, I observed Ms. Coughlan explain to students:

Ms. Coughlan points to different sides of the room, she says "over here is "Strongly Agree" with the statement, over here "Strongly Disagree", but, you can stand in the middle and you can move if you wish, as we have discussions" (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 3).

In Dale College, the walking debate related to the topic of older people, while in St. Xavier's the focus was on migration and refugees. Examples of statements that were discussed included:

Ireland should open its doors to all Syrian refugees who seek to live here; Ireland should change its system of direct provision (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 3).

Older people make better leaders; The older generation are a burden on society; public buildings,,,public services provides easy access for the elderly (Dale College, field notes, Week 3).

Both walking debates featured the most sustained student-to-student exchanges that I observed across the settings, in addition to the most prolonged exchanges of views on one topic or statement. Most often, these conversations took place between students, as they moved to their positions, but also during discussions facilitated by the teachers. On a number of occasions, I observed students responding to the views and contributions of their peers, as evidenced by the exchange between Daniel and Peter below.

Towards the end of the debate, Ms. Crowley says, "feel free please to challenge or ask questions"...Daniel responds directly to a comment Peter has made [this is in response to the statement that "older people should retire in order to make way for younger people"]...Peter says that younger people "desperately" need jobs, whereas older people have had enough time to "establish themselves"...Daniel says that even though some [older people] might have "established themselves", they still mightn't have enough money and so they need to keep working...(Dale College, field notes, Week 3).

During this exchange, both students offered their contribution quietly. It is interesting to note that Daniel's response sought to build on, yet also counter, Peter's contribution, with an opposing contribution.

Moreover, following this student-to student exchange, two more students made a contribution, while Ms. Crowley also raised the issue of the right to work. It is an example of how a divergent stance taken in a debate can encourage the expression of opposing views. However, students adopted an inclusive orientation towards their partners, choosing to add their alternate contribution, as opposed to directly challenging their classmates. Such a combination (divergent-inclusive) is more indicative of a conversation, rather than a debate and indicates student reluctance to adopt a more critical orientation towards their partners in dialogue. I will return to this point in section three.

Schuitema et al. (2017) found that walking debates can encourage increased student contributions, in addition to student responses to one another, as opposed to teachers. Ms. Crowley reported positive student responses to walking debates and in particular noted how the process prompted students to talk to peers “they never speak to in the classroom” (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview). Evidence from this study also suggests that walking debates break up feedback patterns that emerge as part of moving from small group discussion to whole class discussion, and that students were physically positioned in a way that supported more student-to-student engagement. In addition, both Ms. Crowley and Ms. Coughlan played significantly different roles when employing this strategy and in comparison to other discussions they facilitated. Schuitema et al. (2017) describe the type of teacher interventions I observed as “student-regulative”, whereby teachers regulate the process, as opposed to the content (2017, p. 7). Teachers in this instance probe students, asking them more critical questions and encouraging them to support their statements with evidence and to respond to each other or offer a contrasting view.

On one occasion, Ms. Crowley probed students on their response to the statement, “Older people are narrow-minded”. She asked, “like, what are you basing your opinion on, do you know older people that are narrow-minded?” (Dale College, field notes, Week 3). In St Xavier’s, I noted Ms. Coughlan use the following statements:

“why did you choose to stand there?”, “explain”, “respond to that girls” “I want you to have an opinion...I deliberately picked something that was going to get you going” (St. Xavier’s, field notes, Week 3).

The effect of these interventions and types of questions helped to advance discussion and increase complexity. These approaches also modelled a number of key characteristics associated with dialogue, in particular features associated with debate (Burbules, 1993). For example, the strategy highlighted how to express one's perspective, how to listen to others' perspectives and also, the need to support one's argument with evidence (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Hand & Levinson, 2012; Howe & Abedin, 2013). Of particular note, was the critical orientation emphasised and modelled by Ms. Crowley and Ms. Coughlan during the debate. This afforded the strategy a distinct and explicit purpose, compared to other types of discussion that I observed in these settings.

Schuitema et al. (2017) acknowledge that the work of guiding classroom discussions is a “very demanding and complex task for teachers” (2017, p. 2). Teachers are required to not only change their daily practices in relation to power dynamics, but also to adopt a variety of roles and manage issues that are complex and potentially divisive. Through their interventions, teachers are also modelling certain procedures that are characteristic of dialogue (Burbules, 1993) and scaffolding student learning, in terms of both content and methodology (Bloome, 2015; Fosnot, 1996; Hand & Levinson, 2012; Liu & Matthews, 2005; Parker & Hess, 2001). In the instances noted here, walking debates as a teaching strategy supported teachers to respond to these challenges, partly because the purpose of the discussion was more explicit. Alternative and opposing views were expected and encouraged. This method clearly framed the type of dialogue that took place within a more deliberative endeavour between students, with the teacher acting as an important mediator.

7.1.4 Teaching and learning *with* discussion

Evidence presented in this section indicates that in two of the three settings featured in this study, a variety of teaching strategies were employed to create spaces for discussion. Further analysis reveals that these discussions moved between different types of dialogue that require both teachers and students to move between two different orientations towards one's partner, and also to think about knowledge in either inclusive or critical ways. There is some evidence that teachers do facilitate these processes within their GCE practice, albeit the critical orientation was largely adopted and modelled by teachers, as opposed to students. Moreover, while teachers were observed modelling some of these processes and a number of

students had opportunities to practice them, they were used implicitly. Primarily, the emphasis was on the content of the discussions, rather than the process itself. Parker & Hess (2001) refer to this as *learning with* discussion and define it as a teaching or instructional strategy to support a rich engagement with a stimulus or to make a decision (Parker & Hess, 2001). Whilst it is an essential and important feature of citizenship education practices, they also contend that learning *for* discussion should be considered. They argue that this latter focus helps to reorient discussion as not only teaching strategy, but also as a learning outcome that can support richer engagement. This is of particular significance within a citizenship education context where engaging with others on issues that can be contested is viewed as an act of citizenship. In the absence of learning for discussion, students may not have opportunities to learn about the “purposes, types and procedures of discussion” (Parker & Hess, 2001, p. 274). While modelling can play a role, Parker & Hess maintain that explicit learning for discussion is also essential if skills are to be transferable. In addition, I argue that the value of learning *for* discussion is relevant to the next two sections of this chapter. These sections relate to students’ participation in classroom discussions and their interpretations of the role of multiple perspectives within that.

7.2 Student participation in discussion-based practices

Evidence from this study reveals two distinct insights into students’ participation in GCE classroom discussion. In the focus groups, students spoke very positively about discussion-based approaches, describing them as a welcome counterpoint to their predominant classroom experiences. However, in practice, I observed student participation in those discussions as hesitant and uncertain. This section explores each of these insights in turn and sets out a number of contributing factors that impeded students’ participation at the point of practice.

7.2.1 A welcome counterpoint to “normal class”

During the focus groups across all settings, it emerged that students strongly associated GCE practice with discussion. At times, they described it as “talk” or “talking”. These interpretations were accentuated by students’ further contention that this approach was outside their dominant classroom experiences. Indeed, across all settings, students understood GCE teaching and learning as a counterpoint to the norm. They described more common practices as led by note-taking, writing and listening to teachers, with very

little, if no, teacher-to-student or student-to-student interactions or discussion. Tess stated that:

...we're normally sitting down listening to them[teachers]...they have interactive white boards so the teacher types up notes and we just write them down and we read. That's normal class to me (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

Moreover, some students reported that this experience was protracted. Daniel talked about the "amount of classes, especially in the Junior Cert" (Dale College, focus group 1) where they engaged in note taking, while Peter stated that:

But like in social studies you get the opportunity to talk rather than just like a teacher talking like they did for the past three years (Dale College, focus group1).

There is a direct contrast here between Peter's experience of GCE practices and his previous three years of study. This passive and silent role that students definitively connected with their prevailing classroom experiences, is synonymous with banking approaches to education (Freire & Ramos, 1996). It confirms the constraining and hierarchical nature of the formal education system, and the dominance of structured pedagogy and didactic approaches (Ball, 2008; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Gleeson, 2012; Vieluf et al., 2012). In addition, it demonstrates the impact on students and the marked contrast that arises for them when GCE approaches convergence at the point of practice, with formal education contexts.

This context is significant as it suggests that learning through discussion was not a familiar experience for students. It is highlighted in order to, firstly, illustrate the extent to which both teachers and students are expected to break outside the norm, by practising discussion in the GCE classroom. Secondly, it indicates that, in offering an alternative to the status quo, GCE practices within formal education have the potential to act as a disruptive force (Gaynor, 2013). This echoes Waldron & Oberman's (2016) argument, in the context of human rights education, that pedagogy that runs counter to dominant practices can be transformative. GCE practices that include an emphasis on discussion in formal education settings, offers the potential to do this. The following section explores the importance that students place on opportunities to contribute their own ideas and on the act of being listened to. This

illuminates how GCE practice can challenge accepted hierarchies where students listen and teachers speak. First however, the section explores a number of challenges identified by students, when the opportunity to step into this alternative space emerges.

7.2.2 Impediments to engagement

Despite the positive associations that students expressed in the focus groups, in practice I observed student demeanour and tone during classroom discussions as largely hesitant, quiet, qualified and at times, indecipherable. In St. Xavier's I noted:

Kelly begins to talk about being careful as to whom to let in. It's hard to hear exactly what she is saying as she is somewhat reluctant to voice her opinion... (St Xavier's, field notes, Week 4).

As the girls speak, it is quite quiet and muffled...they almost speak under their breath...one student hesitates, there are a few well-meaning giggles. A range of girls are contributing a small piece of information in a quiet tone (St. Xavier's, field notes, Week 2).

Both excerpts suggest a lack of confidence amongst students and a degree of discomfort or unfamiliarity with the process. Kelly's reluctance indicated an awareness on her part, that certain topics may be sensitive or controversial, whereas other students appeared embarrassed and uncomfortable with the approach, regardless of the content. There are several factors that impact on student participation in GCE practices, many of which have already been explored in Chapter Six. The remainder of this section explores other aspects that are connected to subject and social confidence, in addition to the affective nature of discussion as a form of engagement with peers.

7.2.2.1 Subject confidence

In the excerpt below, Daniel raised the issue of students' knowledge base. He suggested that if "you already know a lot" this generates greater confidence to engage. He stated that:

Just depends on the topic. Like if it was a topic you didn't know that much about then you might feel like "oh no, I'll just listen to what other people have to say" and then make my own picture of it. But if it was something you already know a lot about and you have very strong feelings for it you

might be confident enough to say “no, I don’t think that’s the way that is, I think it’s this way instead” (Dale College, focus group 1).

Daniel acknowledged that he may not feel ready to participate, if he is unfamiliar with a topic. His contribution underlines the importance of considering subject confidence and preparation, when using discussion as a means of learning (Bickmore, 2014; Bloome, 2015). For Daniel, this confidence came from two sources, a high level of knowledge and a passion for the topic. This presents a dilemma for GCE practice that is primarily premised on learning with discussion. It indicates a tension between the confidence students derive from certain levels of prior knowledge, and the premise that knowledge is acquired through discussion. It also raises questions as to how much knowledge is necessary prior to engaging in discussion, and the potential limits of what can be learned using discussion-based strategies.

Hand & Levinson (2011) maintain that “some prior knowledge of relevant facts and theories were a prerequisite of fruitful discussion” (2011, p. 621). Yet, given the status of GCE in formal education in Ireland, many students may be operating from a low knowledge base. For example, student interactions with GCE-related issues have been described as patchy (Bryan & Bracken, 2011). In St. Xavier’s, Ms. Coughlan chose to dedicate some time in her module to in-class student research, while in St. Theresa’s, Ms. Morton’s students reported learning about their topics outside of classroom time. The matter of student subject confidence demonstrates a need for a balance between discussion as a teaching strategy within GCE practices and other approaches such as structured activities, student research and direct instruction. It is also a challenge to Freire’s interpretation of dialogue that is rooted in student experiences (Bartlett, 2005). I will return to this point shortly. For now, the matters raised by Daniel support Ms. Coughlan’s contention, explored in Chapter Five, that some foundational work is required, prior to certain discussions taking place.

7.2.2.2 Social confidence

GCE practices as a form of social learning emerged from students’ interpretations of discussion. Hauver et al. (2016) state that civic learning is concerned with both “cognitive and social sophistication” (2016, p. 20). This study contends that students were alert to that process. The social dynamic was largely expressed through students’ descriptions of their interactions with peers and their teachers, and a keen

awareness of the social context and wider school environment in which these exchanges were taking place. It highlights a tension for students, who, in theory, welcomed the space to discuss issues, yet in practice, were cautious and reluctant.

In the focus groups, students identified a number of risks associated with classroom discussion. There was consensus across the settings that dialogical interactions with a friend, were conceivable. However, such discussions with students they did not know, were not. This was largely due to the potential to cause offence, as expressed by Sinead below.

Because like if it's not someone you're that close with you might not know how sensitive they are about the subject and if you're crossing a line with them...Whereas if it's your friend you might know like how close that subject is to them (St. Xavier's, focus group 1).

Hauver et al. (2016) confirm the prevalence of this sentiment across other studies that explored students' attitudes towards deliberative dialogue in the classroom. Their study found that trust was associated with friendship pairings and that, where students engage in discussion with friends, cognitive learning is enhanced. However, they make the case that within civic learning, students should also be encouraged to learn within "political friendship" (Allen, 2004, cited in Hauver et al., 2016, p. 20) as this contributes to social learning, mutuality and potentially a better understanding of self (Hauver et al., 2016)

Bartlett (2005) also debates the idea of friendships strategies, arguing that they can serve as a misappropriation of Freire's concept of reciprocity. Moreover, she contends that such strategies are not enough in order to move towards a Freirean form of dialogue. Trust, rather than friendship, is essential (Hauver et al., 2016). What underpins Sinead's contribution above is the need to feel secure, in order to engage in discussion. This may also explain students' stated preference for small group discussions, as opposed to whole class discussion. Below, Rachel expresses a degree of exposure in the context of whole class discussion, that prevents her from participating.

I don't mind like this talking with a few people that I know but like the whole big class I wouldn't talk at all (Dale College, focus group 1).

These reflections highlight the need for students to learn to respect and trust each other when engaging in classroom discussions and of the unspoken dynamics that can operate above and beyond the intended site of learning (Bloome, 2015). Moreover, it supports the need for more explicit *learning for* discussion (Parker & Hess, 2011), in order to address these unspoken dynamics.

This section has highlighted a number of factors that impede students' participation in GCE discussions. They relate to their levels of cognitive and social confidence, particularly in the context of their wider school environment. Together, these confirm previous limitations associated with critical pedagogy, that relate specifically to its rational premise and failure to consider the social and emotional contexts in which critical pedagogy is implemented (Apple, 2000; Fernández-Balboa, 1998; Morgan, 2000). The next section explores the affective nature of engagement.

7.2.2.3 The affective dimension of engagement

The affective dimension of classroom participation featured significantly in student focus groups. A wide range of emotions and feelings were associated with speaking out, interacting and discussion, that ranged from embarrassment to the positive feeling of being heard. This further confirms that emotions play an important role in either hindering or supporting student participation in classroom discussions (hooks, 1994). This section sets out a number of the emotions and feelings students associated with the approach. It also critically examines the extent to which students negotiated these, or benefited from the support of their peers or teachers to overcome more negative associations. Finally, it questions the extent to which contextual factors present more entrenched impediments that make it difficult to overcome certain feelings.

The risk of causing offence and a fear of being judged or embarrassed emerged as justifications for why students may or may not feel more comfortable engaging with their peers. Some students suggested that these risks are less likely to occur in GCE class, based on a perception that there are no “wrong” answers in GCE. For example, Isobel stated:

It's easier for people to get involved I think because they know what they say, they won't be judged for it because it won't be wrong. People are sometimes embarrassed to say something because it might be seen as wrong or whatever, it's the wrong answer but like in ...that class it wasn't like

you're wrong or right (St. Xavier's, focus group 1).

For others, the very act of engagement itself seemed problematic and related to feelings of self-consciousness and in the instance below, a wariness of being seen as the student to engage with teachers.

Rachel: I'd be worried about what people think

I: Why would you be worried Rachel about what people think?

Rachel: I don't know, just something like self-conscious and stuff if you're talking one on one to the teacher or something like everyone listening (Dale College, focus group 1).

It is interesting to note however, that Rachel acknowledged a short time later that she herself does not judge other students and has perhaps realised through GCE practice, that it is possible to express ideas without fear of being judged.

It's kind of weird like; if someone else was saying something I wouldn't think about it but as soon as I'd say something I'd be thinking that everyone was thinking about it and stuff. So you kind of get over that fear because you're learning that now, everyone is saying their opinion and it doesn't really matter (Dale College, focus group 1).

This change in perspective comes as Rachel understands the practice as more commonplace than unusual, and acceptable on the proviso that "everyone" is engaged.

Finally, Sasha and Sive shared their thoughts on the risk of causing offence as a further emotional dilemma related to classroom discussion and engagement. Again, opinion and perceived personal connections play an influential role. Sive's observation clearly assesses the risk against the value and purpose of exchanging views, and determines that sometimes the risk outweighs the value of participation.

I also think that if you say it like, even though it's your opinion some people might take offence to it...Like, even though they might disagree, they might take it personally even though it's not exactly; not that it's not personal but... (Sasha, St. Xavier's, focus group 2).

It's about thinking, it's like well this is going to upset anyone, is there any point in me saying it, is it going to make a difference even? Like I know you're entitled to your opinion but if you say something that might like; I don't know how to explain it, but it might upset someone else. So maybe we should keep this one to ourselves, it's not going to make a difference anyway (Sive, St. Xavier's, focus group 2).

If students sensed that their contributions were sought and valued, then this supported and encouraged their participation. Again, within this, teachers featured significantly.

I usually don't in other classes but in social studies because I know that my opinion will be taken seriously, I feel a lot more comfortable sharing it (Anne, Dale College, focus group 2).

Moreover, trust and the idea of gaining trust, played significant roles. A number of observations of teachers interacting with students revealed some insight into this feeling of being listened to and of their ideas and opinions being valued. They depicted instances of teachers inviting student contributions, of them listening intently to what students were saying and offering those students who did contribute positive and encouraging feedback.

The affective nature of GCE practice that is explored here extends what we already understand as the emotional dimension of the field. While it is acknowledged that students' emotional responses to the content of GCE has already been well documented (Bryan, 2012; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Tallon & McGregor, 2014; Tallon, 2012), for the young people who took part in this study, GCE is a form of social learning as much as it is a form of cognitive or content learning (Hauver et al., 2016). References to feelings and emotions such as trust, confidence and fear of being judged in relation to GCE processes and methodologies, indicate layers of complexity that extend our understanding of the GCE classroom beyond the mere exchange of ideas and opinions or emotional responses to content. These contributions point to the GCE classroom as not only an academic and affective space, but also as a social space replete with norms that are shaped by the context of the participating young people, including their stage of development, self-awareness and awareness of others (Hauver et al., 2017; Morgan, 2000). Established social and cultural norms underpin many of these, not least power structures that may operate in the wider

formal educational context and between students and teachers themselves (Deacon, 2006; hooks, 1994; Manke, 1997).

Although these same rules could apply across different classroom contexts, they have particular reverberations for the GCE classroom, given the centrality of active participation to the pillars of its practice. The notion that global issues can be explored and understood through discussion may be built on a false or unrealistic premise if, the depth of discussion is currently affected by unspoken dynamics that hinder engagement. While there is some evidence to suggest that GCE practices can help to break these down and contribute to students' social learning, the risks that students highlight, in addition to the classroom observations, raise questions related to young people's preparedness to embrace GCE as a social space in the context of formal education.

7.3 The role of multiple perspectives in GCE discussions

Multiple perspectives are a significant feature of GCE practices (Andreotti & Souza, 2008; Bickmore & Parker, 2014; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Schuitema et al., 2017). The ability to understand one's viewpoint as one of many is a key attribute of citizenship and a rudimentary characteristic within many concepts of dialogue (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007; Burbules, 1993). This section draws on findings from student focus groups to critically examine students' interpretations of the role of multiple perspectives within GCE practices and a number of limitations therein.

Students spoke at length about the idea and role of "opinion" within discussion that resonates with some aspects of the literature on multiple perspectives. Many spoke with simplicity and clarity about the simple act of expressing an opinion and of it being accepted for that. Moreover, students were aware of their role as listener, and spoke clearly about the importance of listening to and respecting other students' opinions (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Schuitema et al., 2017). Isobel's account below represents what many expressed.

You have to be open-minded about everything, like to see everyone's side of it and not just be like, "oh no, this is it, this is what I read or heard on the news like". You have to be willing to listen to everyone and take their opinions on board (St. Xavier's, focus group 1).

The level of respect and consideration for others' opinions that Isobel demonstrates, is important. The idea of being open to multiple ways of knowing and experiencing the world provides the basis for particular forms of dialogue (Blackmore, 2016; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Freire & Ramos, 1996). It is a rudimentary form of discussion and is classified as inclusive (Burbules, 1993) and conversational (Bickmore & Parker, 2014). Burbules (1993) asserts that this orientation towards one partner in discussion requires:

granting at least a provisional plausibility to what one's partner is saying, simply by the virtue of the fact that the partner asserts it...The initial task of the partner in dialogue...is to understand what has led the other person to his or her position; what beliefs, feelings or experiences underlie the position and give it veracity (1993, p. 111).

The level of respect conferred by Isobel on other students' opinions, carried through much of students' related discourse and is crucial as a basis for developing trust between participants (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007). However, this section also examines the limitations of this perspective, if discussions remain at this level. Bartlett (2005) maintains that while it is necessary to care about what others have to say, alone it is insufficient for more critical forms of dialogue. I will return to this point shortly.

Other students identified discussion as a means of highlighting different and multiple perspectives that extended their own world views. In turn, this helped to move discussion beyond a listening exercise. Students attributed a number of potential outcomes connected to this. For some, engaging in discussion helped to develop a greater understanding of other peoples' feelings and beliefs, whilst for others, it added to their own ideas or views.

...you hear everyone's ideas and then you; like what you started off as, like your idea ...can be the same but a lot like wider. You'd have more reasons to why you think that (Roisin, St. Xavier's, focus group 1).

It's good in a way because we get to learn about other people's opinions bar our own so we get to hear like what they think of; you might still stay with your opinion but it's good to know what other

people are feeling (Peter, Dale College, focus group 1).

For both Peter and Roisín, discussion contributed to building stronger foundations for their own perspective. In addition, other students spoke about how the practice contributed to changing their opinion. They recounted how opportunities to listen to and hear other ideas on a topic, could result in their own opinions evolving or changing. Below, Ciara described the experience of sharing the classroom with a diverse range of student perspectives and backgrounds, in this case, the experience of students of African heritage. She stated:

I think just like from working in groups and all you learn a lot about the other people, their nationality because they have like their opinions. They're like "oh well", we were talking about something, it was something got to do with Africa or something and it was like they only show the bad side of Africa and they don't show the good (St. Theresa's College, focus group).

The value of this perspective, coming as it did from direct experience, highlights the importance of a diversity of views, in order to enrich discussion and for learning to take place (Bickmore, 2016). Brookfield & Preskill (1999) suggest it is a way for students to "serve as critical mirrors for each other, reflecting the assumptions they see in each other's positions" (Brookfield & Preskill, 1999, p. 20, cited in Hand & Levinson, 2011, p. 617).

By contrast, a smaller number of students identified limitations within their own, and their peers' knowledge and perspectives, particularly in relation to what informed them. In the excerpt that follows, Sive acknowledged limited influences on the formation of some of her perspectives, understanding them as heavily informed by family views.

I don't know, because you hear your family saying...I don't know. It's like they just teach you like your whole life, you're learning from them so you just, that's what you think...Like you haven't heard any other sides (St. Xavier's, focus group 2).

Sive's reflection confirmed that engaging in discussions about global issues can bring to the fore an awareness of one's own ideas and the latent influences that lie behind them (Burbules, 2000). In addition,

it can serve to highlight gaps in one's knowledge (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007; Davies, 2006). Following on, Beth highlighted some of the challenges of limited perspectives, particularly when exploring issues students feel removed from:

If you don't know them personally, like no one understands. We're all just taking different facts and, we don't really know the truth. If we were talking about something that's in Ireland we could elaborate on it more because we actually know stuff but it's just you don't know what's actually happening (St. Xavier's, focus group 2).

Beth expressed a concern about a lack of any personal connection to the issues that were explored in the GCE classroom, in addition to wider contextual knowledge. This highlights that students can find themselves discussing issues in the GCE classroom of which they have no direct experience.

Beth's experience pointed to a number of tensions for the translation of GCE theory into practice. Firstly, it illustrated that students can operate in a knowledge vacuum at times, and still be expected to explore an issue through discussion. As already discussed, this is particularly relevant for GCE whereby students' prior knowledge can be limited, due to the narrow windows of opportunity for GCE within formal education contexts (Bryan & Bracken, 2011). Secondly, Beth raised questions for GCE teaching and learning related to how students can access multiple and varied perspectives, if they are not present in their own spaces. It is of note that students in St Xavier's lacked the cultural diversity of St. Theresa's College. Moreover, a paucity of diverse experiences presents a particular challenge for GCE practices premised on Freirean interpretations that suggest student experience is a major source of knowledge in which learning and dialogue is rooted (Bartlett, 2005). Evidence from this study raises questions as to how such theories can be translated into contexts where student experiences of social justice issues may be limited, or challenging to reveal.

7.3.1 Opinion-as-personal

Amongst students' understandings of the role of multiple perspectives within GCE practices, there was also evidence of a more problematic interpretation that largely associated opinion as deeply personal and never "wrong". Students described this idea of opinion-as-personal in positive terms, as it afforded the

perspective a validity, regardless of its persuasion. Moreover, they attributed it to a sense of freedom for students, whom otherwise seemed constrained by a dominant and false dichotomy of right or wrong answers. In the excerpt below, Anne described how this openness created space for students to contribute, without worrying about classroom norms such as subject content and a corresponding perception of a “definite” answer.

I like that in social studies you can feel free to share your opinion because no opinion is really wrong in that class; like everybody is entitled to their opinion in the class whereas if you go into like a Maths or History class there’s a definite answer whereas in social studies there are many different answers and each person can have their own answer (Dale College, focus group 2).

There are several notable aspects arising from this excerpt. Firstly, Anne placed her social studies module in opposition to other subject areas, that she perceived as being determined by “definite” answers. This reflection serves as a reminder of the wider formal education context and provides an insight into how more established subject disciplines are practised (Gleeson, 2012). Secondly, it confirms GCE practice as divergent within this space, given its association as a more open-ended subject. On one hand, this has enabled Anne to appreciate the inclusive nature of discussion, that helps us to understand that there are multiple ways of understanding an issue, rather than necessarily a right answer (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Bourn, 2015; Brown, 2010; Davies, 2006; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Hand & Levinson, 2012).

On the other hand, Anne’s suggestion that “each person can have their own answer”, individualises the process which in turns dilutes more collaborative dimensions of dialogue (Burbules, 1993). Subsequently, if discussion remains at a level where each one has their own opinion, the need for debate, argument and synthesis is removed. Furthermore, Anne’s contribution above, highlights a potential risk of associating opinions as personal, and a subsequent contention that opinions cannot be wrong. This binary way of understanding ideas and opinions as either right or wrong was expressed by several students, and is problematic for GCE practice. Whilst the desire on the one hand is to create an open space for issues to be expressed and explored, practices that are overly opened-ended may risk leaving some opinions unchallenged, while at the same time weakening core principles that underpin GCE such as equality, human

rights and justice. If the role of discussion within GCE practice remains at the level of sharing opinions, or indeed at the level of right or wrong, the risk is that there will be little progression in thinking or understanding (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007; Brown, 2010; Lipman, 2002). Moreover, such practices fall short of dialogical forms of discussion which require provocation and negotiation, in order to create new understandings that reveal issues of power and inequality (Andreotti & Warwick, 2007; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Lipman, 2002).

The idea of opinion as personal, and of affording it absolute validity, raises questions regarding the role and value of multiple perspectives within GCE teaching and learning. This is particularly the case if it remains at the level of sharing multiple outlooks, without any recourse to further interrogation or argument. It raises questions related to the place of personal views when making an argument, and the perceived legitimacy of these. Many students regarded all perspectives as legitimate, if they are personal. However, Hand & Levinson (2012) state that they can serve as an impediment to dialogue, as they can shut down deeper discussion because students may “construe any further attack on the opinion in question as an attack on their identity” (2012, p. 625). Certain elements of this were found amongst the study’s participants. Even Ms. Crowley stated that she had to accept some “very strong opinions, very negative opinions” and questioned her “right to change them” (Ms. Crowley, Dale College, interview). However, Bartlett (2005) maintains that “teachers [should] remember to depart from students’ knowledge, rather than thinking that they need to accept it uncritically” (2005, p. 358). Although Ms. Crowley may be justified in not wanting to “change” opinions, this does not foreclose the option to engage with it or to respond (Bartlett, 2005). However, Bryan & Bracken (2011) highlight the great skill required on the part of teachers to turn such moments into springboards for discussion. Such dilemmas further highlight the complexity of GCE practices, the controversial nature of the subject area and, the possible risks that can arise if multiple perspectives dominate GCE discussion and dialogue.

7.3.2 The veracity of opinion

Fundamentally, most students confirmed Hand & Levinson’s (2012) contention that to question or challenge an opinion, was to question or challenge the person who was expressing it. Subsequently, students seemed unlikely to find it acceptable to debate it. However, the study also identified a number of

students who countered that viewpoint. In the excerpt below, Anne talked about the potential to balance the personal nature of an opinion, with the possibility of engaging with that opinion. She reinforced the idea of entitlement to opinion, yet also saw space to engage in argument, whilst maintaining respect for the person.

I feel like you shouldn't be; you should try not to disrespect their opinion because it is their opinion, and everybody is entitled to have their own opinion. So, I feel that you can still argue it as long as you don't sit there and tell them that they're just flat out wrong (Dale College, focus group 2).

In this instance, respect was established as a basis for engagement that could be expressed through modes of discussion. In other words, Anne focussed on how to relate to the person, outside of the opinion. As a result, she disassociated the argument from the person. Emerson et al. (2012) advocate the use of structural frameworks to explore controversial issues. They maintain that issues discussed through a framework such as human rights or social responsibility, can help to position discussions away from personal perspectives and, in so doing, alleviate a sense of exposure students might feel to share personal views (Emerson et al., 2012). This extends findings in Chapter Five related to the importance of conceptual frames to create stronger foundations for GCE practice, in which discussions can be rooted and ideas analysed.

Other students went beyond this however and tackled the notion of granting validity to all opinions. This is reflected in the exchange between Steven and Siobhán below. Their consideration made distinctions between opinion, the person and the information informing both.

Siobhán: Not everyone will have the right opinion.

I: So there is a right and a wrong opinion is there?

Siobhán: Not a right and a wrong opinion but someone's opinion can be a bit corrupt sometimes.

I: What do you mean by corrupt Siobhán?

Siobhán: It could be very biased; it could be a bit racist; it could be anything.

Steven: Your opinion could come from the information you have but your information could be wrong.

Siobhán: Exactly.....But they're not wrong to the person so you have to be very careful how you approach that (Dale College, focus group 2).

These deliberations stood in contrast to the standard view expressed by students, but are significant nonetheless. They indicate an understanding and acknowledgement that opinions are shaped by multiple sources and experiences. In addition, they highlight students' capacity to engage with ideas whilst at the same time, separating the person from the idea, and seeking to avoid judgement. Furthermore, Siobhán moved away from more benign interpretations of opinion as those expressed by her peers, and associated some opinions with corruption and racism. This is a powerful reflection and raises important questions about the perceived open-ended nature of GCE, its diffuse conceptual framing and a failure to acknowledge more problematic aspects of discussion and dialogue that might arise in GCE practice. It also highlights the importance of not only creating spaces to share and respond to ideas, but to also interrogate the origins of ideas and assert the concepts and values that underpin GCE, such as equality, rights and empathy.

Although most students spoke with simplicity and clarity about the role of opinion in GCE teaching and learning, others clearly grappled with the contrasting views they heard expressed. Of particular note was the topic of refugees which was discussed in both Ms. Coughlan and Ms. Crowley's class. It was acknowledged by students as a topic about which a variety of diverse views were held, some of which were expressed in class. Among the related areas students and teachers discussed were the number of migrants arriving in Ireland, Ireland's role and responsibility *vis-à-vis* hosting migrants and refugees, and the challenges Ireland might face in hosting them. Student dilemmas were informed by a tension between some awareness of social justice issues that Ireland was experiencing at that time, such as homelessness and Ireland's capacity to host refugees, but also humanitarian ideals related to people's suffering. These are reflected in the exchange below.

I: Ok, can you remember that discussion, the debate or what you thought yourself or how you felt during it?

Sive: I think you should take them [Syrian refugees] in because like they're suffering a lot more...they had to leave their home and that's like awful and I know homeless people (Inaudible). But, like, people died and stuff and like it must be really hard and they've no food. And, I don't know, I just think it's hard for them, like really hard for them.

I: Yeah ok Sive.

Beth: I don't know if we should take them in because we mightn't be able to provide for them because we aren't able to provide for homeless people and we think they're much worse off whereas (Inaudible) ...we don't know how the homeless feel in Ireland so we don't know if we should take them in (Inaudible) because can't give them anything.

I: Ok. Sasha?

Sasha: I thought like when we were having the debate that everyone had the two sides and it was just hard to see which one we should help more than the other like. It was a tough decision (St. Xavier's, focus group 2).

Burbules (1993) suggests that these experiences are an important aspect of successful discussion. Not only do such dilemmas help to assert the exploratory nature of more dialogical forms of discussion, these moments serve to highlight the challenge of resolving complex matters, or indeed to illustrate that some issues are not resolvable. It is important to note however that although these deliberations did arise in the focus group, I did not observe such explorations in practice.

Lucy's dilemma below was the most complex expressed. Her reflection is evidence of an openness to listening to varying perspectives with a view to synthesising ideas, in order to reach a new understanding (Bartlett, 2005). However, the excerpt also makes clear that she did not accept all ideas as equal or indeed, valid.

I don't know, it was like because I know I was on the side of letting everyone in but then like when some of the other girls started talking like it did make more sense; I kind of accept everyone until they do something wrong but like they made good points and it was just really difficult. You accept

other people have opinions but you're also like, no you're wrong. That's not what you should think. Like I know that, I don't know how to say it but...It was just a really hard thing to talk about because you were like, some people were like, I don't know, some people had really good voice but then some were kind of like, I don't know, I'd call it a little bit of racism, but I don't know (St. Xavier's, focus group 2).

As with Steven and Siobhán, Lucy unravelled the idea of the GCE classroom as a space where there is no right or wrong. Indeed, her reference to the idea of “good voice” challenges the concept of voice as universally benign. Though more cautious than Siobhán in naming racism, her interrogation highlighted some harmful dimensions to some of the perspectives that arose within the context of GCE. Together, these reflections suggest a deeper understanding of the more challenging and unsettling aspects of opinion sharing that again, were underdeveloped in the GCE practices I observed. Whilst invariably, time constraints afforded little space for reflection in class, the absence of these types of classroom dialogue, further highlight gaps in GCE practice related to learning for discussion and the use of discussion to surface more troubling and complex dynamics.

In conclusion, students principally viewed discussion-based approaches as a space for opinion sharing, as opposed to opinion shaping or deepening. The concept of meaningful dialogue whereby one engages with another and that ideas are provoked and unravelled by another did not really feature for students. Indeed, some may feel somewhat uncomfortable with that concept. While some see how questioning and challenging what others may say, can act as a moment of learning, for most students, it was valuable and sufficient to express opinions. Nonetheless, in those instances where a smaller number of students challenged the idea of the equivalency of opinion and highlighted the potential for racist ideas to emerge, the GCE classroom becomes a potentially powerful place where ideas could be debated in greater depth. However, the complexity of the processes that are required, coupled with the evidence presented throughout this chapter, suggest considerable gaps remain in translating this to practice.

Conclusion

Findings presented in this chapter confirm the central role of discussion within GCE classroom

practices. Teachers adopted several strategies in order to create spaces for discussion to take place. For many students, their experiences of GCE practices through discussion represented the most transformative aspect of GCE. Yet, my observations found that most of the discussions that did take place at the point of practice, could not be classified as transformative dialogue (Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994; Lipman, 2002). If discussion is intended as a dominant means through which students learn within GCE practice, questions arise from this study as to what can or could be learned through this strategy and also how students and teachers can be better supported in order to move towards deeper learning. This study contends that the types of discussions that students engaged in, in addition to the purposes that underpinned them, stagnated learning and rarely moved students beyond opportunities to share their own or recognise others' perspectives. The findings also call into question assumptions underpinning GCE theory and policy that establish discussion and dialogue as fundamental to learning, yet fail to recognise students' preparedness to engage, and the impact of their wider context therein.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

Introduction

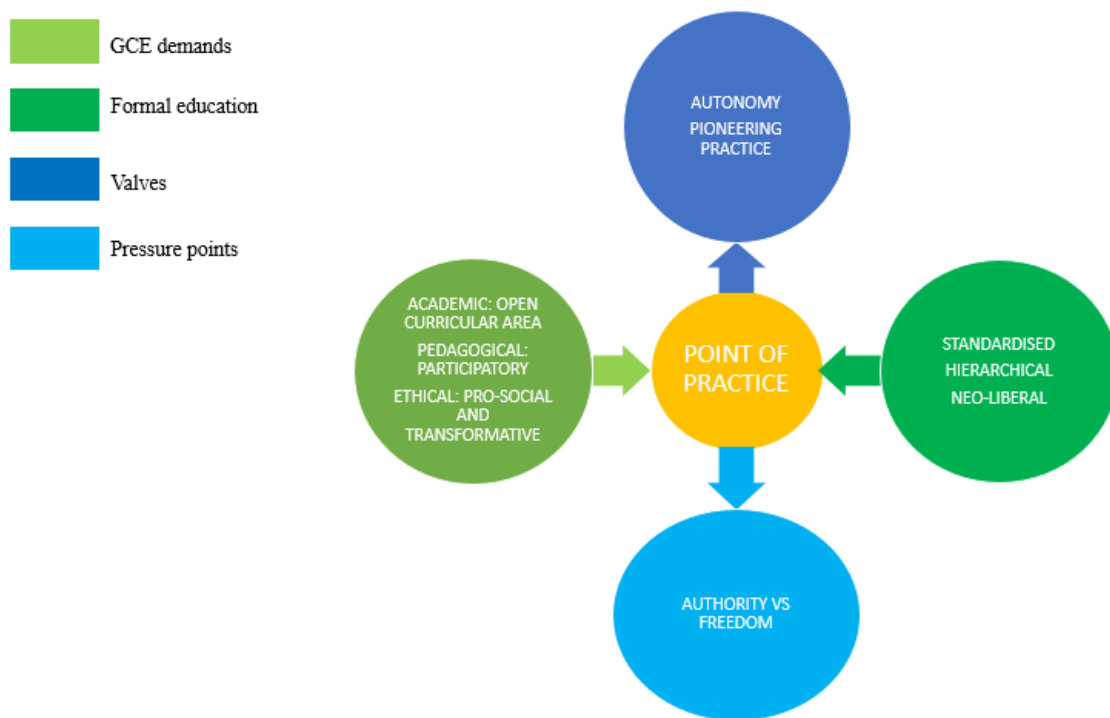
This study sought to understand how GCE is practised in formal education classrooms. Here, I bring together major findings in order to highlight key characteristics of GCE teaching and learning, and subsequent opportunities, challenges and tensions that arise. Central to this exploration are teachers' and students' perspectives and experiences. The three settings in this study, in addition to the ring-fenced nature of GCE in each, offer a unique opportunity to critically examine how GCE is presented and received in the situated context of classrooms. This provides an in-depth insight into GCE at the point of practice, whilst also signposting key areas for consideration. These considerations have to balance a focus on teachers and students directly, but also the wider environment in which GCE teaching and learning takes place. This is important as to not consider this wider context risks overplaying the capacity of individual teachers to affect change, whilst at the same time diminishing the influence of cultural and structural factors on classroom practice. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first considers the intersection of formal education contexts and GCE demands on teacher professionalism. It explores the different implications of this crossover, both in terms of possibility and challenge. Following on, the second section explores students' position in, and experiences of, GCE teaching and learning. Finally, I focus on GCE's current position within formal education and consider how this system could contribute to its development and enhancement, and in particular if GCE should move towards a subject discipline.

8.1 Negotiating the intersection of GCE and formal education in the classroom

Previously, Willemse et al. (2015) established that citizenship education places demands on teacher professionalism that extend beyond established practices and narrower interpretations of teachers' duties and responsibilities. In particular, these demands relate to teachers' academic, pedagogical and ethical competencies (Willemse et al., 2015). Findings in this study demonstrate that the classroom is the site where theory meets context and these demands intersect with formal education in ways that can enhance teachers' professionalism, yet also place significant demands on it. Figure 4 brings together Willemse et

al.'s demands and the wider educational context explored in the literature to illustrate the particular experiences identified and analysed in this study that this intersection creates for GCE classroom practice.

Figure 4 *The intersection of GCE demands and formal education contexts*



On one hand, the intersection acts a valve that opens up possibilities for experimentation and particular types of pioneering practice. On the other, it creates pressure points for teachers who seek to practice GCE within a system that oftentimes operates in opposition to its principles and pedagogy. This section considers the possibilities and tensions that confront teachers as they choose to translate GCE into classroom practice. It explores the implications of this for teachers, for GCE teaching and learning and for those who seek to support the development of GCE in formal education.

8.1.1 Autonomy and pioneering practice

Participating teachers associated their GCE practice with a higher level of curricular and pedagogical autonomy which contrasts with prevailing formal education standards (Ball, 2008; Gleeson & Donnabháin, 2009). Evidence from this study shows that such freedom can act as a valve for teachers to generate pioneering practice. Building GCE curricula requires charting new ground that opens up space to

experiment and to create new opportunities for learning about important global justice issues. The valve pushes teachers to consider and select topics not only related to current affairs and ongoing global challenges, but also to identify issues that students may not normally encounter. For example, in this study, students had opportunities to explore the issue of direct provision in Ireland, the lives and conditions of older people, and the conflicts in Yemen and Israel and Palestine (Tables 3 and 5). This autonomous space also provides opportunities for teachers to lean on and adapt their academic expertise from other subject areas and different types of knowledge that they feel passionate about.

Against a backdrop where no formal teaching qualifications exists for GCE teachers in Ireland (Liddy & Tormey, 2013), academic expertise emerged as a particular demand for GCE teachers given the open nature of the field and the lack of any prescribed guidelines. As a result, one of teachers' first professional demands is the need to build up levels of knowledge about complex global justice issues that stretch beyond the confines of the established curriculum. This can create valuable, albeit self-directed, professional development opportunities for teachers. While previous studies indicate that textbooks and NGDO-related materials play a significant role in this regard (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007), findings from the present study indicate that teachers draw on several reference points and use a number of strategies in order to design and build new GCE curricula. These include: previous academic studies and frameworks drawn from national programmes, subject identities and personal interests and experiences. Teachers also carry out independent research that is significantly influenced by online sources and social media.

The study illustrated a broad and up-to-date range of knowledge and subject matter that teachers drew on, such as migration, politics and development. In addition, it demonstrated that teachers can access diverse and appropriate materials for use within GCE practices with considerable ease, using elements of these materials, as opposed to using any one source or stimulus in its entirety. It is of note that media and original materials drawn from online sources dominated the teaching materials, as opposed to textbooks and resources. This selective approach to GCE teaching materials, coupled with the widely available nature of materials online, raises questions for those involved in the funding and development of GCE resources for use in the classroom. It suggests that there is a need to understand in more detail how different cohorts of teachers use the materials that are currently available and also to consider alternative supports for those

teachers who are confident in selecting appropriate material. GCE providers and funders need to consider how these teachers can be supported differently. Particular areas identified in this study include curriculum design, student progression and the use of participatory pedagogies. I will return to this point in the next chapter.

GCE pioneering practice also applies to teachers' pedagogical expertise. The present research has illustrated how GCE practices can encourage teachers to move beyond didactic approaches and experiment with teaching strategies. Priestley et al.'s (2015) treatment of teacher agency is relevant within this context, whereby the extent to which the capacity of teachers to implement their agency is dependent not only on their own personal and professional biographies, but also the structures and cultures that surround them. This study confirmed that supportive and enabling environments can support a certain level of experimentation and risk-taking that enhances teachers own practice, and in turn, students' experiences of GCE and democratic practices. This also confirms previous assertions that school leadership can help to bolster those spaces created by teachers and increase opportunities for practices more closely aligned to the democratic values of GCE (Doggett et al., 2016; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016; McSharry & Cusack, 2016). Furthermore, it is an indication of the need for schools to support teachers who are responding to the professional demands of GCE practice, in order to amplify their efforts.

Beyond the potential for GCE to support teachers' self-directed professional development, it is essential that the education system moves to recognise the additional time and commitment required on the part of teachers to build up this level of knowledge and expertise. Currently, the low status of GCE in schools and at a policy level, suggests that much of this work goes unrecognised. This has implications for the sustainability and integration of GCE more widely across school curricula. Whilst the teachers in this study demonstrated an ongoing commitment to their expertise in GCE, the lack of formal accreditation or recognition for such efforts, risks frustrating those already committed and raises serious questions about the extent to which such efforts can be sustained. This in turn risks undermining the progress made in some schools by individual teachers and exacerbates the vulnerable nature of GCE's status in schools. In addition, it threatens plans to develop whole school approaches to GCE and the potential to attract other teachers to the field. Currently, beyond the importance and value of personal and professional interest and

motivation, there is little incentive for teachers to take on these additional demands. This could apply particularly to newly qualified teachers and those less established in the system.

The nature and extent of teacher power and autonomy within education and the classroom is debated (Bizzell, 1991; Devine, 2003; Freire & Ramos, 1996; hooks, 1994; Manke, 1997). On one hand, they are portrayed as powerful cultural brokers in education who can determine how education theory and curriculum are ultimately realised, or not, in the classroom (Apple, 2004; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Giroux, 1988). On the other, wider contextual factors are deemed to overly constrain and determine what happens in classrooms (Ball, 2008; Deacon, 2006; Mannion et al., 2011). This present study indicates that significant degrees of curricular and classroom autonomy are available to teachers who choose to implement GCE in their schools. It is a particular type of power that can give rise to opportunities for pioneering practice and this study illustrates how teachers can respond to many aspects of this with enthusiasm and confidence. However, it must be noted that such spaces also place an unfair and inappropriate high burden on individual teachers and their capacities to drive change and innovation in teaching and learning (Priestley et al., 2015). This has been a tension in this study – to recognise the importance and value of individual teachers, their passions, expertise and commitment, whilst at the same time ensuring that the responsibility for more critical forms of GCE does not rest on their individual shoulders (Bental, 2020). The next section sets out some aspects of GCE practice that prove more challenging to negotiate in the classroom and indicated significant complexity that deserves consideration. This contribution gives insight into problematic aspects of participatory pedagogies that overly rely on teacher agency, particularly when implementing practices that are associated with challenging established cultural and structural norms and approaches in schools. Specifically, it highlights significant transitions that teachers must navigate within their classroom practice, particularly if they seek to implement active and or participatory pedagogies into their GCE teaching.

8.1.2 Navigating authority and freedom in formal classrooms

The intersection of formal education contexts and GCE demands on teachers' pedagogical expertise, raised a number of pressure points or tensions for some teachers that were challenging to overcome. This, in turn, stifled practice. The crossover was identified as a particularly complex space for teachers to

navigate and relates directly to values in the classroom and the concept of power. Pedagogical expertise relates to methodological awareness and experience (Willemse et al., 2015). The present study has highlighted this professional demand is particularly unique for GCE teachers given its emphasis on participatory pedagogies and discussion-based strategies. These practices require GCE teachers to break with didactic approaches that prevail in formal education contexts, and to reconsider what knowledge is, and how it is constructed. GCE practices also raise questions about the types of relationships teachers have with students and their authority in the classroom.

The typology developed as part of this study highlights some of the challenges for teachers who seek to integrate elements of these pedagogies into their practices. The study revealed a number of struggles that teachers can face when seeking to adopt more participatory practices in formal education classrooms. Such practices require a significant shift and re-balancing of power dynamics that exist between students and teachers and a re-negotiation of the hierarchical structures ingrained in formal education. These struggles relate directly to explorations in literature that seek to balance freedom and agency for students, whilst also affording authority to the teacher to teach (Bizzell, 1991; Freire, 1994; hooks, 1994). In this study, they were encountered by experienced teachers who have the capacity to identify these tensions, yet struggle to resolve them alone. The isolated nature of GCE in schools, coupled with a paucity of ongoing professional support, affords little space for reflection or development. Yet, findings from this study support Bentall's (2020) assertion that GCE practices necessitate significant transitions for teachers in the classroom that require sustained support, beyond one-off CPD provision. Otherwise, technical approaches to teacher development risk stifling practices and diminishing the role of teachers. These findings demonstrate how cultural and structural factors can impede teaching and present teachers with dilemmas as they seek to navigate the transition from didactic teacher-student relationships to more reciprocal ones. It confirms the challenging and complex nature of theories which underpin GCE and their translation into classroom practice (Apple, 2000; Morgan, 2000). The study also confirms the presence of uncritical habits of mind that suggest that ingrained and didactic teaching practices have the potential to diminish the participatory intent of GCE, even in circumstances where teachers' political intent or desire to disrupt student thinking is present. This demonstrates the impact of culture on teaching and learning and reasserts

the need to engage teachers in matters of pedagogy, not only technically, but also intellectually, in order to make connections with the underlying purposes of participatory approaches (Bully, 2009; Korthagen, 2012; Waldron, 2012).

This section has set out the possibilities and challenges that teachers are confronted with when they choose to translate GCE into classroom practice in formal education contexts. It illustrates how this intersection can act as a catalyst for pioneering practice, yet also generate certain tensions for teachers that are challenging to resolve. Whilst the participating teachers sought to respond to these demands, the isolated nature of their attempts was striking and confirms Priestley et al.'s (2015) contention that teachers' capacity to affect change or resolve some challenges can be hindered by the environment in which they operate. For example, in this study opportunities for teachers to reflect on their practice or to seek support, appeared very limited, if non-existent. This chasm between the additional and complex demands that GCE places on teachers and the vacuum of support, is an area that needs to be urgently addressed. Moreover, the range and complexity of the demands that GCE practice can present for teachers, suggests the need for support that is informed by research and also led by experts in both teacher education and professional development, in addition to those with expertise in GCE-related topics such as migration, climate change and development. I will return to this point in the next chapter.

8.2 Young people as active and social participants in GCE

GCE conceptualisations position young people as empowered and agentic citizens (Bourn, 2016; Irish Aid, 2017; OECD, 2018; Sant et al., 2018) that in turn places considerable responsibilities on them (Hartung, 2017; Lawy & Biesta, 2006). By contrast, within formal education contexts, students are assigned passive roles that leave little space for participation, choice or empowerment (Cook-Sather, 2006; Devine, 2003; Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016). This constrained and controlled environment is at odds with the highly assumed, participatory role for students within GCE. As a result, the need to consider young peoples' negotiations of these contrasting positions has been an important premise of this study. Previous studies contend that undemocratic practices within formal education diminish the type of GCE that is implemented (Gaynor, 2013; Liddy, 2012; McCormack & O'Flaherty, 2010). However, little attention has been afforded to students' experiences of this tension (Bryan & Bracken, 2011). This is an important gap

to address, in order to reposition young people within GCE and to inform further deliberations and development.

This section draws together a number of important insights into the position and experiences of students within GCE classroom practices. First, the section reflects on student participation, specifically in relation to power and voice in the classroom. Second, it explores the wider school context within which these practices are experienced. It considers an interesting contradiction that emerged from this study whereby students can simultaneously be assigned or assume a passive role within GCE practice, whilst at the same time interpret these practices as participatory. Finally, I discuss students' interpretations of GCE practices as a form of social learning, and the implications of this for students and the implementation of GCE in the classroom.

8.2.1 Student participation and presence within GCE practices

The significant degrees of student participation assumed within GCE are connected to its participatory methodologies and transformative intent (Andreotti & Souza, 2008; Blackmore, 2016; Bourn, 2015; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Sant et al., 2018). Research to date suggests that young people are openly disposed to exploring global justice issues and welcome spaces to learn about them (Brown, 2015; Miller et al., 2012; Tallon & McGregor, 2014). This study confirms that disposition and seeks to make a new contribution in considering student participation and presence within GCE classroom practices (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lundy, 2007). To date, we know little about the extent to which students experience these approaches and, if so, how they are negotiated between teacher and student. The typology presented in this study is an important contribution in this regard. It illustrates the extent to which GCE practices can position students in ways that are both enabling and silencing. Across each setting, techniques and strategies were employed by teachers that are associated with participatory pedagogy. These included group work, activities such as “Think, Pair, Share” and “walking debates”. Crucially however, the typology demonstrates that in order for students to experience empowerment, their position must be actively considered and the emancipatory nature of GCE, understood. This highlights the importance of the fundamental purpose that underpins the use of participatory pedagogies beyond the techniques themselves. The typology indicates that student participation within GCE practice cannot be achieved through

methodologies alone, but that purpose and person must also be considered. This confirmed the deeply symbiotic relationship between teacher and student and the role teachers play in determining students' experiences within GCE classroom practice.

The notion of being listened to, and of feeling respected, feature significantly within student voice literature (Baroutsis et al., 2016; Cook-Sather, 2006; Fielding, 2012; Lundy, 2007). It is argued that it is not enough for students to be consulted, but that they must also feel listened to and respected for their contributions (Cook-Sather, 2006; Lundy, 2007). Lundy (2007) describes this aspect of student voice as "audience". Findings from this study indicate that GCE practices, even those associated with more didactic teaching, can provide an audience for students. Certain practices can create spaces for students to contribute, articulate and interpret opinions, whilst also cultivating the art of listening. Moreover, student contributions in the present study indicate that students value these spaces. These dispositions and practices are important to highlight as they indicate the potential of GCE to reimagine power structures in the classroom, where traditionally, teachers talk and students listen (Cook-Sather, 2006; Manke, 1997). These findings suggest that GCE practices can contribute to a more democratic form of education and a more participatory experience for students. I will return to this idea in the next section.

Consideration of student participation also arose with regard to the translation and construction of GCE into classroom curricula. This type of participation relates to the concept of "pedagogic voice" and the extent to which students are considered in relation to curricular choice and teaching and learning matters (Baroutsis et al., 2016). Pedagogic voice is significant for this study of GCE practices, given the extent to which individual teachers were found to shape and drive the curricula in their schools. It is remarkable however that, despite the autonomous nature of the practice, none of the participating teachers sought to consult students about the topics that could be explored. Rather, findings suggest that student participation was sought as a means of inviting student responses and creating some space for students to contribute knowledge and experiences. However, consideration of student presence and influence did not go beyond this, or extend to the possible contributions students could make to the shape of the module or course content. Although teachers reported considering students' interests when building their curricula, there was no indication that they consulted students in relation to this. This is indicative of school culture and

highlights how it can render certain aspects of student agency completely invisible, even to those who may seem alert to it. By contrast, the consideration of pedagogic voice in relation to the autonomous and open nature of GCE curricula, also highlights new possibilities for student participation. Findings from this study indicate an opportunity for students to participate as co-constructors of more locally designed curricula.

8.2.1 GCE from the inside out: a disruptive and transformative experience?

This section is strongly informed by students' interpretations of GCE practices, in contrast to their dominant classroom experiences. It considers GCE from the inside out, as in, from students' experiences set within formal education and its potential to serve as a disruptive and transformative experience. Students reported their experiences of GCE-related teaching and learning as standing apart, and, at times, in contrast to "normal class" (p131/p.210). This study identified four key areas where that counterpoint manifests. They relate to the types of activities students are doing in school, their levels of participation in the classroom, how they see themselves in relation to their teachers and finally, the extent to which they feel valued. Together these areas highlight the passive positioning attributed to students and the ongoing prevalence of structured, didactic approaches within formal schooling (Devine & McGillicuddy, 2016; Gleeson, 2012; OECD, 2009).

Chapter Seven highlighted students' associations of GCE practices with talking and interaction, compared to prevailing experiences of being talked at and writing notes. They also described a sense of being active and responsive, rather than being passive and silent (p.131). In addition, their strong association with the GCE classroom as a space for exchanging opinions, added further to the sense of GCE practices as open and inclusive (p.223). This was in contrast to other subject areas that were perceived, by students, as primarily concerned with "right" answers. This latter view is indicative of an education culture that is dominated by an exams-based system and what Gleeson (2004) refers to as an "instrumental" view of knowledge that packages subjects into "unquestioned truths" (2004, p. 109). Moreover, it is an indication that recent and ongoing reforms that seek to breakdown these tropes are far from being realised. Indeed, students' descriptions of their dominant classroom experiences in this study, confirm what we already know about undemocratic spaces within formal education (Apple, 1993; Ball, 2008; Freire & Ramos, 1996; Giroux, 1983).

This has a number of implications for GCE. Dominant values and practices that shape formal education have been highlighted as a key constraint for those seeking to implement GCE practices within this space (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gaynor, 2013; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). The concern is that GCE's more critical orientations are diluted or lost as it is integrated into a system that is hierarchical and autocratic (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gaynor, 2013; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). Yet, understanding GCE practices from the inside out, and from the perspectives of students who are learning within system, GCE can offer a disruptive and potentially transformative experience in a number of ways. Firstly, the discursive nature of the field was one of the defining characteristics of GCE for students as explored in Chapter Seven. Secondly, Chapter Five set out the topics that students explored as part of their GCE practice that included trans-Mediterranean migration, direct provision and the SDGs (Table 5). It must be noted that students identified these spaces as the only ones where they had the opportunity to learn about global justice issues, that they may otherwise not have encountered. Moreover, they were exposed to ideas related to media literacy and also the concept of knowledge as partial. In a system that they characterised as dominated by the notion of right and wrong answers, this is an example of the disruptive potential of GCE. Thirdly, students experienced different values that underpin GCE practices. These included the inclusive nature of some of the discussions they had, in addition to the previously explored feeling of being valued.

Student assertions in this study suggest that GCE practices can offer the learner an experience in more democratic forms of education, that subsequently have the potential to be transformative or at the very least, an alternative to the status quo. This study has found that, for students, the very presence of GCE in formal education can be "inherently transformative" (Waldron, 2006, p. 213) (Waldron & Oberman, 2016). Students' experiences of certain elements of GCE's content and pedagogical approaches run counter to prevailing teaching and learning practices that are characterised by teacher-led approaches and a view of knowledge as static. Moreover, students' contributions illustrate the potential of GCE to inform wider debates in education that are significant and important to students, particularly in relation to their participation and voice within educational practices. Examining GCE from the inside out, also helps to identify what Selby & Kawaga (2014) refer to as "shadow spaces" – those places where GCE can circumvent the prevailing structures of formal education and offer students an alternative experience that

disrupts normative teaching and learning practices and the ultimate purpose of education. Notwithstanding these possibilities however, it is also important to acknowledge the significant transitions students are expected to make, as they move from one classroom setting to another, moving between pedagogical approaches that potentially serve to either silence them, or recognise their agency and presence. It is a significant shift that raises challenges for students in relation to trust and their perceptions of knowledge, in addition to their experiences of classroom discussion. Whilst this study confirmed that many students welcome the alternative spaces that GCE practice can provide, the approaches also present significant dilemmas for students that risk undermining its participatory and empowering intent. These are considered below.

8.2.3 Social learning within GCE practices

The first section in this chapter set out a series of demands that GCE practices require of teacher professionalism. It is also important to note the extent to which GCE practice is reliant on student engagement and their willingness and readiness to step into a space that has been established as counter to their prevailing experiences in school. This study has established the need to understand GCE practices as a social and emotional endeavour for students, not least because it was raised by them as an important criterion which impacts on their level of interaction and engagement. In this sense, the study upholds certain criticisms of critical pedagogy, that contend that the theory is overly rational and makes assumptions about students' willingness to engage in what are perceived as more democratic approaches (Morgan, 2000). Moreover, it is pertinent because the study established that, although many students welcomed the opportunity for increased participation in their GCE classroom, the level of social sophistication required, hindered engagement. This emerged through students' contributions on the risks associated with discussion-based approaches explored in Chapter Seven. In addition, this aspect of GCE learning extends our understanding of GCE as a cognitive and affective practice and again highlights the extent to which GCE expects students to disrupt their more passive positioning and engage directly with both their peers and teacher.

Students spoke coherently and succinctly with regard to the social dynamics of GCE practices (p.210-217). Their explorations echo Hauver et al.'s (2016) contention that students are adept at reading their

space and each other, in order to identify possible risks or opportunities for participation. GCE practice presented somewhat of a double-edge sword for students. On one hand, it offered them the opportunity to step out of their passive positioning and try out new roles (Hauver et al., 2016). On the other, students were concerned that they risked causing offence or being perceived as being “wrong”. This study also confirmed that students need safe structures and supports in place, in order to step into that empowered space, such as small group discussion and trusting and respectful relationships (Bickmore & Parker, 2014; Bloome, 2015).

These important considerations for students, reinforce the argument that GCE practice cannot be reduced to a series of methodologies or techniques, without due regard for and exploration of social and power dynamics in the classroom. These relate to both teacher-student relationships, but also to relationships between students. If GCE practices are to continue to emphasise the importance of engagement through interactions in the classroom, more explicit attention must be afforded in practice to social dynamics. This highlights the real significance of developing spaces that are conducive to discussion and the underlying purpose of methodologies that seek to support this, beyond their use as a tool or technique. Specifically, it illustrates the need for students to not only learn through discussion but also *for* discussion (Parker & Hess, 2001). This finding has implications for stakeholders across GCE. It is significant for curriculum development and also teacher education and professional support. While evidence presented in this study suggests that GCE practices can help to break down barriers to participation, it also suggests that certain social norms continue to operate in the GCE classroom that impede student engagement. Students not only recognise and understand this but also show a willingness to overcome this obstacle. However, more explicit support is required, not only directly from their teachers but also, by implication, from teacher education, curriculum and policy.

The contributions of young people to this study highlight the urgent need for more research that includes and is focussed on their experiences of GCE in formal education in order to support its development within formal education. Areas that need to be considered include students’ learning experiences and potential trajectories in GCE and the discussion-based nature of GCE practice, in addition to research that examines GCE learning for a diverse range of students. This study has established that they are active and social participants within GCE practices who are discerning and alert to their school

environment and concepts of justice and equality. As a result, they have essential contributions to make to the field. There is a need to reposition young people within GCE practice, but also within the policies which drive this. Their contributions in this study indicate that they are open to GCE's substance and pedagogy, and to a more empowered positioning in the classroom. However, their contributions also highlight areas that require further attention, such as the role and purpose of discussion within GCE practices and the need to address the social challenges that more participatory approaches bring. Their experiences encourage us to think differently about GCE practice, from the inside out, and confirm the potential of GCE to serve as a shadow space within formal education, offering students an alternative to the status quo and a more empowered position in the classroom.

8.3 Towards GCE as a (subject) discipline

The recent proliferation of scholarly work and policy initiatives in the area of GCE indicate increasing recognition of its necessity and legitimacy within formal education (Goren & Yemini, 2017; Sant et al., 2018; Tarozzi & Torres, 2018). Though dominant trends continue to pursue the integration of GCE into more established academic and subject disciplines, it is also emerging as a discipline in its own right (Sant et al., 2018). While efforts to afford GCE equal status amongst other subject areas continue, this study firmly establishes examples where GCE is taken seriously by teachers and students and practised as a subject in schools. However, the study also established that this practice is not without gaps and challenges, examples of which include conceptual haziness and student learning. Contributions from this study seek to acknowledge and amplify current GCE practices in schools, with a view to supporting its further development within formal education. Heretofore, the risks of integrating or mainstreaming GCE into formal education contexts have been well established (Bryan, 2011a; Selby & Kawaga, 2014). However, this section explores the potential value this system can offer GCE practices, particularly in terms of learning trajectories and conceptual progression. It explores how the formal education system can support individual teacher efforts, whilst at the same time recognising the need to safeguard the current autonomous and generative approach to GCE that is welcome. Ultimately, it considers the development of GCE as a subject discipline in formal education, with a view to

strengthening GCE practices in ways that can deepen learning and move towards more critical approaches.

8.3.1 The need for a GCE learning continuum

It is important to acknowledge that formal education offers some space for GCE practices and for teachers and students to experiment with participatory pedagogies and to access powerful knowledge that they may otherwise not access through more established curricular areas. Examples from this study include examinations of migration and state responsibility vis-à-vis migrants, the UN framework for sustainable development and concepts and principles such as empathy and action. Notwithstanding variations and problems that ensue, this study confirms that these are important spaces that also offer varying degrees of teacher autonomy and transformative experiences for students. However, previous studies found that in schools, GCE is undermined by an add and stir approach and limited and insufficient dedicated time (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Jeffers, 2008b; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016). The impact of this was demonstrated in this study, whereby GCE practices appeared to be stuck in introductory mode and students across the settings reported limited exposure to GCE related content or pedagogies. Students' discernible comparisons between both the content and methodologies they experienced in GCE, suggest that for some, these modules were the first time they had such encounters in the classroom. Indeed, despite CSPE's profile as a significant space for GCE-related issues in Ireland, some students recounted not even experiencing the issues here. Whilst this was, in part, due to the topical nature of the content explored, it also confirmed the limited spaces for GCE in schools. As a result, GCE classroom practices risk operating in a vacuum, offering students isolated experiences of GCE. This is very problematic given the disruptive, multi-dimensional and complex nature of GCE. It suggests that despite the best intentions of individual teachers, opportunities for more critical forms of GCE are severely curtailed. This is important to highlight as it is clear that the responsibility of implementing the multi-dimensional and complex nature of GCE cannot rest with one teacher or one module (Bental, 2020).

At its best, formal education curricula offer students opportunities to return to key concepts and substance within any given subject area on an ongoing basis. The basic premise of spiral curricula is that students have the opportunity to return to core concepts of a subject area again and again, and in a way

that is appropriate for their stage of development and emergent capacities (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Heretofore, GCE has rarely been conceived of as a learning process that extends beyond fundraising activities, participation in extra-curricular activities or an integrated theme in more established subject areas (Bourn, 2015; Bryan & Bracken, 2011; Gleeson et al., 2007; Liddy, 2012; Sant et al., 2018). As an emergent discipline, its learning trajectory across the education continuum is underdeveloped. This is a reminder of the nascent status of GCE in formal education, particularly in relation to classroom teaching and learning.

However, findings from this study indicate that it is now time to explore and consider a more formal curricular framing for GCE in schools, as a subject discipline in its own right that draws on particular bodies of knowledge and that is conceptually grounded and spiralled across the continuum. The potential benefits of developing GCE as a subject discipline within formal education curricula are manifold. They include a new focus on concepts, the development of pathways for student learning in order to address the isolated nature of current practice and, guidance for schools in order to support whole school approaches to GCE teaching and learning. For example, in Ireland, particular attention could focus on conceptual connections and progression between other subject areas such as CSPE, TY and Politics and Society, in order to identify how these areas can support and build on each other. Crucially, it is not enough to identify where opportunities exist to integrate GCE across the formal education curriculum. Considerable work has already been carried out in this area. Rather, further work is required in order to develop clearer conceptual connections and framing across curriculum and continuum. In other words, a shift is required in moving from looking at where GCE can be integrated into the curriculum, to what might a GCE learning journey look like for students. The following section explores conceptual progression in more detail and specifically how it can support and scaffold classroom practice.

8.3.2 Progression: Conceptual and scaffolded learning in the classroom

In addition to addressing wider systems concerns as outlined above, it is also important to support teachers and students who do create spaces for GCE teaching and learning. In a context where opportunities to practice GCE are extremely curtailed, the value and importance of planning for progression are even more pronounced. As such, the need to support teachers to build conceptual grounded classroom practice

is evident. Rata (2016) refers to “conceptual progression” in order to highlight the importance of key concepts around which a curriculum is built. The term also relates to the sequencing of those concepts and the addition of content around them. Rata (2016) contends that this approach to curriculum design can help to connect topics and information to a deeper system of meaning. This approach allows for concepts to underpin and deepen the exploration of peripheral and more topical areas of learning. It also ensures elements of breadth and depth in learning (Parker et al., 2017). This is particularly pertinent for GCE practice that is associated with topical issues and also concerned with criticality. Moreover, evidence from this study highlights a dearth of explicit conceptual foundations within classroom practice, such as social justice or human rights frameworks. I argued that such a conceptual framing of GCE practices provide analytical frameworks for students to examine topics, that can also provide rigor and reduce the personalised nature of discussion (Emerson et al., 2012; Mallon, 2018).

However, although teachers selected materials and topics that go to the very heart of power and inequality in society (such as direct provision and conflict in the Middle East), at times, they struggled to make those connections evident through practice. Either these concepts were assumed, or it remains a challenge to make these concepts real, relevant and explicit in the classroom. This is important as I argued in Chapter Four that a lack of connections to more established frameworks, such as human rights, weakened teachers’ locally developed curricula. Moreover, it risks reducing practices to the study of topical issues, rather than drawing out concepts such as discrimination or marginalisation that underpinned some of the teachers’ unspoken intentions. This indicates that teachers who practice GCE do not necessarily eschew human rights or social justice orientations, but that they can struggle to make this explicit in practice. As a result, there is a need to investigate how GCE related concepts such as equality and justice can be integrated into GCE teaching and learning in a way that provides students with strong analytical tools through which to explore contemporary, global issues. It suggests a need to connect students to more conceptual aspects of GCE, in order to deepen their understanding and ensure that practice does not remain at the level of acquiring some information about a lot of topics.

Now that GCE has leveraged some space within formal education, it is timely to consider whether moving towards a more subject discipline approach can enhance GCE teaching and learning. In making

this case, I acknowledge that there are risks associated with formalising initiatives in schools. Risks include the entrenchment of particular approaches or bodies of knowledge that in turn may result in static views of GCE and a loss of authentic practice. These risks have the potential to compromise a move towards greater criticality. Notwithstanding these legitimate concerns, evidence from this study suggests that GCE can be practised as a subject discipline in schools and as these practices evolve, they may benefit from foundational principles as they relate to teaching and learning and curriculum organisation and planning. In the absence of this broader, conceptual framing, GCE practices risk remaining isolated and overly diffuse in ways that limit possibilities for deeper and more critical teaching and learning.

Conclusion

This chapter brought together the study's key findings and considered subsequent implications for those who seek to promote and practice GCE in formal education contexts. It highlighted three areas that are key to supporting practice. First, the intersection of GCE and formal education contexts presents both possibility and challenge for teachers that subsequently requires increased and appropriate support. Second, young people are active and social participants within GCE practices whose views and experiences need to be considered and acted upon. Third, as GCE becomes established as a subject area to be studied in schools, it is time to dedicate increased focus to teaching and learning practices and opportunities for all students to engage in GCE, not only across the curriculum but also across the continuum, in a way that is conceptually grounded and progressive in nature. In doing so, it must walk a difficult line in order to balance autonomous and generative practice, with criticality and solid foundations and pathways, that must be the responsibility of more than one teacher or module.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This qualitative case study contributes significant insight into GCE classroom practice, with a particular focus on teaching and learning. The intention was to generate empirical data from classroom experiences that illustrate how GCE is practised, specifically how it is presented, taught, received and interpreted. I identified three settings from which to gather this data and spent significant amounts of time in each. I also supported my own classroom observations with semi-structured teacher interviews and student focus groups. This triangulation was important as it extended what I observed and provided participants with an opportunity to contribute. In addition, it highlighted some divergences between my interpretations and those of the participants that was interesting to pursue and analyse. This chapter summarises the study's new contributions to current understandings of GCE practice in formal education, in addition to making a series of recommendations for GCE practitioners, policy-makers and researchers. It also addresses particular strengths and weaknesses of the study, before concluding with a final, personal note.

9.1 Contributions to GCE teaching and learning in formal education

The present study has illustrated that important spaces for GCE can exist within formal education classrooms. At their most critical, these spaces create opportunities for students to experience democracy in action, to encounter the idea of engaging critically with knowledge and, to participate in meaningful discussions with their teachers and peers, in an environment that affords them respect and audience. Moreover, the exploration of important global justice issues, such as migration and direct provision, introduces students to social and political matters that they maintain are otherwise missing from their formal education. This is significant given that omissions from the curriculum can serve to perpetuate dominant narratives (Mallon, 2019). Nonetheless, the study also identified certain limitations and gaps in GCE classroom practice that dilute its criticality and undermine the depth of teaching and learning. Understanding these challenges is essential, in order to contribute to the development of GCE in formal education classrooms and more adequately support teachers' and students' work.

This study establishes that in the absence of formal guidelines or curricula, teachers are vanguards of GCE practice, acting as both curriculum developers for the field and pioneering practitioners of participatory pedagogies and discussion-based teaching strategies. This finding has significant implications for GCE policy makers and funders and indicates an urgent need to attend to pedagogical matters in the area of GCE, specifically how it is taught and learned as a subject area in its own right. In addition, examining the translation of GCE into classroom curricula has illustrated how its conceptual weakness in theory, impacts at the point of practice. With the exception of some elements of teaching and learning, the present study identified a striking absence and use of theoretical frameworks, such as human rights, to anchor the topics explored in the classroom. This gap has substantial repercussions for the level of depth and criticality students can achieve. A second gap identified a weakness in the scaffolding of student learning. For example, whilst critical thinking, empathy and action were identified as desired learning outcomes across settings, delineated pathways for students to move in these directions were oftentimes absent. This highlights gaps in GCE policy, strategies and guidelines and indicates that student learning is an area of GCE that is significantly underdeveloped. Notwithstanding the complexity of GCE's intended learning outcomes, considerable work in this area is required, in order to further develop teaching and learning in the classroom.

Exploring GCE practices through the concepts of voice and power provides important new insights into student participation in GCE. Whilst student engagement is a concern for all classroom practice, it is particularly relevant within the context of GCE, given its emphasis on reciprocity and dialogue and, its exploration of sensitive and controversial issues. The study's new typology indicates that participation is determined by three core pillars (pedagogy, purpose and person), that in turn can be filtered through three different orientations. Ultimately, it is these teaching orientations (normative, adaptive or disruptive) that shape how the participatory dimension of GCE is experienced by students. Understanding participation and GCE practice through this typology illustrates the deeply relational dimension of GCE teaching and learning and, the significance of purpose in determining how students are positioned within active and participatory pedagogies. This contribution goes to the heart of GCE's empowering and transformative intent. It identifies a crucial need to move beyond resource provision and

a technical approach to teacher professional development. Specifically, it is essential to engage teachers in discussions related to power in the classroom, in addition to the underlying purposes of participatory pedagogies that are central to GCE. The study's typology is offered as one guiding framework to explore these dynamics and to reassert the participatory intent of GCE pedagogy, that is at risk of being diminished amidst growing trends towards skills and competency-based educational policy (Franch, 2019; Mannion et al., 2011).

Heretofore, the experiences of students and young people have been largely under-researched. This study sought to address this gap by focussing on their practice in the classroom and by gathering their interpretations and descriptions of those interactions through focus groups. Their contributions offer a new understanding of GCE practice within formal education contexts. Specifically, their interpretations indicate that discussion is a central feature of GCE classroom practice that is both welcome and counter to students' prevailing formal education engagement. It is important to understand GCE from this perspective as it demonstrates its value in formal education to act as a disruptive and alternative experience to the dominant narratives that students encounter. This, in itself, might be one of GCE's most significant contributions within formal education currently.

In addition, students' contributions on GCE discussion-based approaches highlight that certain aspects are underdeveloped and risk limiting the potential for more substantial debate and critical forms of dialogue. This is significant for GCE and recent curriculum reform in Ireland that increasingly places an emphasis on discussion and debate as both methodology and skills to be developed (NCCA, n.d., 2015). For example, the NCCA (n.d) has stated that "Dialogue is vitally important in the Politics and Society classroom" and asserted the need for students to understand the "differences between dialogue and debate" (n.d, p. 16). While these reforms are welcome, empirical evidence from the present study indicates an over reliance on the use of learning *with* discussion (Parker & Hess, 2001) and a dominant view amongst students of opinion-as-personal. Whilst these features do form important aspects of different types of discussion, these interpretations and practice are problematic if they remain within this sphere. For example, they minimise the role of evidence and argumentation and stagnate discussion to a form of conversation that undermines the possibility for deeper learning and a Freirean interpretation of

dialogue as transformative. Moreover, as exemplified through students' contributions, they exacerbate certain social elements of GCE learning that can prevent students from making contributions due to a fear of causing offense. These findings are important as they highlight assumptions that are made at the level of curriculum reform related to students' readiness to engage in discussion-based learning, without sufficient attention afforded to student learning *for* discussion (Parker & Hess, 2001). Moreover, student contributions indicate that, although welcome, discussion-based practices represent a significant shift in how they learn in school, that requires different student-teacher and student-student relationships, and additional skills on the part of teachers and students.

9.2 Strengths and limitations of the study

This thesis presents empirical evidence directly from classroom settings which is significant as, heretofore, most studies related to GCE practice have relied on what teachers and others say is happening in the classroom. The methodological focus on a quintain, that is GCE teaching and learning processes, and the centrality of participant observations, provide unique frames through which to understand how GCE is practised in the classroom. While some previous ethnographic studies have explored GCE in schools (Blackmore, 2016), these have tended to focus on its conceptualisations, as opposed to its processes and enactment. Subsequently, this case study presents evidence related to the practice of GCE in reality. It demonstrates the challenges and opportunities of translating GCE into classroom practice and the dynamics that influence and shape how GCE is enacted. Crucially, it also contributes evidence related to students' interpretations of, not only GCE, but also the pedagogies and methodologies they experience through its practices.

The case study design prompts questions related to the transferability of findings to other contexts. Specifically, it is acknowledged that participating teachers had at least eight years' experience in teaching GCE. In addition, the particular modules examined were offered as discrete spaces to explore global justice issues. While these are not the only examples of such approaches to GCE in Ireland, they exist in a minority of post-primary settings. However, the selection of the quintain dynamic to focus the study, served to foreground teaching and learning practices, as opposed to the specificities of the contexts. As such, the case in this study is of instrumental, as opposed to intrinsic value (Stake, 2006). This

enables the findings to draw on data across a number of settings, whilst maintaining a focus on how GCE is practised in the classroom. Subsequently, the study has presented detailed accounts of pedagogical and methodological concerns, issues related to students' experiences and the translation of GCE pillars and principles into practice.

A qualitative approach and the use of observation methods was chosen in order to move beyond reports of what is happening in classrooms and to capture significant amounts of data from within this private space. As a result, it was necessary to spend prolonged periods of time in each setting, in order to mitigate against reactivity and to support the credibility of the findings (Anderson-Levitt, 2006; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Coupled with this, the amount of time available to spend on fieldwork was limited. Together, these factors precipitated the need to curtail the sample size which in turn, reduces the study's breadth. One aspect of the study which may have benefited from a wider range of settings, is the distinctive nature of GCE practices that emerged from those schools that did participate. Although the schools were not chosen to be representative, GCE teaching and learning in each setting was distinct. A study that included a larger sample size may have identified more reoccurring trends.

With regards to data collection, I have identified one particular element that limits the study's findings. It was a challenge to establish what supporting documentation existed for the GCE practices I observed, in addition to gathering those that did. In particular, it was difficult to identify what planning documents existed and then to obtain what did exist from the participating teachers. While I did gather some data related to wider school policies, handbooks and teaching materials used in class, it proved very difficult to establish if any further documentation existed, or to obtain what did. This limitation also illustrates a particular dynamic that is part of exploratory, qualitative research that remains an ongoing iterative process. Whilst I remained alert to the types of data I could gather during the collection phase and made efforts to do so, at times, it is only during advanced stages of data analysis that certain data sources emerged as particularly significant. Whilst the option to return to study participants was not included in this research design (beyond the post-observation interviews), further exploratory studies I undertake will consider this option.

Regarding aspects of the study that relate to student participation and contributions, I made a decision not to gather student notes or homework. This was a pragmatic decision in order to balance the volume of data I was gathering with my time available (Lareau, 2000). Whilst this decision does not compromise the credibility of the findings presented here, the students' work would have provided opportunities to explore other themes, such as their understandings of and attitudes towards the topics they were exploring. In addition, I did not observe students' experiences in other classroom settings. As a result, findings related to their predominant classroom experiences are solely reliant on their reports. However, it is important to note that student descriptions of their prevailing classroom experiences were common across all settings. Finally, optional participation in the student focus groups may have resulted in a cohort of students that were openly disposed to GCE and as such, may have skewed the findings in favour of those students who are responsive to the field. Further studies should try to identify more disparate student responses to GCE.

9.3 Recommendations for policy, research and practice

The starting point for this study was to address the lack of empirical insights from the classroom into GCE practices. Having presented and summarised new contributions to the field in this area, this final section sets out a series of recommendations in order to support GCE teaching and learning. It is focussed on two fundamental areas that require priority attention. First, there is a need to address wider contextual factors which can hinder or support classroom practice. Second, where GCE is established as a teaching and learning endeavour, those teachers, students and spaces need to be supported, in order to move in a more critical direction. This requires an increase in the time and funding available to GCE for schools and also, a reorientation of current provisions that seek to support GCE teachers and students. This section is focussed on these two areas and proposes a number of recommendations concerning strategies and investment for policy makers, teacher educators, researchers and civil society.

9.3.1 Investing in teacher development for GCE classroom practice

Heretofore, teachers are recognised as key to implementing GCE in their schools (Bryan & Bracken, 2011; McCarthy & Gannon, 2016). Within this, individual teachers become multipliers and project managers, in addition to taking on responsibility for the implementation of GCE across the school

community. Strategies and funding to support these endeavours have relied on resource provision, guides on the integration of GCE into several subject areas, project-based initiatives and limited teacher education programmes. Notwithstanding the positive developments that have been made in these areas, findings from this study indicate that it is now time to prioritise the role of teachers in the classroom, where they are not only responsible for GCE teaching and learning, but also, at times, responsible for the development of local GCE curricula. In other words, there is a need for policy makers and funders of GCE initiatives to reorient their strategies, in order to prioritise a focus on GCE as a pedagogical practice that demands significant and additional academic and educational expertise on the part of those who teach it.

Specifically, the present study has identified that the types of support that teachers require necessitates significant levels of expertise in teacher education and pedagogical practices. This clearly indicates that the policies and strategies that drive GCE in schools, need to be informed by professionals working within the area of teacher education. For example, within an Irish context, Irish Aid funded programmes that deliver CPD to teachers need to ensure that those programmes are underpinned by solid pedagogical principles and approaches, in order to address some of the challenges that teachers face, including the use of participatory pedagogies and discussion-based teaching. There is an urgent need to develop more tailored and appropriate CPD for GCE teachers beyond what is currently available. The academic, pedagogical and curricular demands that arose for teachers over the course of the present study illustrate a broad and complex set of theoretical and pedagogical concerns that require ongoing and expert support and guidance. Such challenges cannot be responded to through resource provision or one off courses. As a result, it is recommended that Irish Aid develop a new approach to teacher professional development that includes a variety of strategies and is underpinned by key tenets of GCE such as participation and dialogue, in addition to an interrogation of the environment in which teachers work.

Key stakeholders within formal education have an essential role to play in supporting the development of GCE practice in the classroom. As a starting point, professional standards bodies for teachers, such as the Teaching Council in Ireland, need to recognise and validate GCE as an area of teaching and learning in schools. This should include recognition of teachers' contributions to GCE

learning and development beyond specific subject areas, such as CSPE and Politics and Society. The Teaching Council should seek to develop an accreditation process for GCE teachers, in a way that is open to the generative approaches identified in this study, yet also establishes certain standards. A policy development at this level can serve to both provide important validation and recognition for GCE teachers and also be used as a useful marker that illustrates the types of subject expertise and pedagogical skill that GCE classroom practice demands.

In addition, initial teacher education is a vital space to introduce student teachers to GCE and lay the foundations for good pedagogical practices. It is important that investment in this area continues and that GCE provision at this level is adequately resourced, in order to provide the high level of expertise and support that GCE practices demand. In addition, a number of areas identified in this study should be included in ITE programmes for GCE, as a matter of priority. These include the theoretical and conceptual framing of GCE, the theory and practice of participatory pedagogies and discussion-based practices and, planning for student progression and learning. Moreover, this study has established that an explicit exploration of the tensions and dilemmas that can arise as a result of implementing GCE into formal education settings should form part of any teacher education programme in this area. Specifically, power and authority in the classroom need to be key areas of exploration and deliberation.

The quantity and quality of professional development for GCE teachers is a priority area that urgently needs to be addressed. In particular, this study illustrates a need for expert, ongoing and appropriate professional development and support for teachers that recognises their own areas of expertise and passion, yet also provides a critical and reflective space. Following on, more tailored support is required and provision must be made for different stages of development and need amongst GCE teachers. Any advances made at a curricular or policy level will be significantly undermined without major investment and a reorientation of strategy and approaches in this area.

9.3.2 Prioritising student learning through curricular frameworks

To date, GCE has been seen as somewhat of an interloper within formal education and by consequence, policy initiatives in the field have focused on integrating, mainstreaming and embedding GCE within formal education, that results in what Bryan and Bracken (2011) refer to as an “add and stir”

effect. In Ireland, a recent example of this is the Department of Education's national strategy for ESD (2016) and pursuant efforts to add it to a melting pot of curriculum reform and developments (NCCA, 2018). The result is the presence of isolated GCE practice in schools that fails to provide students with pathways for progression across the educational continuum. Crucially, this study has demonstrated that is not enough to identify where GCE can be integrated into more established curricular areas. Rather, consideration must now also be given to students' progression in GCE as they move through their formal schooling. This requires a focus on student learning and conceptual progression.

There are a number of existing guides to support this development, for example Bourn's (2015) pedagogical framework, UNESCO's (2015) guiding document on GCE topics and objectives, the international youth white paper on global citizenship (*International youth white paper on global citizenship*, 2017) and Andreotti & Pashby's (Andreotti & Pashby, 2013; de Oliveira Andreotti, 2012; Pashby & Sund, 2020) HEADs UP framework. In the first instance, there is a need to critically engage with these existing models and to use them to inform the development of national responses that can then be tailored towards local contexts. Statutory bodies, with responsibility for curriculum development, such as the NCCA in Ireland, need to lead this process and develop curricular guidelines for schools that exemplify GCE across the education continuum.

Within an Irish context, one starting point is the recent introduction of Politics and Society at senior cycle and reform at junior cycle. These new developments provide opportunities to identify common GCE concepts across the post-primary curriculum. For example, guidelines should present a range of conceptual frameworks that move across the post-primary continuum and are connected to common concepts in subjects such as CSPE, Geography, Religious Education, Politics & Society and others. These include human rights, identity and development. Such frameworks can offer a number of anchors for teachers to build their GCE teaching around, in order to support and strengthen the conceptual depth of locally developed GCE curricula and teaching. Furthermore, these frameworks should identify a number of pathways for GCE learning that takes into account those students who cannot or do not choose to study Politics and Society to Leaving Certificate level. As the NCCA begins to review and re-develop senior cycle education in Ireland, GCE is an area of learning that requires attention for all students. Such

frameworks should provide pathways for student learning across different subject areas, in order to support or build on discrete GCE modules and ensure a more explicit teaching of GCE concepts in the classroom. Such an approach can offer a continuum for students and reduce a GCE-by-topic approach. In addition, the development of such national frameworks could support whole school planning for GCE, providing schools that are new to the field with guidance, whilst more experienced GCE teachers can refer to them to develop stronger conceptual foundations for their existing GCE practices. This, in turn, can contribute to reducing the burden of responsibility for GCE from a very small number of teachers.

In addition, the need to reposition discussion and dialogue as a curriculum outcome that also requires scaffolding and progression was identified in this study. Whilst recent curriculum reforms do include discussion and debate as a key skill, in addition to a specific role for discussion and debate within Politics and Society (NCCA, n.d., 2015), it is not sufficient to identify it as a skill to be developed. Rather, curricular reforms also need to acknowledge the barriers that exist for teachers and students in implementing these changes and work more directly with teacher education providers, in order to support the translation of curricular reforms into change in the classroom (Gleeson, 2012). The social nature of discussion-based learning for students, in addition to the complexities of its procedures and, its underdevelopment in this study, demonstrate challenges for both teachers and students to practice these strategies in ways that supports deeper and more critical learning.

9.3.3 Research and partnership for the development of GCE in formal education

The emerging nature of GCE teaching and learning within formal education indicates that research has a vital role to play in informing and shaping all of the recommendations included in this final chapter. Furthermore, several different stakeholders across state agencies, civil society and academia have important roles to play and as such, partnership should be at the heart of initiatives to develop GCE in schools. Specifically, research that is focussed on student learning is urgently required, in order to inform the development of national frameworks. For example, design research could investigate possible learning trajectories for students in the areas of conceptual progression or discussion and dialogue. If concepts such as fairness, discrimination and empathy are to remain as core pillars of GCE practice, how can they be scaffolded in the classroom and across the curriculum? In addition, further research with

students and young people is essential, in order to gather a wider and more diverse range of experiences and responses to GCE practice. This would require a quantitative approach and, in Ireland, could be conducted in conjunction with WWGS. It is crucial that spaces are created to listen to and act on students' experiences of GCE and that their contributions are at the core of new developments for GCE within formal education.

Given the particular need for more and different types of professional development for teachers, mixed methods research that establishes the different options and models that are currently available in Ireland and other countries would be beneficial. This should include the identification of different stakeholders that provide GCE CPD, such as universities and civil society organisations, and the various contributions they make (Tarozzi & Mallon, 2019). Such research could also establish the different levels of need amongst teachers. In addition, qualitative research that explores and tests new models of CPD for GCE teachers is required, particularly in order to address how best to provide ongoing support to different cohorts of GCE teachers. An extension of such a study could follow teachers back into the classroom, following on from some CPD, in order to provide further insight into the translation of those interventions into classroom practice.

To conclude, it is acknowledged that these recommendations rest significantly on the vagaries of government policy and funding. However, I am loath to suggest that what is required is simply more policies or more funding. Rather, I recommend that it is time to reconsider how policy and funding are directed and that they are reoriented based on research and evidence that is drawn more directly from classroom practices and teacher and student experiences. Currently, there is a risk that GCE policy and funding decisions are overly informed by a results agenda and quantity over quality. Finally, in the spirit of partnership, I think it is imperative that efforts are made by the research community to ensure that valuable research findings are shared beyond the academy and across the wider GCE community, in order to contribute to GCE practices in schools and support teachers' and students' endeavours.

9.4 A final word

Completing the latter stages of this research study has coincided with new professional experiences for me in the context of teacher education. As I was writing up my thesis, I also began to

teach History Education to student teachers and to supervise them on school placements. This latter experience requires me to observe students deliver a lesson in a primary classroom setting and grade them following the guidance of a rubric. I have observed students work with children from 5 to 12 years old and teach Gaelic, History, Maths, Geography, Physical Education, Literacy and Religious Education. These are very rich experiences and whilst they are set within an examination context, they have highlighted for me that many of the challenges that GCE faces in formal education contexts are not unique. Perennial issues for all classroom practice include the quality of teaching and learning, the use of pedagogical strategies, student-teacher relationships, the intentions and motivations behind classroom activities, intended learning outcomes and the influence of wider contexts. On one hand, this should come as a sort of reprieve for advocates of GCE and those of us who seek more critical approaches in practice. Indeed, I have asked myself, are critical forms of GCE practice just very good GCE teaching and learning? To date, GCE approaches and practices have been framed in ideological terms, and whilst this study recognises the centrality of purpose and intentionality in teaching, perhaps quality teaching and learning has been overlooked, in terms of the contribution these processes can make to more critical forms of GCE in the classroom.

Yet, in contrast to supervising students on placement, research does not seek to make an assessment or judgement about good teaching or learning. This is something I struggled with in the early stages of analysis. As a GCE practitioner, I had established views on good practice and I struggled to separate assessment from analysis. Through repeated attempts supported by my supervisors, I moved from thin descriptions, to criticism and finally, to critical analysis. I have sought to understand teachers' and students' interactions and endeavours and to critically analyse those practices within the context of formal education and with a particular emphasis on voice, power and dialogue in the classroom. This work illustrates that whilst GCE may have many challenges in common with more established subject areas, it also stands apart, its outlier status offering both possibility and further challenge for those who seek to engage. Teachers and students are to the forefront of this work and I hope contributions from this study will support and enhance their practices.

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Appendix A: Plain Language Statement - Teacher

ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA

Teacher Information

What is this research about?

This research aims to investigate the teaching and learning of global citizenship education (GCE) in post-primary classrooms across four different schools. I want to understand, analyse and describe the interactions in the classroom, how teachers present the subject area and how students respond and learn. This research is funded by the Centre for Human Rights and Citizenship Education in St Patrick's College, Drumcondra.

Why has your school been approached?

I identified your school as a suitable research participant as you are involved with WorldWise Global Schools and are delivering a module related to GCE as part of your teaching hours.

What will the research involve?

The research will require observation of activities during your GCE related class. It will require permitting the researcher to examine relevant teaching plans and materials in addition to work produced by the students. It will require a one to one interview with the teacher and four discussion sessions with approximately 12 consenting students. Both the classroom observations and the teacher interview and student discussion groups will be audio recorded and supported by note taking on my laptop.

During my period in the school, to ensure the full richness of the teaching and learning context, I would also like to have access to relevant, specially designated school assemblies, days and weeks, such as One World Week.

What are the risks in taking part?

There is no anticipated risk perceived to you or your students as a result of participation in this study.

Is the research anonymous?

Every effort will be made to ensure the anonymity of the school, the teacher and the students. Pseudonyms for the school, the teacher and the students will be used. A key linking these pseudonyms to the actual participants will be viewed only by the researcher. This will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please be advised however, that given the small sample size of the study and legal limitations regarding the confidentiality of information, that anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed. Every effort to protect confidentiality of data will be rigorously upheld. All materials and notes gathered over the course of the study will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the college and on my password protected laptop which is the property of the college. Only the researcher and their supervisor will have access to this information.

What are the benefits from taking part?

This research will seek to improve the supports offered to schools, teachers and students engaged in global citizenship education related studies. The interview and discussion groups should provide opportunities for the research participants to reflect on their classroom interaction thereby enhancing the overall teaching and learning experience.

How long will it take?

I will be in your school over the course of a six-week period for approximately two class periods per week. The teacher interview will take 90 minutes and the student discussion groups, 60 minutes each.

I will also attend other relevant school events if they take place during this time.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Is participation voluntary?

Involvement in this research study is voluntary. Participants may withdraw from the study at any point. There will be no penalty for withdrawing before all stages of the study are completed.

How can I get involved?

If after reading this information sheet you would like to get involved, I will send you an informed consent form for you to read and sign.

Researcher Contact Details:

Maria Barry, Centre for Human Rights & Citizenship Education, St Patrick's College, Drumcondra, Dublin 9.

Tel: 0877707263

Email: maria.barry@dcu.ie

If participants have concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact:
REC Administration, Research Office, St Patrick's College, Drumcondra, Dublin 9. Tel: +353-(0)1-884 2149.
Email: research@spd.dcu.ie



Appendix B: Plain Language Statement - Principal and Board of Management ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA Principal and Board of Management Information Sheet

Introduction

My name is Maria Barry and I am a PhD student in St Patrick's College Drumcondra. I have 14 years' experience in the field of education and am a qualified post-primary teacher. I am vetted by the Teaching Council.

What is this research about?

This research aims to investigate the teaching and learning of global citizenship education (GCE)* in post-primary classrooms across three different schools. I want to understand, analyse and describe the interactions in the classroom, how teachers present the subject area and how students respond and learn.

This research is funded by the Centre for Human Rights and Citizenship Education in St Patrick's College, Drumcondra.

*global citizenship education is understood as encompassing issues and concepts such as interdependence, human rights and justice around the world. It is an educational process focussed on questioning, dialogue and critical thinking.

Why has your school been approached?

I identified your school as a suitable research participant because a staff member in your school is delivering a modules related to GCE as part of their teaching hours.

What will the research involve?

The research will require observation of the participating teacher and their GCE related class. It will require permitting the researcher to examine relevant teaching plans and materials, and work produced by the students. It will require a one to one interview with the teacher and discussion sessions with approximately 12 consenting students, in groups of four. The classroom observations, the teacher interview and the student discussion groups will be audio recorded and supported by note taking on my laptop. During my period in your school, to ensure the full richness of the teaching and learning context, I would also like to have access to relevant school activities, for example specially designated school assemblies, days and weeks, such as One World Week.

What are the risks in taking part?

There is no anticipated risk perceived to the school, its staff or students as a result of participation in this study.

Is the research anonymous?

Every effort will be made to ensure the anonymity of the school, the teacher and the students. Pseudonyms for the school, the teacher and the students will be used. A key linking these pseudonyms to the actual participants will be viewed only by the researcher. This will be stored in a secure filing system in the college. Please be advised however, that given the small sample size of the study and legal limitations regarding the confidentiality of information, that anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed.

Efforts to protect confidentiality of data will be rigorously upheld. All materials and notes gathered over the course of the study will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the college and on my password protected laptop which is the property of the college.

What are the benefits from taking part?

This research will seek to improve the supports offered to schools, teachers and students engaged in global citizenship education related studies. The interview and discussion groups should provide opportunities

for the research participants to reflect on their classroom interaction thereby enhancing the overall teaching and learning experience.

How long will it take?

I will be in your school over the course of a six-week period for approximately two class periods per week. The teacher interview will take 90 minutes and the student discussion groups, 60 minutes each. I will also attend other relevant school events if they take place during this time.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Is participation voluntary?

Involvement in this research study is voluntary. Participants may withdraw from the study at any point. There will be no penalty for withdrawing before all stages of the study are completed.

How can I get involved?

If after reading this information sheet you would like to be involved, I will send you an informed consent form for you to read and sign.

Researcher Contact Details: Maria Barry, Centre for Human Rights & Citizenship Education, St Patrick's College, Drumcondra, Dublin 9. Tel: [REDACTED]. Email: maria.barry@dcu.ie



Appendix C: Informed Consent Form – Teacher
ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA
Informed Consent Form

Research Study Title

‘Global challenges, Global citizenship; what is the local classroom reality? A Qualitative Study of Global Citizenship Education Teaching and Learning Practices’

Purpose of the Research

This research seeks to understand and describe the interactions in the global citizenship education classroom, how teachers teach the subject area and how students respond and learn.

Requirements of Participation in Research Study

Participating teachers are asked to;

- Grant access to their global citizenship education class for a 6-week period
- Grant permission for the researcher to examine relevant teaching plans and materials.
- Participate in a one to one interview with the researcher of approximately 90 minutes in duration

Anonymity and Confidentiality

Every effort will be made to ensure the anonymity of the school, the teacher and the students. Pseudonyms for the school, the teacher and the students will be used. A key linking these pseudonyms to the actual participants will be viewed only by the researcher. This will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please be advised however, that given the small sample size of the study and legal limitations regarding the confidentiality of information, that anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed. Efforts to protect confidentiality of data will be rigorously upheld. All materials and notes gathered over the course of the study will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the college and on my password protected laptop which is the property of the college.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five year period.

Please note that involvement in the research study is voluntary

I am aware that if I agree to take part in this study, I can withdraw from participation at any stage. There will be no penalty for withdrawing before all stages of the Research Study have been completed.

Participant – Please complete the following

(Circle Yes or No for each question).

Have you read or had read to you the Plain Language Statement? Yes/No

Do you understand the information provided? Yes/No

Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study? Yes/No

Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions? Yes/No

I understand I have the right to withdraw from this study. Yes/No

Signature: _____

I have read and understood the information in this form. The researcher has answered my questions and concerns, and I have a copy of this consent form. Therefore, I consent to take part in this research project.

Participant's Signature: _____

Name in Block Capitals: _____

Witness: _____

Date: _____



Appendix D: Informed Consent Form - Principal and Board of Management
ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA
Informed Consent Form

Research Study Title

‘Global challenges, Global citizenship; what is the local classroom reality? A Qualitative Study of Global Citizenship Education Teaching and Learning Practices’

Purpose of the Research

This research seeks to understand and describe the interactions in the global citizenship education classroom, how teachers teach the subject area and how students respond and learn.

Requirements of Participation in Research Study

Participating schools are asked to;

- Grant permission for the researcher to observe the classroom sessions
- Support the teacher and students to take part in interview and discussion groups.
- Grant access to specially designated school assemblies, days and weeks, eg One World Week

Anonymity and Confidentiality

Every effort will be made to ensure the anonymity of the school, the teacher and the students. Pseudonyms for the school, the teacher and the students will be used. A key linking these pseudonyms to the actual participants will be viewed only by the researcher. This will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please be advised however, that given the small sample size of the study and legal limitations regarding the confidentiality of information, that anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed. Efforts to protect confidentiality of data will be rigorously upheld. All materials and notes gathered over the course of the study will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the college and on my password protected laptop which is the property of the college.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Please note that involvement in the research study is voluntary

I am aware that if I agree to take part in this study, I can withdraw from participation at any stage. There will be no penalty for withdrawing before all stages of the Research Study have been completed.

**Participant – Please complete the following
(Circle Yes or No for each question).**

Have you read or had read to you the Plain Language Statement? Yes/No

Do you understand the information provided? Yes/No

Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study? Yes/No

Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions? Yes/No

I understand I have the right to withdraw from this study. Yes/No

Signature: _____

I have read and understood the information in this form. The researcher has answered my questions and concerns, and I have a copy of this consent form. Therefore, I consent to take part in this research project.

Participant's Signature: _____

Name in Block Capitals: _____

Witness: _____

Date: _____



Appendix E: Plain Language Statement - Student

ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA

Student Information

Please read the questions and answers below carefully. They should help you understand what my research is about and help you to decide whether you want to take part or not.

What is research?

Research is an investigation to answer some questions we have. It involves; reading, writing, analysing and talking and listening to people.

What is this research about?

This research wants to answer the question; what does global citizenship education look like in the classroom. From observing your lessons, I want to understand how you learn, ask questions and react to what you are learning.

What will the research involve?

Firstly, I will be sitting in your class each week for 6 weeks. During class, I will not be participating. I will not be asking or answering questions. I will be audio recording the class and taking notes on my laptop. Before and after class, I will be chatting with you.

Secondly, I will be studying the teaching materials used during the class and also work prepared by the students as part of the class.

Thirdly, I will then invite you and your classmates to participate in a small group discussion. For this, students will be grouped with friends. I will have questions I want to discuss with you and the group to understand your opinions about global citizenship education. I will audio record these sessions and also take notes on my laptop. This will last approximately one hour.

Students are free to decide whether or not to participate in one, two or all of these pieces of research.

Who can take part?

I would like all students and your teacher to take part in the first and second phases. I would like approximately 12 students to participate in the small group discussions.

What will be done with the results?

I will use what I discover in class and through the small discussion groups as part of my PhD studies. I hope to share the findings at Education conferences and through writing some articles about it. Before I share it with anyone else, I will offer you the opportunity to hear about what I found out in your class.

Will you use my name in the research?

No. Your real name will not be used in this study. I will give you, your teacher and your school a different name and take every effort to ensure the anonymity of your school and the teacher. Only I will know the

connection between those different names and the real names. This information will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please note however, that there may be some legal reasons why anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Do I have to take part?

No. Your participation is voluntary. You are free to decide whether you would like to take part or not. You are also free to withdraw at any time during the research period. There will be no penalty for withdrawing before all stages of the study are completed.

What are the benefits of taking part for me?

It is hoped that the time you will have to reflect on your learning and also to discuss what you like or do not like about the classes and learning will be of benefit to you. Through participating, you will also learn a little bit about how to do research.

What are the risks in taking part?

I have not identified any risks for you from taking part.

How can I get involved?

If after reading this, you are interested, please let your teacher and parent/guardian know. You and your parent/guardian will need to sign a form each which states that you understand what the research is about and that you and your parent/guardian are happy for you to participate. This is called an Informed Consent Form.

Who should I contact if I have any further questions?

If you have questions, please do ask your teacher and I can help to answer them. You should also read this information sheet carefully.

If participants have concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact:
REC Administration,
Research Office,
St Patrick's College,
Drumcondra,
Dublin 9.
Tel +353-(0)1-884 2149
research@spd.dcu.ie



Appendix F: Informed Consent Form - Students

ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA

Informed Consent Form

Research Study Title

'Global challenges, Global citizenship; what is the local classroom reality? A Qualitative Study of Global Citizenship Education Teaching and Learning Practices'

Purpose of the Research

This research seeks to understand and describe the interactions in the global citizenship education classroom, how teachers teach the subject area and how students respond and learn.

Requirements of the student in Research Study

I have received permission from your school Principal and your teacher, [REDACTED] to observe your global citizenship education class. Please read the requirements below and indicate whether you are happy to be included in any of the below. If NOT, I will not record any of your interactions in the class nor transcribe them from the audio recordings. You will not be included in my research.

As a student, you are now asked to state if you are happy to take part in all or some of the activities below (please circle either **Yes** or **No** to each one);

- Are you happy for the researcher to observe you in the global citizenship education classroom sessions in which you take part with [REDACTED]?

Yes

No

- Are you happy for the researcher to look at and use work you produce as part of those lessons?

Yes

No

- Are you happy to take part in a discussion group with your classmates about your opinions and experiences of your global citizenship classes?

Yes

No

Will I be identified?

Your real name will not be used in this study. I will give you, your teacher and your school a different name and take every effort to ensure the anonymity of you the school and the teacher. Only I will know the connection between those names and the real names and this information will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please be note however, that there may be some legal reasons why anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Please note that involvement in the research study is voluntary; it is your decision and you are free to say yes or no.

I am aware that if I do agree to take part in this study, I can choose not to at any stage.

**Participant – Please complete the following
(Circle Yes or No for each question).**

Have you read or had read to you the information sheet? Yes/No

Do you understand the information provided? Yes/No

Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study? Yes/No

Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions? Yes/No

I understand I have the right to withdraw from this study. Yes/No

Signature: _____

I have read and understood the information in this form. The researcher has answered my questions and concerns, and I have a copy of this consent form. Therefore, I consent to take part in this research project.

Participant's Signature: _____

Name in Block Capitals: _____

Witness: _____

Date: _____



Appendix G: Plain Language Statement - Parent

ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA

Parent Information

Please read the questions and answers below carefully. They should help you understand what this research is about and help you to decide whether you want your child to take part or not.

What is this research about?

This research wants to answer the question; what does global citizenship education (GCE) * look like in the classroom. It seeks to understand what happens in the global citizenship education classroom, how students learn, ask questions and react to what they are learning. Both your child's school Principal, [REDACTED] and their teacher, [REDACTED], have agreed to take part in this study.

*global citizenship education is understood as encompassing issues and concepts such as interdependence, human rights and justice around the world. It is an educational process focussed on questioning, dialogue and critical thinking.

What will the research involve?

The research will require observation of the participating teacher and their GCE related class, of which your child is a student. It will require permitting the researcher to examine relevant teaching plans and materials and work produced by the students. It will require a one to one interview with the teacher and four discussion sessions with approximately 12 consenting students. The classroom observations, the teacher interview and the student discussion groups will be audio recorded and supported by note taking on my laptop.

Students are free to decide whether or not to participate in one, two or all of these pieces of research.

Who can take part?

I would like all students in the class to take part in the first and second phases. I would like approximately 12 students to participate in the small group discussions.

What will be done with the results?

I will use what I discover in class and through the small discussion groups as part of my PhD studies. I hope to share what I find at Education conferences and through writing some articles about it. Before I share it with anyone else, I will offer the students and the teacher the opportunity to hear about what I found out in their class.

Will my child be identifiable in the research?

No. Your child's real name will not be used in this study. I will give your child, their teacher and school a different name and take every effort to ensure they are not identified. Only I will know the connection between those different names and the real names. This information will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please note however, that there may be some legal reasons why anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed.

All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Does my child I have to take part?

No. Your child's participation is voluntary. You are free to decide whether you would like your child to take part or not. You are also free to withdraw your child at any time during the research period. There will be no penalty for withdrawing your child before all stages of the study are completed.

Should you decide that you do not want your child to take part in any phase of the research, I will not include your child's interactions in class or their work in my note taking. I will not use or transcribe any of their classroom discussions from the audio files.

What are the benefits of taking part for my child?

It is hoped that the time your child will have to reflect on their experiences in class will enhance their learning. Through participating, your child will also have the opportunity to learn a little bit about how to do research.

What are the risks in taking part?

I have not identified any risks for your child from taking part.

How can my child get involved?

If after reading this, you are happy for your child to take part, please discuss it with them. Both you and your child will need to sign a form each which states that you understand what the research is about and that you are happy for your child to participate. This is called an Informed Consent Form.

Who should I contact if I have any further questions?

Researcher Contact Details:

Maria Barry, Centre for Human Rights & Citizenship Education, St Patrick's College, Drumcondra, Dublin 9.

Tel: [REDACTED]

Email: maria.barry@dcu.ie

If participants have concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact:

REC Administration,

Research Office,

St Patrick's College,

Drumcondra,

Dublin 9.

Tel +353-(0)1-884 2149

research@spd.dcu.ie



Appendix H: Informed Consent Form - Parents
ST PATRICK'S COLLEGE DRUMCONDRA
Informed Consent Form

Research Study Title

‘Global challenges, Global citizenship; what is the local reality? Making Meaning of Global Citizenship Education in the classroom’

Purpose of the Research

This research seeks to understand and describe the interactions in the global citizenship education classroom, how teachers teach the subject area and how students respond and learn.

Requirements of Participation in Research Study

I have received permission from your child's school and [REDACTED] to observe their global citizenship education class. Please read the requirements below and indicate whether you are happy for your child to be included in any of the below. If NOT, I will record any of their interaction in the class nor transcribe what they say from the audio recordings.

Parent/Guardian is asked to indicate their willingness permit their child to participate on all or some of the list below (**please circle either Yes or No for each one**);

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| - Grant permission for the researcher to observe your child in the classroom sessions in which they take part | |
| Yes | No |
| - Grant permission for the researcher to look at and use work your child produces as part of those lessons | |
| Yes | No |
| - Permit their child to participate in a discussion group about their opinions and experiences of their global citizenship classes | |
| Yes | No |

Will my child be identified?

Your child will not be identified by their name in this study. Every effort will be made to also ensure the anonymity of the school and the teacher. Pseudonyms for the school, the teacher and the students will be used. A key linking these pseudonyms and to the actual participants will be viewed only by the researcher. This will be stored in a secure filing system in the college.

Please be advised however, that given the small sample size of the study and legal limitations regarding the confidentiality of information, that anonymity cannot be completely guaranteed.

Efforts to protect confidentiality of data will be rigorously upheld. All materials and notes gathered over the course of the study will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the college and on my password protected laptop which is the property of the college. All confidential materials gathered will be appropriately destroyed and disposed of within a five-year period.

Please note that involvement in the research study is voluntary

I am aware that if I agree to let my child take part in this study, s/he can be withdrawn by me from participation at any stage.

**Parent/Guardian of Participant – Please complete the following
(Circle Yes or No for each question).**

Have you read or had read to you the Plain Language Statement? Yes/No

Do you understand the information provided? Yes/No

Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study? Yes/No

Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions? Yes/No

I understand I have the right to withdraw my child from this study. Yes/No

Signature: _____

I have read and understood the information in this form. The researcher has answered my questions and concerns, and I have a copy of this consent form. Therefore, I consent to permit to allow my child to take part in this research project.

Parent/Guardian of Participant's Signature: _____

Name in Block Capitals: _____

Your child's name: _____

Witness: _____

Date: _____

Appendix I: Observational Schedule

| | |
|--|---|
| <p>Class Details</p> <p>Date</p> <p>Time</p> <p>School</p> <p>Teacher</p> <p>Class name</p> <p>No of students</p> | <p>Lesson Details</p> <p>Theme of lesson</p> <p>Learning outcomes</p> <p>Methodologies</p> <p>Materials used</p> |
| <p>Class Layout (sketch)</p> | <p>Homework</p> |

| Interaction being observed | Notes |
|---|-------|
| Pair work | |
| Group work | |
| Teacher-student dialogue | |
| Student -teacher dialogue | |
| Student to student dialogue | |
| Information presented as fact | |
| Problem posing | |
| Expression of alternative views | |
| Reference to external events | |
| Reference to other classes/learning experiences | |
| Action oriented thinking | |

Appendix J: Interview Questions - Teachers

Name: _____

School: _____

Date: _____

Time: _____

Years teaching: _____

Subjects: _____

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this interview. I want to remind you that participating in this is entirely voluntary and you are free to stop the interview at any stage.

The interview will take a maximum of 90 minutes. I have a number of headings and discussion points I want to explore with you. Please feel free to answer openly.

Would you like me to share a transcript of this interview with you?

Are you happy to proceed?

Introduction

1. Can you tell me about your reasons for choosing a teaching career and your experience to date? (Probe: incl ITE and any CPD-related to GCE)
2. Who or what drives the curriculum in your school?
3. What do you see as your role in relation to your students? (Probe: preparation for exams, participation in society, knowledge, skills)

Planning and developing a programme of work

4. What is the process you go through in terms of selecting classroom materials?
5. How do you set the module objectives, content and methodologies- what are the criteria you use?
6. To what extent do you collaborate and link in with other colleagues and subject areas?
7. Are there extracurricular opportunities in the school that are linked to this module?

Experiences, opinions and feelings towards GCE

8. For how long have you been teaching GCE related classes and how did you come to teach this module? Why geopolitics? How would you explain this term?
9. Can you describe what you teach in these classes and how you go about that teaching?
10. Has the nature of the subject or the way you teach it changed since you began teaching it? (Probe: considered other ways....?)
11. During the module, you made connections and distinctions between this subject and other subjects such as History, Geography and RE – can you talk a little but about that?
12. What do you see as the purpose of offering GCE in secondary schools? (Probe: political, empathy)
13. Can you describe a lesson that you that you felt really positive about?
14. Can you tell me a little about the challenges that arise in the classroom when teaching GCE? Any particular moments that stand out from this module?

GCE and students

15. How would you describe the students' responses to the module? (Probe: - any examples?)
16. How would you describe their role in class?
17. Have you experienced resistance from the students? If so, can you give me an example? Probe: How did the situation arise, how did it end?
18. Have you experienced situations where the students have disagreed with one another? If so
19. How do you view controversial situations of disagreement or conflict like this? (Probe: desirable, to be used as a learning opportunity)

Teaching and Learning

20. What do you set out to achieve with the students in relation to this module in terms of learning outcomes? What do you want students to learn? (Probe: beyond content)
21. At one point you said challenge everything, accept nothing – can you explain what you meant by that?
22. To what extent do you think this was achieved? (Probe: what has been successful and why, what has proved to be a challenge and why)
23. How have the different years/classes responded? What makes things different? (relationships...)
24. What learning opportunities does the module present? (Probe: different to other modules, for you, the student and the wider school)
25. How do the teaching materials you use support the learning for the students?

Final thoughts/ questions

26. Is there anything you haven't been asked that you'd like to add?

Many thanks for your time

Appendix K: Focus Group Discussion Questions

I will open the discussion by reminding the students of the purpose of my research and the voluntary nature of their participation.

Ask them each to introduce themselves...

1. What are you learning in this GCE module? What are the key messages? (Probe re knowledge, skills, attitudes)
2. What do you like/dislike about this subject? (Probe; any difficulties/challenges)
3. What influences your learning in this module? (Probe: home, media, classmates, friends)
4. How important do you think your teacher is in supporting you to learn in this module? (Probe: their knowledge, passion, experience)
5. How do you feel about the types of activities that you did – can you list them, describe them? How are they different to other classroom experiences? What do you think is the purpose of them?
6. Would you feel confident and able to challenge the teacher or another classmate in this class? (Probe: can to give me an example?)
7. To what extent do you believe and accept what you have been taught in this module? (Probe: is it important and relevant to you? anything you disagree with/have difficulty with?)
8. How do you feel about differing opinions or disagreements in class? (Probe: positive or negative?)
9. How would you describe the topics and issues you've covered in class?
10. Can you think of anything controversial or stereotypical that was said in the class? How did you feel about that?
11. What do you think are the best sources of information for this subject? (Probe: textbooks, teacher, media, other)
12. What behaviour is expected of students in your school in the classroom? (Probe: do you feel free to express your opinion, are you listened to?)
13. What do you think is the purpose of learning in school?
14. How would you describe the relationship you have with your teachers here?
15. What other projects are you involved with in TY?
16. What plans do you have for the future?

Final thoughts

17. Is there something I haven't asked that you like to discuss now.
18. Any final comments or reflections?

Appendix L: Phase One – Open Codes

‘accept nothing, challenge everything’

Acceptance

Access to America

Action

Active learning

Ad hoc topic

Addressing questions

Affirmation

Africa

Agreeing

Alternative view

Answers

Ask questions

Assessment

Attitude to teaching

Bad things

Being a teenager

Being alone

Being careful

Being cheeky

Being explicit

Being honest

Being judged

Being open

Being ready

Being valued

Being wrong

Brainstorming

Campaigning

Campaigns

Challenging

Change

Choices and decisions

Chorus response

Clarifying

Class description

Classroom atmosphere

Classroom size

Compare ideas

Complaining

Complexity

concrete territory

Contrasts

Control

Controversy

CPD

Creating spaces

Curriculum

Debate

Description of students

Description of teacher

Detail

Difference

Discipline

Discussion

Disease

Displays

Distractions

Emotional response

Ethos

Evaluation

Exams

Expectation of students

Experiences

Explaining

Extra-curricular activities

Facts

Feedback

Feeling safe

Flexibility

Formality

GCEDevEd

Gender

Hand up

Hearing each other

Help

Homework

Hurt

I don't know

Impact

Indistinguishable

Influences

Information

Interest

Into perspective

IS

It's kind of like two sides to it.

Journal

just accepting

Leads on to...

Learning outcomes

let us think for ourselves

Listening

Making a difference

Making It Real

Maps

Media

Migration

more aware

Motivation

Moving on
 my mission
 old fashioned.
 Other GCE teachers
 Other opinions
 Other subjects
 our bubble.
 outside world
 Pace
 Pairwork
 Parents
 Paris attacks
 Participation
 Peer teaching
 Peers
 Pictures
 Politics & Society
 Power
 Priorities
 Project
 Purpose
 Purpose of school
 Quote
 Racism
 Reactivity
 Recommendations
 reliable source
 Research
 Resistance
 Resources
 Respect
 Returning
 Rhetorical question
 School atmosphere
 School management

School setting
 Self-expression
 Silence
 Skills
 Social media
 Socio-economic context
 Staff behaviour
 Staffroom
 Stereotypes
 Struggling
 Student ability
 Student action
 Student attendance
 Student behaviour
 Student body language
 Student choice
 Student confidence
 Student expression
 Student involvement
 Student knowledge
 Student Learning
 Student opinions
 Student recall
 Student response
 Student suggestions
 Student supplies
 Student task
 Student-student interaction
 Student-teacher interaction
 Taking notes
 Teacher Approach
 Teacher autonomy
 Teacher background
 Teacher confidence
 Teacher contradiction

Teacher experience
 Teacher extending
 Teacher Initiative
 Teacher Interest
 Teacher Knowledge
 Teacher Opinion
 Teacher Organisation
 Teacher preparation
 Teacher reflection
 Teacher requests
 Teacher response
 Teacher talking
 Teacher workload
 Teachers attitude
 Teachers behaviour
 Teachers delivery
 Teachers job
 Teacher-student relationship
 Terminology
 Terminology (2)
 Terror
 Textbooks
 The bell goes
 The truth
 Them
 Thinking
 Time
 Time to respond
 Topic description
 Topics presented
 Travel
 Trust
 TY
 Uncertainty
 Understanding

Use of ICT
Use of the board
Voice
we're privileged
Whole class
Wider sector context
Worksheet
your opinion matters

Appendix M: Phase Two – Focussed Codes

| |
|------------------------|
| Action |
| Campaigns |
| Extracurricular |
| Help |
| Student action |
| Assessment |
| Evaluation |
| Journal |
| Portfolio |
| Project |
| Being a teenager |
| Challenging |
| Teacher challenging |
| Complexity |
| Alternative view |
| Contrasts |
| Controversy |
| Confidence |
| Student confidence |
| Teacher confidence |
| Content |
| Ad hoc topic |
| Africa |
| Terminology |
| Topic description |
| Topics presented |
| Context |
| GCEDevEd context |
| School context |
| Socio-economic context |
| The bell goes |

| |
|--------------------------------|
| Description of site and sample |
| Classroom atmosphere |
| Description of students |
| Pace |
| Difference |
| Them |
| Discussion |
| Debate |
| Dispositions |
| Student dispositions |
| Teacher & Student |
| Teachers dispositions |
| Trust |
| Emotional responses |
| Student emotional response |
| Students feeling... |
| Teacher feeling... |
| Facts |
| Gender |
| I don't know |
| Influences |
| Media |
| Parents |
| Social media |
| Information |
| Innovation |
| Interactions |
| Student-student interaction |
| Student-teacher interaction |
| Teacher-student relationship |
| Interest |
| Student interest |

| |
|-----------------------|
| Teacher Interest |
| Normal class |
| Opinions |
| Other opinions |
| Student interest |
| Student opinions |
| Teacher Opinion |
| Other subjects |
| Paris attacks |
| Participation |
| Power |
| Agency |
| Choices and decisions |
| Student autonomy |
| Teacher autonomy |
| Purpose |
| Action |
| Campaigns |
| Extra-curricular |
| Help |
| Student action |
| our bubble. |
| Purpose of school |
| Teacher Purpose |
| Questions |
| Quotes |
| Racism |
| Reactivity |
| Resistance |
| Resources |
| Maps |
| Photos |

| |
|---------------------------------|
| Textbooks, Documents & Supplies |
| Use of ICT |
| Use of the board |
| Silence |
| Stereotypes |
| Student activities |
| Student behaviour |
| Attendance |
| Hand up |
| Listening |
| Student knowledge |
| Student recall |
| Student Learning |
| How |
| Relevance |
| Understanding |
| What |
| Student responses |
| Chorus response |
| Student tasks |
| Homework |
| Notes |
| Pair work/Group work |
| Reading |
| Research |
| Teacher Approach |
| Movement |
| Positioning |
| Style |
| Techniques |
| Teacher Knowledge |
| Teacher profile |

| |
|--------------------|
| CPD |
| Teacher background |
| Teacher workload |
| Teacher requests |
| Teacher talking |
| Time |
| Time to respond |
| Voice |
| Volunteers |

Appendix N: Phase 3 – Themes

| Appendix N: Phase 3 – Themes | 4. Nature of GCE | 7. Teacher as Person |
|--|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. (Un)Bounded Classroom | Assessment | I don't know |
| Being a teenager | Complexity | Student-teacher interaction |
| Context | Content | Style |
| Description of site and sample | Difference | Teacher & Student |
| Dispositions | Emotional responses | Teacher feeling... |
| Frameworks | Innovation | Teacher profile |
| Influences | Racism | Teachers dispositions |
| Information | Stereotypes | Teacher-student relationship |
| Normal class | 5. Rationale for GCE | Trust |
| Power | Action | |
| Student behaviour | Purpose | |
| Time | Student Learning | |
| 2. Knowledge and curriculum | Volunteers | |
| Content | 6. Rules of engagement | |
| Influences | Being a teenager | |
| Information | Challenging | |
| Interactions | Classroom atmosphere | |
| Paris attacks | Description of students | |
| Resources | Discussion | |
| Student knowledge | Dispositions | |
| Teacher Knowledge | I don't know | |
| 3. Methodologies, structures and frameworks | Interactions | |
| Discussion | Participation | |
| Facts | Power | |
| Opinions | Resistance | |
| Questions | School context | |
| Student responses | Silence | |
| Student tasks | Student confidence | |
| Teacher Approach | Student interest | |
| Teacher requests | Student interest (2) | |
| Teacher talking | Student responses | |
| | Students feeling... | |