

Implementation of the Nigerian Civic Education Curriculum to develop Effective Citizenship in Young Learners: Stakeholders Perspectives

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

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Abstract

Independent Nigeria is confronted with a plethora of citizenship (socio-political) issues and problems which various informal citizenship advocacy programmes have been unable to resolve. Also, sundry formal school programmes like social studies curriculum used to develop effective citizenship failed due to implementation lapses. This failure led to the severing of citizenship issues from social studies to form a new subject called civic education.

Thus, this research was conducted to appraise the effective implementation of the school civic curriculum at the basic and senior secondary levels in Lagos and Ogun states, in the south-western geo-political zone of Nigeria. Three sets of stakeholders who are key civic curriculum implementers were selected as participants: twenty-nine teacher educators at colleges and universities; two hundred and ninety-eight civic teachers and five hundred and seventy learners at basic and senior secondary levels. Open and closed questionnaires and focus group discussion were administered on these participants.

The study adopted an ethno-nationalistic, critical and global citizenship theoretical framework to underpin the study. This was because the issue and activity based curriculum objectives were to develop effective citizenship along nationalistic (political) citizenship with the marginal intent of developing critical/global (apolitical) citizenship.

The study showed that classroom civic curriculum implementation focused more on learners' knowledge constructions with less emphasis on developing skills and dispositions due to inadequate school extracurricular programmes. In line with the objectives, teachers focus more on political knowledge at the expense of nongovernmental (apolitical) issues. The above findings were due to the inadequate recruitment of civic teachers leading to personnel improvisation which entailed seconding teachers lacking civic content knowledge and pedagogical skills to teach the subject. Also, the study showed eclectic pedagogical classroom practices whereby teachers mixed active (learner-based) pedagogies with didactic (teacher-based) teaching style to implement classroom civic education. The study also found that focus on knowledge construction and teacher-centred pedagogies reflected inadequate and/or irregular training which resulted in civic teachers' self-empowerment to improve their content knowledge and teaching skills. Teachers lacked mediation tools like textbooks and other teaching aids to properly implement civic content in the classroom. Evidently,

implementation lapses that hindered social studies objectives are also a barrier to effective implementation of civic education curriculum in our schools.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to:

The Almighty God who abided with me throughout this programme

My late Mother: Florence Ajoke Nurata Idowu

My wife: Olubukola and

My girls: Erioluwa and Inioluwa.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this Thesis is the result of my independent investigation, except where I have indicated my indebtedness to other sources.

I hereby certify that this Thesis has not already been accepted in substance for any other degree, nor is it being submitted concurrently for any other degree.

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The steadfast love of the LORD never ceaseth, HIS mercy never comes to an end. They are new every morning, great is thy faithfulness O LORD (Lam 3:22-23).

Let us think of education as the means of developing our greatest abilities, because in each of us there is a private hope and dream which, fulfilled, can be translated into benefit for everyone. (John F. Kennedy Proclamation 3422 - American Education Week, July 25, 1961

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List of Abbreviations

CEQ- Civic Experts Questionnaire
CGD- Classroom Group Discussion
CLQ- Civic Learners' Questionnaire
CTQ- Civic Teacher's Questionnaire
DV- Dependent Variable
ECD- Effective Citizenship Development
IV- Independent Variable
LCD- Leading Classroom Discussion
NGC - Nongovernment Citizenship
OCD- Open Classroom Discussion
PC - Political Citizenship
PPP - Classroom Pedagogical Practices
PSR - School Resources

Chapter 1

1.0 Introduction

This chapter starts with a synopsis of Nigeria to familiarise non-Nigerian readers with basic facts on the study location in order to offer better insight on issues discussed in the thesis. The Federal Republic of Nigeria is a 'multinational state,' consisting of about two hundred and fifty ethnic nationalities with Hausa-Fulani, Igbo and Yoruba as the main groups. Nigeria, as the world's thirty-second largest country, is sited on the West African Gulf of Guinea and equals the size of Venezuela, is nearly twice the state of California and one-third of Western Australia (Omolade, 2006; Williams, 2008; Sofadekan, 2012; Bolaji, 2014).

As a boy, I learnt that the name 'Nigeria' was given by Flora Shaw- the wife of Lord Lugard, the then Governor-General. Nigeria was derived from two words, 'Niger' and 'area' implying the geographical land and people around the area of the river Niger (Meek, 1960). Geographically, Nigeria is situated alongside the West African coast, and is enclosed to the north by the Republics of Chad and Niger, to the west by Benin Republic, to the east by Cameroon and to the south by the Atlantic Ocean. Demographically, it is the most populous Black nation in the world with an estimated population of over 168,000,000 people occupying a land mass of 923,768 square kilometres (NPC, 2012; World Bank, 2013). As a former British colony, English is the official lingua franca to communicate in government and education inter alia. The populace contains a large number of Muslims and Christians while a small minority practise African traditional religion.

Despite gaining political independence in 1960, this multinational state still faces a plethora of citizenship (socio-political) issues hindering nation building and national development. These issues include grasping the reality of its nationhood and not just a mere geographical expression (Awolowo, 1947), or a gathering of tribes (Soyinka, 1963 in Anyaoku, 2011) or a casual, denigrated mechanism amalgamated by the Niger Delta crude oil, and a seeking of a common, national identity (Osundare, 2011). Also, appointing political officeholders based on zoning rather than merit deprived competent citizens the chance to exhibit patriotic zeal through public and political service. Besides, ethnic affiliation and loyalty permeate all parts of our national life. These and other issues

discussed below led to nurturing democratic spectators instead of active players able and willing to engage in our polity (Ehrlich, 2000).

In tackling these issues, past governments initiated informal citizenship advocacy programmes and formal school programmes such as integrated social studies and civic education via educational reforms. Albeit these citizenship advocacy programmes are briefly examined below, nevertheless, this study's main focus is whether implementation of these school programmes achieved their purposes.

I examine this because generally, implementation is an issue militating against attaining policy and programme goals in Nigeria. In fact, the 1955 free primary education in Western region and national universal primary education in 1976 and also 1982 6-3-3-4 reforms failed due to implementation lapses. Specifically, the inept style of implementing school programmes like social studies was why the subject failed to turn its objectives into practical realities in learners. The perceived failure of social studies led to reviewing its curriculum under a new reform called Universal Basic Education. A major outcome of the review was disarticulating the citizenship content to become a distinct subject curriculum called Civic Education. This subject was initiated to focus mainly on stimulating and reforming learners' socio-political knowledge, disposition and skills in accordance with a national philosophy of sound and effective citizenship. Therefore, as a teacher educator, I explore the impacts of translating civic programme intents into classroom implementation to develop learners' citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills.

1.1 Background to the study

This section expounds on the underlying citizenship issues raised above and the inability of diverse informal and formal programmes implemented up till 1999 failed to address the issues. I argue that the 1999 government rethink on how best to develop sound and effective citizenship led to initiating civic education to mediate a civic mission in schools.

1.1:1 Citizenship issues/problems within Nigeria's context

As stated above, fifty-five years after political independence Nigeria has been unable to achieve sustainable nation building and development. This is due to issues such as ethnic polarisation, long years of military rule and low levels of civic dispositions among other factors.

Studies reveal that coercing diverse ethnic-nationalities into a federation called Nigeria led to ethnocentrism, polarisation and ongoing insurgency. Both majority and minority ethnic nationalities have been agitating for some degree of autonomy thus creating a set of centrifugal forces which constitute a major barrier to the continuous corporate existence of Nigeria as a unified nation (NERC, 1983 in Okam et al, 2011). In fact, a comparative study of ethnic affinities among African students showed Nigerian students identified more with their ethnic nationalities than students of other countries. Also, a former Education Minister (a Professor of political science) warned that Nigeria could lose its sense of nationhood due to the constant focus on ethnic affinity (Klieberg & Zavalloni in Okam, 2001; Okam, et al, 2011; Adeniran, 2009 in Jekayinfa et al, 2011). This implies an inability to develop a feeling of national identity, pride and unity ensuing from perpetual inter-ethnic and religious insurgency and secession threats.

Unending inter-ethnic and religious insurgency and secession threats, intolerance of political oppositions leading to imprisonment and assassination, non-credible and contentious elections, among others led to military incursion into political governance. Scholars claim that military rule via coups d'état caused the demise of the democratic system and citizenship ethos in the then newly independent Nigeria with the conviction that such military intervention will address above stated national issues. But, as will be discussed in Chapter 3, 26 years of military rule created adverse impacts instead of the expected positive changes on citizenship development (Aluko, 1998; Falade, 2007). Such negative impacts included a lack of civic values, corruption, avoidance of civic duties, disobeying laws, human rights abuse, dishonest acts in governance, cultism and examination malpractices in our citadels of learning. Also, there was apathy and decline in citizenship commitment depicting citizens as passive, naïve and blithe to public affairs (Eya, 2003, Iyamu & Otole, 2003; Bello-Imam & Obadan, 2004; Falade, 2007).

1.1:2 The Way Out:

1.1:2(a) Informal citizenship advocacy programmes

Addressing the issues mentioned above and to instil national consciousness, integration, identity and values, led to successive military and democratic governments evolving different citizenship advocacy programmes as solutions. These programmes involved the Jaji Declaration (1977), Ethical Revolution and establishing a Centre for Democratic Studies (1982-83), 'War Against Indiscipline (WAI) (1984-85)', Mass Mobilization for

Social and Economic Recovery (MAMSER) 1986-93, ‘War Against Indiscipline and Corruption (WAIC)’ (1994-99)’ and ‘national rebirth (1999-2007). Though these programmes were novel initiatives which involved all socialising agents with an intent to entrench in, and adequately equip citizens with anticipated effective civic and citizenship culture, the programmes failed because they ended with the administration that initiated them as well as using indoctrination, coercion and propaganda as a means of enforcing obedience. Considering the magnitude of citizenship issues, coercion and government media propaganda were unsuitable methods to use to develop a new civic culture. Even the political bureau set up in 1987 identified the exposure of Nigerians to deceptions, manipulations and propaganda leading to low levels of citizenship literacy or even perpetual ignorance on crucial national issues by the political class (Gana, 1987; Falade, 2007).

1.1:2(b) Social Studies to Civic Education

Simultaneously with the above advocacy programmes, the government still believed in the efficacy of formal education as a veritable mechanism to achieve reform objectives (Etzioni, 1993; National Policy on Education, 2004). Such reforms involved implementing formal curriculum to mediate socio-political initiation and transformation. That is, using the schools to bring about citizenship (socio-political) initiation and reformation of society despite the fact that schools also perpetuate socio-political stratification and inequalities leading to imbalance in society. As discussed in Chapter 2, realising the former roles led to introducing social studies as a multi/interdisciplinary school subject which studies man in his diverse environments. Social studies was initiated with the intent to guide learners to construct knowledge, develop dispositions and skills about man in his diverse settings from an integrated view (Okobiah, 1985; United States National Council on Social Studies, 1992; Muyanda-Mutebi, 1994; Ogunyemi, 2011).

Fifty-two years of teaching the subject could still not attain effective citizenship goals as evidenced in persistent ethnic affinity, corruption, etc. Though its failure was attributed to the unwieldy scope which makes the school and classroom implementation process difficult, the actual failure could be due to a false hope that schools could clear up a societal mess yet, it would be naive to overlook a poor implementation process as a contributory factor to the inability to actualise curriculum content (Adesina, 1986; Omoyale, 1998; Fafunwa, 2004; Bolaji, 2014).

As discussed in Chapter 3, poor implementation involved using inexperienced teachers who use didactic pedagogies to focus on knowledge attainment while ignoring dispositions and skills domains (SaliaBao, 1981; Okam, 2005). It also involved inadequate provision of instructional materials as well as irregular or lack of continuous professional development on the epistemology and ontology inherent in the subject curriculum (Mezieobi, 1993; Okam, 1996; Lat, 1998). From studies, less than 20% of teachers used analytical methods in the instructional content delivery. In actual fact, most classroom implementation process lacked interactive or participatory pedagogies like open climate, leading discussion, group presentations, dramatisation, role-play, simulation, critical thinking and problem-solving (Okam, 2002; Ogunyemi, 2005; Akyeampong, 2009; Hardman et al, 2010). This showed the social studies teaching has been ineffective thus leading to perpetual growth of social disorder, decline in young peoples' civic and political insights, literacy and skills. Thus, there is a lacuna in literacy and grasp of Nigeria's political system and institutions (Mansaray & Ajiboye, 2000; Ajiboye, 2002; Kerr et al, 2002; Zaman, 2006; Falade, 2007).

Instead of the failure of social studies to develop effective citizenship resulting in critical, systematic and prudent situational analysis to address implementation lapses, its unwieldy scope, which makes it pay less attention to citizenship issues was used as the reason for a presidential fiat to disarticulate citizenship content, thus making social studies a victim of constant curriculum illiteracy and over-politicisation of education as will be discussed in Chapter 3 (Kosemani, 1984; Ogunyemi, 2006, 2009; Obebe, 2007; NERDC, 2007).

1.1:3 Civic Education Curriculum Programme

From the above, the failure of social studies necessitated a review of the totality of civic learning experiences young learners required via classroom implementation in the teaching and learning of citizenship issues. This review integrated abstract and practical extra and co-curricular activities in consonance with current global realities. Accordingly, the review resulted in initiating activity and issues based separate civic subject objectives and content as will be discussed in Chapter 3. The new civic objectives and content designed by the state, as the sole definer of citizenship goals, gave more attention to nationalistic values like civic duties and participation which requires absolute national loyalty, identity, integration and obedience to state values. Its focus is on citizen rights and autonomy, yet not the right to question loyalty or patriotism and be critical of state policies as will be discussed in Chapter 2.

Successfully implementing this citizenship content as designed in the curriculum to achieve civic objectives in the school requires adequate school resources and relevant pedagogies. The impacts of these implementation indices on civic content learning are hardly explored in most extant studies. Instead, foci of these studies (ICSS/IEA) underline external sociological and demographic factors which constantly report the deviation and disparity in young learners' civic learning. Although demographic factors can be vital to both policymakers and classroom teachers because such information offers better understanding of the learners, the impact of adequate school resources coupled with effective pedagogy to assess implementation of civic learning should also be a crucial area of study as stated by Peterson:

I believe we need different kinds of research—quantitative and/(or) qualitative... classroom focused and teacher driven as well as researcher driven. I think we can best do this by developing a research...for civic learning...teaching practices and their influence on learning. This element is missing from the ICCS study. ... We want to know what educational practices make a difference in...our students – what helps them to learn to the best of their ability (Peterson, 2010 quoted in Kennedy, 2010).

To understand the impact of civic curriculum content on effective citizenship development, I explored whether: university/colleges of education lecturers perceived civic objectives as appropriate, what civic teachers think about school resources provided, which pedagogies are practiced during classroom implementation and how learners perceived civic content impacts on their citizenship development. Hence, I explored how civic programme objectives translate into classroom implementation both in teaching and learning using the curriculum content to guide learners construct knowledge, develop dispositions and skills to analyse national issues and problems which impact upon their daily lives as Nigerians.

A realistic and constructive look at the findings and suggestions of this study by curriculum planners and developers and policy makers could guide in enriching civic curriculum programmes in order to meet the desires of our founding fathers regarding the national goal of developing sound and effective citizenship. Also, I expect that this study could evoke more research on attaining civic education programme objectives.

1.2 Research Questions

Civic values are deteriorating among young learners in the Nigerian society due to the school curriculum not implemented with conscious efforts to help young learners

construct knowledge and develop dispositions on civic issues. Although the school, through the civic curriculum, performs a crucial function it is obviously not the only agency for socio-political development. Though this study focuses on the school implementation of civic curriculum, it should not be construed as isolating the school and the civic curriculum as the main agency for mediating civic participation in Nigeria.

Thus, civic education is needed in our educational institutions to develop civic dispositions and skills essential to functioning, effective citizens ready and willing to contribute meaningfully to the political process. Therefore, the study assessed whether civic curriculum content could offer young learners appropriate and relevant civic and citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills to solve problems and make decisions regarding the national citizenship (socio-political) issues and problems adversely affecting our country. Hence the overarching question for this study is: “What is the impact of the school and classroom implementation process of civic curriculum content on developing effective citizenship in Lagos and Ogun states, Nigeria presently?” To answer this, I explore the following research questions:

1a. Do civic experts perceive civic curriculum intents (objectives) as appropriate to construct civic knowledge, develop dispositions and skills in young learners?

1b Do young learners perceive that civic curriculum content impacts on their civic knowledge, dispositions and skills development? (Chapter 5)

2. Do civic teachers perceive school resources as adequate to develop civic knowledge, dispositions and skills in young learners? (Chapter 6)

3. Which classroom pedagogies do civic teachers employ to develop civic knowledge, dispositions and skills in young learners? (Chapter 7)

1.3 Research process

I engaged firstly in sequential exploratory research in which a questionnaire survey (quantitative) was administered and later focus group discussions (qualitative) were organised independently to underpin survey data. Through this I give detailed information on issues which a survey alone could not offer on stakeholders' perceived civic objectives aptness and classroom civic content implementation impacts on developing knowledge, dispositions and skills. To attain this, I divided the study into three phases which involved (a) administering an open and closed questionnaire to lecturers teaching socio-political (citizenship) related courses in universities and colleges of education in Nigeria to assess whether civic programme objectives are knowledge, dispositions and skills based. I

analysed the data gathered statistically and thematically. Also, I administered a questionnaire to civic teachers and later organised focus group discussions for them for in-depth explanations of issues on recruitment, training and instructional materials for civic content classroom implementation. The third level involved a young learners' questionnaire and focus group on civic content impact and possible classroom implementation issues on pedagogies and instructional materials availability.

1.4 Outline of Thesis

This thesis comprises eight chapters. Chapter 1 discusses background issues and problems leading to the re-introduction of civic education curriculum and its impacts on young learners. Also, I examine the research process and delineate the thesis chapters. Chapter 2, offers theoretical framework which involved adapting and integrating various citizenship models to develop effective citizenship theories related to my study. From these theories, I define effective citizenship and examined civic pedagogical practices underpinning classroom civic implementation. Chapter 3, examines literature from the Nigerian perspective by first acquainting readers with the country of my research setting. Also, I examine relevant academic literature relating to the Nigerian education system, curriculum implementation and civic education curriculum objectives and content. Moreover, I consider extant studies on civic objectives, school resources and pedagogical practices. In Chapter 4, I describe my research methodology, data collection and analyses. I discuss ethical issues surrounding the data collection. In Chapter 5, I discuss the results along with relevant literature on whether twenty-nine civic experts perceive civic programme objectives as appropriate to mediate knowledge construction, dispositions and skills development. Also, I examine data underpinned with literature on whether young learners perceive civic content classroom implementation as guiding their knowledge construction, dispositions and skills development. Chapter 6 presents data and literature on how civic teachers perceive the recruitment of teachers, continuous professional development and instructional materials provision to enable the teaching of civic education. In Chapter 7, I focus on whether classroom implementation regarding pedagogical practices had an impact on civic education content to develop young learners' knowledge construction, dispositions and skills development. In Chapter 8, I present the implications of my study and propose recommendations based on the research evidence gathered. Moreover, I elucidate on the research contributions to knowledge and propose future directions for research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.0 Theoretical Setting on Civic Education Classroom Implementation

I present in this chapter the theoretical basis of the study on classroom implementation of civic instructions to construct knowledge, develop dispositions and skills as indices of effective citizenship development in Nigerian learners. In doing this, I start with how civic education emerged from social studies, examine its definitions and rationale as well as impact on learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills. Also, I put citizenship in the proper context of literature on what constitutes effective citizenship in the citizenship theories. Furthermore, I discuss effective citizenship as the overall goal of school civic education. Lastly, I examine civic education pedagogical theories involving social constructivism, transformative learning and reflective inquiry to underpin classroom implementation.

2.1 Civic Education

This section present civic education as the major issue of interest used to initiate and/or reform learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills on the state political system. However, since citizenship issues which constitutes the major content of civic education, emerged from integrated social studies, my discussion of civic education starts by first clarifying the link between the two in Nigeria. Also, I examine the definitions, rationale for, and civic education impacts on learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills to discover on which domain or component it impacted more.

2.2 Social Studies Education and Civic Education

Civic education has been an area of global academic learning and research interest due to growing classroom implementation in the school system of developing and transitional democracies. It is implemented globally by these countries to initiate, sustain and/or reform learners' knowledge and skills to exhibit loyalty and patriotism, obedience and/or critical citizenship vital to engaging in local, national and global activities. Since citizenship issues, which are a major content of civic education, was hitherto an integral part of the Nigerian integrated social studies then, it is pertinent to expound how civic education emerged from social studies.

2.2:1 Social Studies Education

The foundation for the implementation of Social Studies education started as an experiment at Aiyetoro Comprehensive High School in 1963. This experiment was a partnership programme between the (then) Western Regional Government, the Ford Foundation and the University of Washington, USA. However, the 1977-1998 education policies, depicted Social Studies education (as stated in Chapter 1) as a multi/inter disciplinary curriculum designed to develop learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills on the diverse environment of man. Thus it became a core subject at the Junior Secondary School (JSS) level and its content comprising man in relation to environmental issues like population, geographical/physical, science, technology and political issues-democracy, human rights, governance, inter alia for effective citizenship (Muyanda-Mutebi, 1994; Priestley, 2009; Ogunyemi, 2010, 2011). Its goal was based on the stance articulated by the United States National Council on Social Studies to mediate learners' acquisition of skills to make rational decisions for public good within their democratic system (National Council for Social Studies, 1992).

Nevertheless, a review of the educational policy in 2004 led to a focus on contemporary local and global issues such as drug abuse, youth unemployment and restiveness, HIV/AIDS education, environmental education, family life education, children/women trafficking, and peace and conflict resolution among other issues. The review was to guide learners to develop the skills to adapt to ecological dynamics as well as appreciating the diverse cultures, history and basic issues that make them humans (Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council, 2007; Ogunyemi, 2011).

Contrasting the two (1998 and 2004) education policy versions revealed that citizenship issues which have been part of integrated social studies philosophy for over forty-one years was evidently severed from the latter (2004) version. The severance was attributed to the unwieldy scope of the social studies curriculum making classroom implementation, especially the citizenship goals and content questionable and ineffective (Obebe, 2007; Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council, 2007, p.v). In actual fact, such severance, discussed in Chapter 1, was more of curriculum politics than a result of in-depth inferences based on research (Ogunyemi, 2007, 2010, 2011).

Some social educators perceived civic and citizenship education as synonymous with social studies due to the belief, especially in the United States, that the basic goal of social studies curriculum is educating young learners on citizenship issues. Therefore, effective citizenship development is the basis of social studies education (Votz and Nixon, 1999; Heafner, 2008). To these educators, social studies impact on learners involves instilling democratic citizenship principles, enhancing cultural literacy, inducing care for deprived peoples, upholding social justice, tolerance, inter alia. This reflects the multi-disciplinary scope of social studies used as a school programme to equip learners for effective citizenship participation in local, national and global affairs (Heafner, 2008). A well-conceived social studies is a veritable programme to attain citizenship and civic education goals through an issue and activity based curriculum.

2.2:2 Civic Education: Origin, Definitions, rationale and impacts

The goal of post-independent government in Nigeria has been to achieve national interests through educational policies and programmes. One such programme was reintroducing school civic education in 2006 as a state tool to develop effective citizenship via learners' interactions with, and guidance of a more knowledgeable person. However, the reality of school civic education alone achieving this is questionable considering the enormous tasks for the school to shoulder the responsibility of other socialising agents. Hence, school curriculum implementation should be weighed *pari-pasu* with societal practices involving other socialising agents since school acquired knowledge may conflict with learners' daily experiences and interactions with other socialising agents. Notwithstanding, this study focuses mainly on the school and classroom civic curriculum, arguably depicted as a potent instrument to instil knowledge, skills and dispositions which are indices of effective citizenship to enhance learners' interactions and participation in the community (Dewey (1996 [1916]; Waldschmitt, 2010). Thus, this section reviews civic education as an area of academic study to discover why it was initiated and its implementation impacts on learners' citizenship development while its curriculum intents and content are discussed in Chapter 3.

2.2:2(a) Origin and Definition of Civic Education

Civic education, initially known as 'civics' originated from 'civic' and 'civitas' meaning 'a citizen' and 'city-state'. It is an altruistic and moralistic term which initiates discussions of citizenship (socio-political) issues within the public (polis) domains of the state. From

the classical Greek period it was a tool to inculcate socio-political culture by infusing loyalty to collective interests and participation in state matters as hallmarks of effective citizenship (Morris, 1997; Gleiber, 2003; Po, 2004). Traditionally, civic education is used to provide insights into political traditions, principles, institutions and engaging in the political system of the state (Janowitz 1983, 1994; Niemi and Junn 1998; Kanaev 2000; Burkingham, 2006). Also, it has been used to construct and exercise knowledge and skills regarding rights and obligations in order to participate in the public life of the society (Branson, 1998; Lewis, 2007; Aroge, 2012). It is an organised body of human knowledge involving individual and group membership rights, duties, institutions, practices and actions linked with citizenship of a state (Shah, et al, 2002; Gold cited in Meron, 2006; Gelaneh, 2012). Overall, I contend civic education depicts the link which young learners should have with the current political system of the state.

As portrayed in the civic curriculum objectives, Nigerian government intent involves using the subject as a tool to develop knowledge and skills regarding voting, governmental roles, citizens' rights, duties, values, ecological activism, community services and social networking for future citizenship engagement. Yet, lack of extracurricular programmes could hinder required experiential learning while in school (National Policy on Education, 2004; Miles, 2006; Falade, 2007; Lopez et al, 2006; Ogunyemi, 2005, 2011). So schools need to induce experiential learning because participation in state prescribed political citizenship needs to be complemented due to a gradual change in young peoples' interests towards nongovernmental citizenship activism. Thus, confining achieving citizenship development to school could be the likely rationale for reintroducing civic education.

2.2:2(b) Rationale for Civic Education

Generally, many developed and transitional democracies like Nigeria are facing various citizenship (socio-political) issues involving young peoples' apathy towards civic activities like voting in elections; moral deficit due to anti-social behaviours and inadequate interest in political engagement which could result in the failure of democracy (Hébert & Sears 2001; Bennett 2008; Osler & Starkey 2003). The Nigerian context revealed presidential concern for the youths who require serious transformation to become effective citizens. This overwhelming citizenship trend required introducing a particular school subject by which young learners could develop traits of effective

citizenship. Thus, the rationale for a civic education curriculum raises questions on whether the civic curriculum initiative was perceived from a parochial policy priority issue and/or a basic theoretical question of whether school civic education could develop links between young people and the state (Hébert & Sears 2001; Federal Ministry of Education, 2007, p. v; House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2007; Jekayinfa, Mofoluwawo, & Oladiran, 2011; Olla, 2013; O’Sullivan, 2014). The perspectives for the purpose of civic education determines the expectation of the state on the roles of civic education to initiate or reform young learners’ citizenship development. That is, whether to instil patriotism, obedience, national identity or rights vital to questioning obedience and loyalty to the state. Still, it is vital to know from extant literature whether civic content has impacts on learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills as indices of effective citizens.

2.2:2(c) Civic Education Impacts on Effective Citizenship Components

Extant literature perceives civic education as a formal intervention device to mediate learners' literacy, dispositions and behavioural changes. Thus, I review relevant studies on civic instructions impacts to explore the study’s research questions (RQ 1(b)) stated in Chapter 1.

Before the 1990s, consensus among political researchers revealed trivial impacts of civic content on learners’ citizenship development. Classroom civic instructions rarely justify learners’ socio-political growth (Ehman, 1980; Langton & Jennings, 1968; Somit, Tannenhaus, Wilke, & Cooley, 1958). However, post 1990s studies revealed positive civic instruction impacts on citizenship development of young learners in England and other countries (National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1997; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Dudley & Gitelson 2002; Kerr et al, 2002; International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), 2002). These results reveal the relevance of exposure to civic instruction and thus justify widening the scope of studies to emerging transitional democracies like Nigeria. Despite the positive findings in the recent studies, there are still some negative results depending on which citizenship components are explored vis-à-vis civic instructions exposure.

2.2:2(c) i Civic Knowledge Impact

Despite most extant studies showing civic instructions positive impact on civic knowledge, there were few instances of negative impact. Studies in developing democracies (Zambia and South Africa) show civic instructions positive impact on learners' citizenship knowledge (Bratton et al, 1999; Finkel & Ernst, 2005). Also, separate studies conducted in Britain, Sweden and Argentina showed similar positive impacts on citizenship knowledge (Denver & Hands, 1990; Westholm, Lindquist & Niemi, 1990; Morduchowicz et al, 1996). The same positive impacts were shown in the IEA study of young learners in 27 countries. The result depicts good citizenship knowledge of issues about political rights and identifying vital democratic institutions.

However, some studies showed young learners in England had challenges on their knowledge of democracy, government and elections issues. This was due to citizenship education just being introduced (Kerr, 2002; International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), 2002). Also, another study by Finkel, (2002) showed civic instructions lacked impact on civic knowledge.

Overall, most studies from the 90s confirmed civic instructions instilling citizenship knowledge in young learners could be due to less difficulty in inculcating knowledge based issues in the civic classroom (Patrick & Hoge, 1991; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Po, 2004). This means civic classes could exert effects on knowledge of citizenship issues learnt provided there is more curriculum time and relevant classroom active pedagogical practices (Slomczynski & Shabad, 1998; Finkel & Ernst, 2005). Moreover, Finkel & Ernst posited that classroom civic instructions could be aided by other socio-political agents like exposure to mass media and the family frequently discussing politics or being involved in active politicking (Finkel & Ernst 2005).

2.2:2(c) ii Civic Disposition Impacts

This involves internalising citizenship knowledge and skills acquired by young learners. Though studies are indecisive about civic instruction impacts on dispositions, yet Almond & Verba (1963) in their study declared that civic instruction is crucial to developing citizenship dispositions.

However, the IEA study reported participating young learners' moderate dispositions (trust) level towards government-based institutions and revealing more positive

dispositions towards nongovernmental activities (Kerr et al, 2002; Dalton, 2000; Clark & Hoffman-Martinot, 1998). This positive disposition of most participating IEA learners to nongovernmental activities showed the acceptability of the new civic culture branded by less hierarchy and more individual decision-making. (Kerr et al, 2002; IEA, 2002).

Also, studies in Dominican Republic, Poland, and South Africa indicate that civic instructions merely influenced dispositions. That is, civic content has a trivial impact on dispositions regarding beliefs in political institutions, politicians, tolerance, trust, efficacy, civic duty and institutional trust (Finkel, 2002; United States International Development (USAID), 2002; Finkel & Ernst, 2005). This is because developing dispositions requires lots more preparation and expertise from teachers. Developing dispositions involves a gradual process that starts from internalising knowledge. Moreover, not all civic knowledge constructions are developed into dispositions. This justified why civic content impact is trivial on civic dispositions (Patrick & Hoge, 1991; Denver & Hands, 1996; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Po, 2004; Falade, 2011).

In comparing civic knowledge and dispositions impacts, civic researchers agreed that civic content is yet to change the perceived trivial civic dispositions impact due to positive impact being more evident on civic knowledge (literacy) construction as against developing dispositions (Ferguson, 1991; Morducowicz et al, 1996; Slomczynski & Shabad, 1998).

2.2:2(c) iii Impact of Civic Skills (Participation/Engagement)

Although few studies explored the impact of civic instruction on civic skills acquisition, yet results inferred more positive civic instruction impact on learners' civic skills. For instance, studies in Britain and Senegal disclosed that adult learners exposed to civic instructions showed an interest in membership of civic groups involving village associations and other community projects, voting in elections and being averse to dictatorship (Bynner & Hammond, 2004; Field, 2005; Kuenzi, 2005). Also, studies showed that civic instructions overtly impacted on citizenship knowledge and participation in countries like Kenya, Nigeria, Dominican Republic and South Africa (Finkel, 2002; Finkel & Ernst, 2005; Finkel & Smith, 2011; Collier & Vicente, 2011). Similarly, in Zambia, civic instructions impact more on learners' citizenship knowledge, dispositions (values) and voter registration participations without affecting voting in national elections (Bratton et al, 1999; Milner, 2002).

From these few studies, it was discovered that civic instructions offered learners the knowledge and skills to explore citizenship issues and problems (Field, 2005; Tor, 2009). Exposure to civics also enhances a deeper understanding of issues which invariably foster intellectual and participatory skills.

2.2:2(c) iv Relationship between Civic Knowledge and Civic Participation

In this study, I reviewed literature on whether civic knowledge underpinned participation by ascertaining the link between civic knowledge and civic (intellectual and participatory) skills. From studies effective citizenship participation requires civic knowledge construction and acquiring relevant skills (Patrick, 2002; Comber, 2003).

This claim was confirmed by the IEA study which showed learners' exposure to civic issues in school enhanced their civic knowledge and fostered engagement in community programmes (Torney-Purta, 2002; Comber, 2003). Also, other studies indicated that civic instructional programmes improve (by showing positive impacts on) civic and political knowledge, engagement and dispositions (Kurtz et al, 2003; Centre for Information and Research, 2003). A study explicating democracy via individual dispositions linked effective engagement to civic literacy (Almond & Verba, 1963). Another study finding indicated that constructed political knowledge determines the extent of civic and political participation. In other words, civic and citizenship knowledge leads or contributes to political action and participation. So, I infer that the quality of knowledge constructed by learners on the political system determines the extent of participation in articulating public policy issues (Delli Caprini & Keeter, 1996; Dudley & Gitelson 2002).

This nexus was based on the notion that only well-informed citizens make government accountable and responsive because such informed citizens influence government through expression of views (Bratton & Liatto-Katundu, 1994; Halpern, 2005). Through civic literacy citizens were empowered to participate in sustaining the political system. In fact, indifference to civic participation like voting could be due to lack of insight on the functions of government and rights of individuals, among others (Popkin & Dimock, 1999; Milner, 2002). However, Torney-Purta, (2002) argued that isolating civic literacy could be inadequate to determine civic and political engagement of young learners.

From the above, studies reveal the ongoing debate on the perceived civic instruction impact on learners' participation. The inconsistent nature of the findings is due to existing studies exploring diverse forms of civic curriculum (formal and informal) among different groups of participants (young or adult learners) in different countries (developed or developing or transitional democracies). Nonetheless, this equivocal debate justifies need for further study in order to discover the kind of civic curriculum programmes necessary to sustain effective democratic citizenship development (Riutta, 2007).

The impacts discussed above show that the diverse citizenship theories, philosophies and orientations which constitute civic content form the basis of learners' initiations and/or reformation (transformation) regarding the political system, thus reflecting the link between citizenship and civic education discussed below.

2.3 Citizenship and Citizenship Theories

In this section, I first conceptualise citizenship because it establishes the content of civic education. Also, the contested nature of citizenship makes it inextricably linked with diverse ideologies, thus it is vital to examine relevant citizenship theories linked to citizenship in this study. Moreover, it is expedient to examine the theoretical stance of Nigerian citizenship shown in Nigeria's civic education programme objectives and content to examine a part of my first research question on civic content impact on learners' citizenship development.

2.3:1 Citizenship Conceptualisations

Citizenship is a normative and descriptive concept essential to political philosophy. It is an eclectic and disputed concept thus it is hard to have global consensus on its actual meaning (Heater, 1991; McLaughlin, 1992; Steenbergen, 1994; Beiner, 1995; Carr & Hartnett, 1996; Garcia, n.d). Its eclectic and polysemic traits make its manipulation in a formal school curriculum possible by nation-states and ideological groups to entrench what schools should inculcate in their civic mission of developing effective citizenship (Ignatieff, 1995; Crick, 1998; Faulks, 2000).

Though I conceptualised citizenship diversely yet it connects the state and citizens regarding rights and duties which is susceptible to perpetual rethinking due to changes in the state (Turner, 1990; Janoski, 1998; Abdi et al, 2006; Quaynor, 2012). Also, it is an unwieldy and classical humanist expression revised to tally with diverse social

dispositions (Frazer & Gordon, 1998). These conceptualisations depict citizenship as an issue involving a state since prerogatives (rights/duties) could only be conferred and exercised in relation to the state (Giddens, 1994; Oliver & Heater, 1994; Etzioni, 1995; Marshall & Bottomore, 1998).

Primordial (ancient) citizenship entails participating in the public domain (diverse sectors of the state) by a politically active and moral being detached from those in the private domain (Kartal, 2002). Though citizenship was initially branded by exclusivity in the public participation, it later extended from political rights to conferring civil and social rights.

Thus, modern citizenship consists of a legal status which bestows rights and obligations on such membership; political competence to perform prescribed roles requiring making choices in the political field to manifest qualities of effective citizenship (Leca, 1992; Cohen 1999; Kymlicka & Norman 2000; Carens 2000). Such effective citizenship, in this era, included exercising formal social membership attracting a set of de facto (political) and de jure (legal) rights and duties (Giddens, 1994; Faulks, 2006a; Bellamy, 2013). That is, political and legal provisions to promote equality in exercise of rights and duties conferred. Equality of rights was due to political community membership which endows discrete identity showing the link between rights, equality and identity. These combined traits showed effective citizenship as applying rights which defines the degree of socio/political activities based on citizenship identity (Marshall & Bottomore, 1998; Carens 2000).

Awareness of citizenship rights and obligations gradually developed from civil to political and finally extended to social rights (Marshall, 1950). Social rights cover access to education, health, welfare, security and social heritage. Civil rights cover rights against discrimination, free speech, press, assembly. Political rights entail the right to vote democratically (Marshall, 1992, 1965; Bellamy, 2013).

Citizenship, though universalistic, is more utopian due to differences in evolution which was based on social class and ethnic formation among states. These rights, evolved via diverse process of positivist (and not natural) laws (Giddens, 1982; Mann, 1987). Overall, common citizenship traits in these conceptualisations includes civil, political and legal rights, identity (moral views) and skills to actively engage in public life (Heater, 1990; Porter, 1996; Cogan, 2000).

Evidently, various conceptualisations justify my assertion on the inability to propose a single suitable definition because citizenship traits change. These changes are due to globalization, migration, economic change, different philosophical beliefs from which citizenship evolved, changing concepts and the gradual demise of the nation-state (Po, 2004; Faulks, 2006a; Giddens, 1982).

However, the above diverse perceptions revealed common traits incorporated into the three components of effective citizenship development, that is, citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills explored in this study. An effective citizenship process requires learners constructing knowledge on their legal (status) rights and obligations as citizens, develop dispositions on their legal status through identifying moral values (which involves shared character traits as against ethical principles which involved rules of conduct within the community) engrained in citizenship, and lastly, engage in public affairs based on the competencies acquired (Habermas, 1994; Osler & Starkey, 2005; Leydet, 2006).

From the above explanations, citizenship involves a series of issues which could be subsumed into rights, corresponding duties and obligation of an individual by virtue of his or her membership of a nation-state. Guiding learners to understand citizenship entails constructing knowledge on rights and duties granted by the state, or other bodies as proof of membership. This indicates an existing bond (evolving via social contract) between the state and citizens. By this, the state confers civil, political and legal prerogatives to uphold identity and duty. These elements characterised existing citizenship theories discussed below.

2.3:2 Citizenship Theories

In this section, I discuss diverse citizenship theories relevant to classroom civic implementation reflected in the Nigerian civic education objectives. These theories underpin my discussion (in Chapter 5) of data analysed to answer a part of my first research question (RQ1b). This is to ascertain which theory is prevalent when civic teachers implement (teach) civic content in the classroom. Also, these theories reflect various implementing patterns on the civic mission of schools as designed by the state in the school curriculum. Such civic missions mainly involve training learners ‘to know, care and act’ showing that citizens are made and not born (Bank, 2001; Levine, 2005). Also, civic content instructions mediate knowledge, understanding, skills and dispositions

required to articulate citizenship issues for diverse forms of engagement (Lipset, 1959; Almond & Verba, 1963; Bowles & Gintis, 1976).

However, civic education content consists of diverse theories advocated by social education scholars. These involved Hahn's cross-national study on cognitive development and citizenship (political) culture and socialisation. Barr and others classified the social studies curriculum content as involving citizenship transmission, citizenship as social science, and reflective enquiry. Gifford, while surveying the UK's citizenship trends proposed a national and global citizenship content. Moreover, Benavot's cross-national and longitudinal study on diverse contexts of schools' impact on political identity formation proposed the modernisation and institutionalisation theories (Barr et al, 1977; Benavot, 1996; Hahn, 1998; Gifford, 2004; Zaman, 2006; National Alliance of Civic Education, 2007). Literature on civic republican, communitarian and liberal democracy conform to this study of citizenship theories. However, I group these theories based on shared features depicted by extant literature and studies (Zaman, 2006; Olla, 2013) to evade any form of repetition of theories. Thus, the above theories are collected into three groups perceived as relevant to civic classroom implementation in this study. These involve ethno-nationalistic, critical and global citizenship theories.

2.3:2(a) Ethno-nationalistic (Citizenship) Initiation Theory

In this theory, school civic education content developed learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills basic to exhibiting common identity, patriotism, loyalty and sense of belonging to the state political system (Johnson, 2010). Effective citizenship involved infusing knowledge on Nigeria's pre/post independent political and constitutional history; the founding fathers' (nationalists) roles in the agitations for political independence. Also, it imparts knowledge of the constitution, political sovereignty, legitimacy, rights and duties, the federal system, structure and function of government, obedience to laws, among other issues. This is based on the notion that, furnishing young learners with basic citizenship literacy means training them for future participation in political development. This is in conformity with the communitarians and civic republican citizenship which uses civic education to induct and initiate learners to enhance civic duties and participation. This theory underlines civil and political duty and participation as basic civic virtues that citizens should possess (Heater, 1999; O'Sullivan, 2014). Citizens should be alert to their duties as well as participation as an ethical obligation and failure of which makes them unqualified for citizenship position (Heater, 1999).

Therefore, civic education is a critical tool to impart civic traits of duties and values of participation by instilling into learners the grundnorm (constitution) of the state as proposed by Aristotle (Aristotle, 1948 1337aII; Aristotle, 1955; O’Sullivan, 2014) to produce effective citizens obedient to the laws by performing their duties. Even Rousseau reiterated that school civic curriculum should develop in learners positive dispositions which stress participation as the basic duty of learners to state values as the hallmark of sound and effective citizenship (Heater, 1999; NPE, 2004).

However, such nationalistic knowledge only develops commitment to the state but restricts a global grasp of issues and learners' participation. Also, it depicts teachers as content transmitters (conveyers) to learners (recipients) thus inducing passive and naive citizenship (Barr et al, 1977; Meyer, 1977; Hahn, 1998; NACE, 2007). From the above, transmitting or initiating state ideology is to develop young learners to play passive roles as mere consumers of received knowledge. Also, this theory breeds elitism which limits a particular group of people from meaningful citizenship involvement due to the foundation of citizenship inequalities (discussed below) inbuilt in the formal school system. So, participation may not be meaningful unless such citizen belong to a particular class within the political system (Heater, 1999; Tor, 2009; O’Sullivan, 2014). Advocating absolute patriotism/loyalty to state via duty and participation could weaken citizens' freedom, rights and autonomy which mediates sincere scrutiny of state policies. To Rousseau, absolute commitment, patriotism and loyalty should be constant since compliance is a sine qua non (condition precedent) to having true autonomy in the state (Heater, 1999; O’Sullivan, 2014).

The school civic curriculum was used to construct ideology in Prussia (Germany) and France, imbibe capitalism in the United States and socialism/communism in the former Soviet Union in the 19th and 20th Centuries (Lott, Jr, 1999; Cantoni, et., al 2014). Although Nigeria lacks a particular state based citizenship ideology, yet, as stated in Chapter 1, civic curriculum goals projected more ethno-nationalistic goals in order to achieve national identity and integration.

2.3:2(b) Critical (Citizenship) Reformation Theory

Though Nigeria's civic education stressed ethno-nationalistic citizenship, however, it is not impossible for teachers, as reflected in the questionnaire, to engage in teaching critical

citizenship to provide academic insights. This makes it pertinent to examine the theory underpinning critical citizenship pattern.

Global school reforms leading to activity and issue based citizenship altered curriculum training from conventional ethno-nationalistic roles of schools to current critical citizenship views. According to the modernisation theory, schools play a reformative and transformative role by developing learners' critical citizenship outlooks, via the new model of knowledge and skills, that foster articulating national issues instead of ethnic interests (Benavot, 1996; Johnson, 2010; Zaman, 2006).

This theory agrees with liberal citizenship principles of enhancing learners' zeal, thoughts and insight to question socio-political issues adversely affecting the state. Citizenship issues are discussed to induce dialogue with others and appropriately query political leadership. Learners are expected to acquire and engage in intellectual and participatory (voice expression) skills on diverse citizenship issues. However, this requires an open classroom climate for free and critical questioning of social disparity and paradoxes. That is, a more interactive and participatory classroom implementation which depicts teachers (facilitators) and learners as partners-in-progress fostering meaningful participation. But, implementing this seems more utopian due to the difficulty of teachers mediating learners' criticism of the state which designed the curriculum and manages and finances the school system (Giroux, 1980; Ginsburg, 2001; Levine, 2005; NACE, 2007; Tor, 2009).

2.3:2(c) Global (post-national) Citizenship Theory

The current civic education objectives identified exposing young learners to global citizenship issues involving millennium development goals and emergent contemporary issues. This points to the need for civic curriculum content to mediate young learners' knowledge, disposition and skills regarding nongovernmental citizenship in which young people globally are showing more interest and subsequent engagement (Bennett, 2007, 2008; Nina, 1997). Global, in contrast to ethno-nationalistic theory focuses on cosmopolitan citizenship. This is a major shift from interest on nation building sentiments to promoting supranational citizenship which enlarge learners' knowledge across national boundaries. It involves training young learners to engage in global activities as a way of

recognising their multiple citizenship identity in their locality, state, regional and global institutions (Johnson, 1990; Delanty, 2000; Stromquist & Monkman, 2000).

However, the reality of initiating and/or reforming through school civic curriculum implementation in the Nigerian context could be difficult due to socio-political vices such as corruption, increased ethnic and religious insurgencies, advanced fee fraud for which Nigeria has become notorious, as well as other vices which remain prevalent. For the school to achieve the citizenship goals requires the larger society and other socialising agents ensure good governance, social and national security and rectify the structural inequity in the federation which are outside the scope of the school (Adamolekun & Kincaid, 1991; Marizu, 1998; Akinyele, 2001; Ukiwo, 2003, 2007; Badmus, 2006; Okeahialam, 2013).

Also, non-realisation of effective citizenship based on these theories might not be due to civic content ineptitude but the political class lacking the will to sustain school civic implementation by providing resources which mediates, for instance, extracurricular (experiential) learning making it difficult for learners to match school learning experience with their daily activities (Okeahialam, 2013). Even if these theories are practicable in young people it is essential to pay equal attention to other socialising agents. Besides, the political class promotes and perpetuates social stratification and inequalities by denying the lower classes the opportunity to catch up via the school formal curriculum considered by the education policy as an instrument for socio-political change. The lower class is prevented from appreciating the values of education and the right to education for political advantage (Okeahialam, 2013).

2.3:2(d) Inequality/Stratification roles of schools

Though not a focus of this study, I am aware that schools foster citizenship stratification via assigning diverse socio-political status to citizens along class and gender disparity. It is the factory where social hierarchy, dominance and respect for authority are simulated with intent to initiate citizens into agreed adult status. Alas, this socio-political inequality role of school opposes the idea of schools developing human capital by acquiring knowledge and skills to boost effective citizenship (Bowles & Gintis 1976; Cantoni, et., al., 2014). Since education is to create positive change in knowledge leading to engagement, thus using schools to induce inequalities underpins the view that not all schooling is education. Such schooling lacks vision, integrity, interest and the fortitude

to make things happen but instead promotes examinations for the purpose of earning qualification (Dore, 1976; Nie et al, 1996). Besides inducing inequality, this section showed that schools could develop effective citizenship via initiation and/or reformation. But, in the next section, the question to be answered, based on the theories above, involves what effective citizenship entails.

The citizenship theories discussed above showed that effective citizenship is not limited to a particular pattern but is in diverse forms which for the purpose of this study, are subsumed into political (ethno-nationalistic) and nongovernmental (critical/global) citizenship participation. Upon these two norms I conceptualise effective citizenship development in the next section.

2.4 Effective Citizenship Development

2.4:1 Political (ethno-nationalistic) Citizenship

Political citizenship involves engaging effectually in traditional political activities to have a sense of civic obligations to political institutions via popular participation (Nina, 1998; Bennett, 2007, 2008). Such participation includes obedience to law, membership of political parties, paying taxes, articulating and discussing political issues, learning about basic workings of government institutions, membership of civil or political groups as well as making voting choices (Kerr et al, 2002; IEA, 2002; Bennett, 2003, 2007, 2008, 2011; Dalton, 2008; Fezell et al, 2013). Though studies are inconclusive there is evidence of low participation in political citizenship activities among young people due to not just a high level of distrust in politicians but the political system (Inglehart, 1990; Kerr et al, 2002; Bimber, 2003). Other studies posit gradual rebuffing of diverse dimensions of politics in their daily activities by displaying political isolation rather than apathy (Davies, 1994; Buckingham, 2000; MORI, 2002; Henn et al, 2005).

2.4:2 Nongovernmental (Critical/Global) Citizenship

Nongovernmental citizenship is a new generational shift in civic and citizenship engagement patterns. It entails individual self-expression, personalised politics over participation in formal hierarchical political institutions. Also, it involves being independent, assertive and simultaneously showing concern for others (Bimber, 2012; Zukin et al, 2006; Dalton, 2008; Loader, 2007; Bennett, 2007, 2011). As stated above, it might be due to young peoples' weakened sense of political duties by being apolitical in

their community. It entails participation in human rights activities, ecological activism, community volunteering, collaborative programmes, service learning and non-violent protests (Kerr et al, 2002; Dalton, 2008). From the two citizenship categorisations above, effective citizenship development could involve engaging in political and/or apolitical civic and citizenship activities which are discussed below.

2.4:3 Holistic Integration Approach and Effective Citizenship Development

Citizenship theories and categorisations revealed their unique traits which learners could holistically develop to become effective citizens. Since these traits are highlighted in the civic education objectives, I propose the development of these traits in learners via holistic integration rather than distinct individualised civic learning. But, I first define effective citizenship and then the rationale for holistic integration is discussed below.

2.4:3(a) Effective citizenship Conceptualised

Effective citizenship is the degree of knowledge, dispositions and skills developed by learners to engage in diverse citizenship activities at local, national and global levels. It involves learning and demonstrating diverse citizenship traits through actual participation in ecological activism, community service and showing interest in state activities (Andrews et al, 2008; Okeahialam, 2013). A broader view of effective citizenship involves mediating learners' knowledge, ability and dispositions to participate constructively within a multicultural milieu in order to confront personal and collective problems *inter alia*, in that setting (Reimers, 2006). From these definitions, I perceive effective citizenship as young learners' conceptions of how to improve quality of life, through involvement in formal and informal activities with the overall goal of contributing to Nigeria's citizenship growth. It is young learners' views of what needs to be done as effective citizens. This recognises the need to complement the patterns of citizenship participations by extending from the political to involve nongovernmental citizenship (Kerr et al, 2002; Bennett, 2007; Dalton, 2008).

2.4:3(b) Rationale for Holistic Integration Approach

Outlining the traits of the citizenship theories exposed the need to bridge the gaps among the theories. Thus, developing effective citizenship requires synthesizing the traits of both theories which underpin the stance of Bennett, (2007, 2008), Bennett, et al, (2011), Janoski, (1998) and 1968 Mombasa declaration discussed below.

The rationale for proposing a holistic integration of civic theories into an integrated civic curriculum content is based on the 1968 Mombasa declaration that individualised civic learning is a legacy of the colonial past which makes learning out of immediate (historical, geographical and political) milieu. Thus there is a growing dissatisfaction concerning the perceived isolation of Nigeria's civic learners from their traditional civic culture due to imported foreign citizenship theories which could not be adapted to suit peculiarities of the Nigerian milieu. Therefore, holistic integration of civic norms underpins Nigerian indigenous education which fosters a sense of belonging via active participation in developing citizenship norms consistent with the Nigerian context (Fafunwa, 2004; Ocitt, 1994; Mutebi 1994; Ssekamwa, 1997; Tiberondwa, 2001; Mugimu & Nakabugo, 2009). Such holistic integration modifies the foreign citizenship content (concepts and issues) of industrialised nations to fit into our setting by re-designing the civic curriculum. Imported civic contents are contextualised by using either exotic or foreign expressions which hardly reflects Nigerian citizenship values. Abolishing this requires re-designing civic curriculum in the context of Nigerian values, practices and norms to develop civic learners to fit into extant citizenship and economic milieu (Fafunwa, 1974; Makinde, 1979; Fadeiye, 2005).

Also holistically integrating traits of citizenship theories into the civic content could mediate in Nigerian learners a more balanced effective citizenship. This is because Nigeria lacks a particular citizenship philosophy which the school system could impose on learners, then it is better to expose learners to diverse citizenship philosophies rather than compelling them to absorb a particular norm. Although Nigeria's civic objectives seem to stress nationalistic citizenship norms, yet, traits of global and critical citizenship are implanted in the objectives. Developing these norms in learners creates basic literacy to exercise their autonomy on whether to engage in particular citizenship norms in future.

From the global perspective, projecting a citizenship norm above the other is needless since young people still show an interest in political activities despite engaging in nongovernmental (apolitical) citizenship in countries like Nigeria, China, Vietnam, Zimbabwe, India, Iran and Indonesia (Bennett, 2007, 2008; Welzel & Alexander, 2008). In the United States, over 23 million Millennials voted for President Obama in the 2008 election. Similar experiences of massive youth participation in elections of Chile and Argentina shows the overwhelming interest in political citizenship (Hais & Winograd, 2008; Barrionuevo, 2011). As shown in a study, this is the age when young people

develop interest in these citizenship traits. Failure of young people to develop interest in political activities at this age means they are unlikely to engage in such activities in adult years (Goodman et al, 2011).

Moreover, integrating citizenship norms provides a balanced relationship between critical and global norms agitating for citizens' rights and autonomy and a nationalistic (civic republican or communitarian) stance on civic duty and participation (Esping-Anderson, 1990; Kohlberg, 1992; Ellison, 1997; Tor, 2009). This approach resists citizens' duty to promote group and state activities at the expense of right to engage in nongovernmental citizenship. Rather, it equalises groups and individual rights and duties via collaborative and competitive relationships (Warren, 1992; Singer, 1993; Janoski, 1998). Thus, integrated civic curriculum is an effective style to equip learners on how to examine problems like corruption, ethnic polarisation, among others facing Nigeria. Also, the curriculum's flexibility enriches the discussion of emergent global citizenship issues through a teacher's open classroom climate during civic instruction. However, studies show that integrated civic curriculum requires regular training which enables teachers to guide learners to critically and rationally examine civic issues and problems. Such training is imperative due to the incorporation of relevant concepts from diverse disciplines into civic content in order to enrich the curriculum (Dan, 2010; Oluniyi & Olufemi, 2013; Kutu, 2013).

In addition, didactic (teacher-centred) teaching styles associated with a single-subject curriculum could hardly guide learners' effective citizenship knowledge construction. Conversely, civic integration connects knowledge, dispositions and skills from diverse civic learning experiences holistically. This curriculum style needs active pedagogical classroom practices involving open classroom, group discussion and collaborative learning (like fieldwork, simulation, and dramatisation) which are highly effective in engaging learners (Muijs & Reynolds 2001; Watkins, Carnell & Lodge 2007). Evidently, holistic integrated civic curriculum requires that learners develop knowledge by constructing meaning to civic concepts through classroom interactive activities and consensus as a result of using social constructivist, transformative learning and reflective inquiry theories discussed in the next section.

2.5 Civic Education Pedagogical Theories

I discussed above theories underpinning citizenship and subsumed them into two categories of effective citizenship and used that to define effective citizenship. It is equally vital to examine how civic education curriculum implement these citizenship theories in the classroom in order for learners to translate knowledge into skills and dispositions. Translating civic objectives into classroom implementation depends on school resources provided and more importantly classroom pedagogies used (Nemerow, 1996; Porter, 1993; Print, 1999, Print et al, 2002). Thus, while school resources provision is discussed in Chapter 3, theories underpinning these study learning pedagogies are discussed below.

To this end, I examine learning theories like social constructivism, transformative and reflective inquiry which posited that practicing curriculum content should be a vital part of the learning process. Underpinning this stance is the notion that best training in civic education usually involved pedagogies which induce classroom interactive activities and engagement intended to guide citizenship knowledge constructions and skills acquisitions (Hughes & Sears 2006; Olla, 2013).

2.5:1 Social Constructivist Theory

Generally, constructivism describes the active involvement of civic learners in constructing knowledge instead of being inert recipients (Fosnot, 1996; Doolittle & Hicks, 2003; Williams & Chinn, 2009). There are diverse constructivist models including social constructivism which examines learning from the contexts of constructing knowledge from social interactions and consensus. Civic learners have the chance to express their views and thus create common insights into civic issues during classroom interactions (Bodrova & Leong, 2012; Gauvain, 2008). The leading educational theorists and advocates were Lev Vygotsky, Kenneth Gergen inter alia. These theorists viewed group interaction as the root of knowledge, that is, knowledge is constructed when learners team up to engage in discussing citizenship issues (Bakhtin, 1984; Prawat & Floden, 1994; Gergen, 1995).

So, social constructivism posits that learning process entails learners' active knowledge construction occurs via interactive activities with the milieu. Such interactions involve peer group, a more knowledgeable person in the milieu as well as the socio-cultural setting (Vygotsky 1978). Applying social constructivism to civic classroom teaching

enables learners to experience citizenship practice within the contexts of their daily actions, particularly in the school via extracurricular programmes. Learners have the chance to construct knowledge and engage in interactive activities with peers in the classroom as a group of learners to strengthen prior knowledge attained from non-classroom interactions.

2.5:1(a) Socio-Cultural Learning

One of such social constructivists learning theories perceived as relevant to develop effective citizenship in this study is the socio-cultural theory which is based on collaborative learning, teacher scaffolding and mediation tools.

2.5:1(a) i Collaborative learning

Collaborative learning entails constructing knowledge via dialogue complemented by instructional activities. Such activities which learners engage in are transformed into personal knowledge due to using related instructional styles (like discussion, role play, simulation) to guide knowledge construction (Swain, 2009; Lantolf, 2009). Socio-cultural learning entails engaging in classroom interactive activities through which learners construe their world. This mediates creativity and initiative in learners via interactive/participatory activities which leads to constructing civic knowledge (Stetsenko & Arieivitch, 1997; Palincsar, 1998).

2.5:1(a) ii Teacher scaffolding

Teachers facilitate learning by creating a 'Zone of Proximal Development' (ZPD) which entails civic interactive activities guided by a more knowledgeable person to help learners construct what they hitherto lack ability to develop alone (Vygotsky 1986). The ZPD is developed via scaffolding, that is, previous citizenship experiences are further developed into new concepts constructed in school through guided instructions (Bruner, 1986).

Scaffolding is the process of social interactions involving knowledgeable (teacher or classmate) persons guiding learners to shape learning activities to develop pre-existing citizenship knowledge. The civic teacher evolved desired pedagogical practices and other resources to guide learning via interactive activities to help internalise citizenship knowledge co-constructed in the civic classroom by young learners (Rogoff, 1990; Donato, 1994; Wertsch, 1979a; Yu, 2004; Bonk & Cunningham, 1998; Gredler, 2008; Kao, 2010). Young learners' comprehension of citizenship issues to construct new

knowledge requires initial instructional guidance by a more knowledgeable person. This contextual interactive activity requires a civic teacher demonstrating classroom learning instructions (Wood et al, 1976; Yu, 2004). Overall, classroom civic learning is guided by a qualified civic teacher with adequate mediation tools (instructional resources) for interactive and participatory learning leading to learners constructing citizenship knowledge (Newman & Holzman, 1993).

2.5:1(a) iii Mediation tools

For this theory, civic learning is mediated by learning tools which include language (dialogue) and other (instructional) resources to make learning more meaningful (Haas, 1996; Bonk & Cunningham, 1998; Lantolf, 2000; Ormrod, 2004; William & Burden, 2009; Westbrook et al, 2013). Mediation entails meaningful classroom learning processes and activities transforming thoughtless actions into higher mental processes through the use of instructional materials (Minick, 1987; Bonk & Cunningham, 1998; Kao, 2010). It requires using instructional devices involving human (teachers/peers), material resources and teaching practices to mediate civic learning via developing abilities to solve citizenship problems. These tools improve civic learning through selecting and shaping learning experiences presented. Also, these tools empower civic learners with basic competence and dispositions to become self-directed learners. More importantly, instead of unidirectional and passive knowledge input, mediators foster interaction among learners, resources and tasks context to make them active learners in co-constructing civic knowledge (Stetsenko & Arievidtch, 1997; Kao, 2010). These tools rely on social interactions and joint activities like dialogue among civic learners (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Therefore, developing effective citizenship requires instructional (tools) resources and strategies to aid classroom learning activities among learners (Lantolf, 2009; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Stetsenko & Arievidtch, 1997; Kao, 2010).

The social constructivist learning style is applicable to the ‘transformational’ curricula which stresses learner's personal and social development stated in the preface to Nigeria’s civic education curriculum document. It is a learning process which involves civic learners and teachers joint collaborative exploration with the goal of analysing citizenship (socio-political) issues in order to change the existing system (Evans 2006b; Olla, 2013).

2.5:2 Transformative learning theory

This learning theory was initiated by Jack Mezirow (1990) in adult education in the course of exploring the retraining of women returning to work after maternity leave. It involves emotional and cognitive development of learners regarding their knowledge, dispositions and behaviours (Biesta & Miedema 2002; Olla, 2013). Also, transformative learning entails learners' analysis of their diverse perspectives which then changes their perceptions of local, national and global citizenship issues (Cranton 2002 in Olla, 2013).

The delineation of transformative learning reflects part of the Nigerian school civic curriculum objectives (in Chapter 3) which induce acquiring and learning to use the skill, dispositions and knowledge which prepare learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives. Also, another part of the curriculum reiterated the need to promote the understanding of the inter-relationship between men and women, the government and society (Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council, 2007). Transformative learning theory, in trying to attain civic objectives, could guide learners construct knowledge which is applied in order to develop into a responsible (effective) citizens (Biesta & Miedema, 2002; Olla, 2013). For Nigerian learners to construct knowledge, develop dispositions and acquire skills requires critically examining their own citizenship ideas in relation to that of others through collaborative learning (Cranton, 2002; Hans 2006).

Critical analysis of citizenship issues is inbuilt in both transformative and social constructivist classroom civic teaching to help Nigerian learners grasp the import of examining issues via dialogue and reflective inquiry (discussed below) which underpin participatory and interactive learning (Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Sockman & Sharma, 2008).

2.5:3 Reflective inquiry Perspective

Reflective inquiry involves young learners acquiring knowledge and skills to explore, analyse and discuss socio-political issues with intent to solve problems and make decisions. Through such inquiry young learners explore personal and social values, identify issues in the context of their experience and relate such social-political issues to daily activities. Similar to the social constructivist classroom, the civic teacher is expected to guide learners to construct social reality instead of coercing a set of knowledge and

skills. In line with a transformative theory both teacher and learners are active participants in the classroom learning via content discussion to enhance their competences as effective critical citizens (Barr, 1977; Giroux, 1980). Despite offering more effective roles to teachers and learners, it's unable to justify how developing critical citizenship could stabilise and sustain Nigerian citizenship practice.

However, the main problem is ascertaining the extent of using these learning theories (social constructivist, transformative and reflective enquiry) in Nigerian civic classroom teaching (Falade, 2007). Studies on classroom pedagogies showed that most civic teachers still use didactic teaching involving citizenship knowledge transmission and recitation which induce rote learning and memorisation. Though knowledge transmission and recitation induce understanding of citizenship concepts, it hardly provides opportunities to put these concepts into practise via experiential learning in the school/classroom. As discussed in Chapter 3, adequate and regular civic teachers' professional development could be a recipe for classroom implementation of civic curriculum (Evans 2006b; Schugurensky & Myers 2003).

Other international studies confirmed that relative or non-implementation of these learning theories in the civic classroom is not limited to Nigeria (Wendy, 2003; Evans, 2006b; Olla, 2013). These studies showed that most civic classroom implementation depicts integrating knowledge transmission and transactional leaning which relates to constructing knowledge on citizenship issues stated in the curriculum objectives, instead of engaging in critical analysis which leads to change.

Conventional (teacher-based) pedagogies like textbooks, recitations, and worksheets are common in the civic classroom (Torney-Purta et al, 2001; Wendy, 2003; Davies & Issitt, 2005; Clausen et al, 2008). However, practicing reflective/critical citizenship pedagogies like open classroom discourse, simulation, group discussion is determined by civic teachers' self-efficacy (Arnot et al, 1996; Olla, 2013).

2.6 Conclusion

My literature reviews distinguished civic education from social studies education in Nigeria. Also, I discussed civic education being the field of interest in this research and the theoretical framework underpinning its content implementation in the classroom to answer research questions stated in Chapter 1. The citizenship theories discussed as bases of civic education boosted the understanding of diverse patterns of effective citizenship

traits involving patriotism, identity, duty, participation and rights/autonomy. The citizenship theories form the basis for critical analysis of how civic curriculum, as a school subject, is being implemented in Nigeria. Moreover, I examined theoretical perspectives of civic education pedagogies due to the complexity of civic and citizenship education. But these interactive learning theories involving social constructivism, transformative and reflective inquiry share common traits like manifesting via diverse pedagogical components involving dramatisation, open classroom discussion, simulation, role play and group discussion. Other traits include collaborative inquiry, reflective citizenship thinking and dialogic interactions among learners during civic classroom to develop effective citizenship. Employing these learning theories via pedagogical components could expose learners to experiential learning in the practice of effective citizenship both inside and outside of the school.

Chapter Three:

Nigeria's Educational Policy and Programme Implementation in Perspectives

3.0 Introduction

In chapter 1, I presented a picture of a multinational state called Nigeria, besieged with plethora of citizenship issues. Overcoming these issues led to disarticulating citizenship content (to form a distinct school subject called Civic Education) from the hitherto school Social Studies which failed to achieve effective citizenship development due to implementation lapses. In chapter 2, I discussed citizenship theories underpinning relevant to this research and categorised these theories into political and nongovernmental citizenship norms. I integrated the two norm to conceptualised effective citizenship development for this study and provide rationale for such holistic integration. Also, I proposed relevant interactive learning theories to implement the subject in the classroom.

Since politics is an integral part of human activities which includes education, I start this chapter with Nigeria's political journey linking it to the educational trends. I then examine educational policy and programme reforms starting with expounding the meaning of policy and distinguish it from programme. I put in perspective Nigeria's educational policy reforms and trends and the major setbacks like the implementation lapses. Besides, I examine civic curriculum implementation in relation to objectives actualisation, available resources and classroom pedagogical practices.

3.1 Nigeria's Political Developments

Nigeria's journey to becoming a multinational state began through her connection with a group of European (Christian) missionaries and subsequent colonisation by the British government. The Scramble and Partition of Africa during the Berlin Conference (1884 to 1885) under Otto von Bismarck of Germany led to the ceding of the area of Nigeria to the British colonialists (Griffiths, 1986). But, this reached a climax in 1914 when the Northern and Southern protectorates were amalgamated (termed the mistake of 1914) by the British government, headed by Lord Lugard, to form a multinational state called 'Nigeria'.

Politically, Nigeria gained political independence and republican status from Britain on 1st October, 1960 and 1963 respectively. Presently, Nigeria operates a three-tier federation

involving 6 geo-political zones, 36 states, 774 local government regions and a federal capital territory, (formally Lagos) Abuja. Post-independent Nigeria started her political journey with a parliamentary government similar to British Westminster (Afigbo, 1991). Between 1979 and 1984, 1993 and 1994 and 1999 till present, Nigeria has been operating the United States presidential system of government. Nigeria has experienced 24 out of its 54 years of political independence under diverse military dictatorships.

As stated in Chapter 1, Nigeria, under military rule, experienced citizenship (socio-political) problems regarding human rights abuses through retroactive laws and the abandonment of various democratic attempts via frequent coup d'état. As is the global trait of military rule, citizens were deprived of rights, experienced injustices and subverted the rebirth of virile and sustainable democratic citizenship culture in the country (Moja, 2000; Farayola, 2007; Bolaji, 2011). The implications of long years of military rule is that citizens born in the 1960s, the period of political independence have witnessed more military (dictatorship) regimes than democratic governance. Thus, those citizens became used to domineering tendencies which made popular democracy and sovereignty strange. We cultivated more autocratic dispositions than democratic ideals and values (Aluko, 1998; Falade, 2006). Prolonged military rule discarded 'participatory citizenship' involving school-based political education as a pre-condition to develop effective citizenship (Falade, 2006; Faulks, 2006).

Unfortunately, our education system was in serious jeopardy, lacking required political will and school resources because military through authoritarian rule usurped and monopolised state machinery involving resources allocation through policy reforms to manipulate educational (curriculum) issues. Thus, as stated in chapter 1, making education (curriculum) design to continually depend on politics (Tyler, 1949; Wheeler, 1967; Doll, 1978; Ogunyemi, 2009). However, before going into curriculum politics, it is important to conceptualise education policy and programmes and put in context Nigeria's educational policy trends.

3.2 Nigeria's Educational Policy and Programme in Perspectives

The philosophy (national goals) of a state guides diverse policy design including educational policy and programme and Nigeria is not an exception to this parlance. Thus, it is vital to examine educational trends which has affected the school system in

developing effective citizenship development in Nigeria. But, I start with defining policy and programmes.

3.2:1 Conceptualising and Developing Education Policy and Programmes

Globally, governments have enlarged education tasks to the extent that virtually all facets of education sector are guided by policy and programme enactment. This led to various studies exploring the policy and programme intents translated into classroom implementation. Exploring how policy and programme intent were translated into actualisation reveals diverse insights, practices and devices used to enhance education in our changing polity (Cooper et al, 2008; Murphy et al, 2008; Plank et al, 2009). From the above premise, I view policy as a dynamic issue/activity/value-based government action plan to solve identified problems to actualise changes in the polity. From the citizenship outlook, it reveals the government's concrete intents, dispositions and actions to change current citizenship (socio-political) issues via universal basic education reform (Cochran & Malone, 1999; Naidu, 2005; Lennon, 2009). A programme is the actions implemented to actualise specific policy intents. It involves translating policy goals, proposals and mandates into actions with results (reality) via execution to solve specific problems. Specifically, it entails evolving civic curriculum classroom execution to tackle effective citizenship problems (Horn & Meter, 1975; Henry, 2006; Ejere, 2011; Bolaji, 2014). Educational policy and programmes are developed from diverse ideological beliefs and goals initiated by individuals, a political group or a state. Policy and programme emanates through a sequential and gradual process intended to attain national development. Thus, I argue that designing civic curriculum was due to identified democratic (socio-political) citizenship issues after the twenty-four years of military dictatorship discussed above. These policy and programme intents and objectives are encapsulated in the National Policy on Education (NPE) (2004), Universal Basic Education scheme and civic education curriculum discussed below.

3.2:2 Nigeria's Education System and Policy Reforms

Nigeria's founding fathers through the national policy on education (NPE, 2004) perceived education as an instrument 'par excellence' to achieve the national goals which included a free and democratic society; a just and egalitarian society; a united, strong and self-reliant nation; a great and dynamic economy; and a land full of bright opportunities for all citizens (NPE, 2004, p. 4). However, successive governments' education policy

reforms are consistently determined by historical, socio-political, economic and religious trends relating to diverse ethnic nationality groups which make-up Nigeria. Also, each policy reform has discrete structure basic to mediate knowledge and skills required for effective citizenship development necessary for continued existence of the groups (Sofadekan, 2013; Bolaji, 2014). Based on this, Nigeria operated a diverse educational system which involved traditional, Islamic and a western pattern of education as discussed below.

3.2:2(a) Traditional Education

Prior to Islamic and western education being introduced in Nigeria, each ethnic nationality group had an undocumented and more flexible informal system of education. It involved the teaching and learning process of the indigenous people whereby young and adult learners develop literacy, dispositions, and skills in the absence of conventional syllabus and scheme of work outside the usual school milieu. There were the seven cardinal goals of traditional education and from which effective citizenship development emphasises social responsibility, job orientation, political engagement, religious and moral values (Adesina, 1988; Lawal, 1999; Bolaji, 2004). Native education stressed functionalism whereby the curriculum was based on immediate societal requirements. Learners were prepared and inducted into effective citizenship participation after they had developed character, inculcated respect for elders, developed a sense of belonging which enabled them to engage actively community affairs and show obedience to those in authority. In fact, effective citizenship entails fostering morals, manners, conformity to authority and respect for the customs, conventions, rules (laws) of his group, absolute loyalty and patriotism to group beliefs, values and practices. Its informal nature showed that parents, siblings and the whole community were involved in imparting curriculum content to both young and adult learners from birth through to old age (Taiwo, 1980; Fafunwa, 1991; Sofadekan, 2013).

3.2:2(b) Islamic Education

Islamic education entails transmitting religious tenets through classroom teaching and learning process in line with the injunctions of the Quran. The curriculum goal involved the school indoctrinating young learners with knowledge, dispositions and skills to engage in adult Muslim life which enables learners to confess Islam as their religion as well as their way of life. The curriculum content is to develop learners' scholarly

achievements and quality by teaching about the Qur'an in Arabic via recitation and memorising chapters (Taiwo, 1980; Fafunwa, 1991). Islamic schooling has three phases which involved elementary, interpretation and advanced stages which guide learners to develop basic knowledge of Islamic education and beliefs. The second phase is the Ilm School where young learners recite and construe the Qur'an and its notes in line with their intelligence level. Learners engaged in secular subjects involving Arabic grammar, Literature, and poetry, Islamic law, the Hadith and Tafsir. The last phase involved specialising along a professional study in astrology, mysticism, law, theology and medicine (Taiwo, 1980; Sofadekan, 2012).

3.2:2(c) Pre-independent (Colonial) Education

Initially, western education emerged in Nigeria via missionaries to aid conversion to Christianity. However, the colonial government intervened in the control of education by enacting the 1882 Education Ordinance. Educational policies were initiated to cater for the interest and immediate needs of the government in the colony. There was hardly any concern to educate the native people despite the missionaries' request (White, 1996). The British government found only Grammar Schools with a curriculum entirely lacking any form practical content essential for science development in Nigeria. The content lacked relevance to the local needs thus educating young Nigerians out of their environment (Fafunwa, 1991; Taiwo, 1980; Falola & Heaton, 2008; Williams, 2008; Sofadekan, 2012). Also the education policy initiated in the colony remarkably differs to the level and principles of education operating in Britain. That is, colonial territories' educational goals differed from that operating in Britain. Nigeria's first university started in 1948, 34 years after the amalgamation of the Southern and Northern protectorates into one Nigeria and 89 years after opening the Church Missionary Society (CMS) Grammar School (in Lagos) as the first Nigerian secondary grammar school (Kelly, 1979; Ajibola, 2008; Kuye and Garba, 2009).

However, missionaries were not allowed by the colonial government to open missions and schools in the Muslim North in order to not disturb the religious-political structure on which the colonial administration was based. This government decision led to the educational imbalance among the three regions still evident today in Nigeria (Clarke, 1978; Csapo, 1983; Tibenderana, 1983; Ozigboh, 1988; Pittin, 1990; Aluede, 2006). Upon attaining political independence in 1960, colonial educational structure was

criticised by indigenous educationists, founding nationalists and politically conscious Nigerians because, according to late Professor Babs Fafunwa:

"the current educational structure rather than initiating positive values in Nigeria however, tends to isolate him from the socio-cultural and political milieu...the system educates the learners out of his milieu" (Fafunwa, 1974, pg. 194).

The opposition and agitation against colonial pattern of education meant to train Nigerians to serve the interest of the British government (Fafunwa, 1974; Akinlaye, 1981) opened a new trend in the post independent Nigeria discussed below

3.2:2(d) Post-independent (indigenous) Educational Trends

The pattern of colonial education discussed above revealed that prior to independence, Nigeria lacked clear cut policies on the development of socio-political institutions leading to effective citizenship. This resulted in extensive concerns that colonial education was inadequate to attain our national goals among which was effective citizenship. Thus the agitations for curriculum change rooted in Nigerian citizenship values. This was to meet the aspirations of the newly-autonomous multinational state which required integrating diverse multi-ethnic traits with the needs of the (then) modern era. The founding fathers perceived indigenous education as the main avenue to develop new citizenship (socio-political) order (Ijaduola, 1998; Woolman, 2001; Fafunwa, 2004).

This led to Nigeria's participation in the social studies Mombasa Conference of 1968 in Kenya, where the need for effective citizenship for nation building was stressed. The conference agreed on indigenising effective citizenship to suit each country's contextual factors via social studies. As stated in Chapter 1, the subject was to mediate learners' skills, dispositions and knowledge development on political issues involving democracy, fundamental human rights, good governance) and nongovernmental (multiculturalism, drug, child/women abuse and trafficking, social injustice, environmental and population issues) vital to global citizenship. The philosophy underpinning the development of effective citizenship via social studies in Nigeria was based on articulated views that the subject could guide learners to make informed and logical decisions for the benefit of their community as citizens of diverse ethnic nationalities (Akinlaye, 1981; Contreras, 1990; NCSS, 1992; Muyanda-Mutebi, 1994; Adeyemi, 1998; Idowu, 2001; Ogunyemi, 2011).

In pursuing the above, several conferences, workshops inter alia were organised from 1969 to 1973. These were National Curriculum Conference, National Primary Education Curriculum workshop 1971, the Teacher Education Curriculum workshop 1972, the Secondary Education Curriculum workshop and seminar on National Policy on Education, 1973.

The 1969 National Curriculum Conference agreed on developing an indigenous education curriculum opposed to the colonial legacy. Hence, a new national education philosophy evolved to equip learners for the task of nation-building (Fafunwa, 2004; Taiwo, 1980; Akinlaye, 1981; Woolman, 2001). The underlining point of that conference was stated in the keynote address delivered by the (then) Chief Federal Adviser on Education, Dr. S. J. Cookey, recognizing how imperative citizenship development was by declaring that:

I agree with those who say that citizens are made, not born, and... those who believe that citizenship can be taught. If the understanding and practice of citizenship among Nigerians is a true measure of the Nigerian educational system, then our system has failed woefully... We have not yet begun to think of Nigeria as one and of each one of us as intrinsically part of the Nigerian society. This has been the tragedy of our past, and now is the opportunity to remedy the defects of the past (Cookey, 1972: xxxi).

As discussed in chapter 2, achieving nation-building in most developing countries like Nigeria has led to erroneously perceiving the schools as state agent to develop patriotic, loyal and passive citizenship instead of guiding young learners to develop and exercise their autonomy to question loyalty and patriotism to the state.

The 1973 seminar articulated the proposals agreed in earlier conferences, seminars and workshops to become Nigeria's official National policy on Education (Taiwo, 1980; Fafunwa, 2004; Illo & Bolaji, 2007; Osokoya, 2010).

In 1976, the military regime introduced six years of free and compulsory Universal Primary Education (UPE) similar to the one initiated in the Western region by late Premier Obafemi Awolowo in 1955. UPE was consistent with rights of Nigerian child to functional education and knowledge at stated in Article 28 of the United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1990; Fafunwa, 2004; Ajibola, 2008).

From 1960 to 1982, Nigeria operated 6-5-4, signifying 6 years of primary education, 5 years of secondary and 4 years of higher education across the three tiers respectively. A follow-up to the 1969 Curriculum Conference was the first post-independent education system involving the 6-3-3-4. That is 6 years of primary education, 3years of Junior

Secondary School (JSS), 3 years of Senior Secondary School (SSS) and 4 years of higher education. The implementation for the entire country did not start until 1982 due to operational issues (National Policy on Education, 1981, 1998; Omotayo, Ihebereme, & Maduewesi, 2008; Ajibola, 2008; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009).

In acknowledging its support for UNESCO's 'Education for All' (EFA) goals by 2015, the democratic government at the federal level introduced the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme with a new (9-3-4) educational policy in September, 1999. This supplanted both the 1976 UPE and 1982 6-3-3-4 system (Nwagwu, 2002; Obioma, 2005; Obioma & Ajagun, 2006b; Omokhodion, 2008). This initiative involves firstly 9 years (6-16yrs) integrating primary and junior secondary into a continuous system of schooling referred to as lower basic (primaries 1-3), middle basic (primaries 4-6) and upper basic (junior secondary) which is free and compulsory for Nigerian learners. This implies effective citizenship is a developmental programme which requires sequencing knowledge based on learners' level and ability to develop gradually from known to unknown, simple to complex, narrow to broader knowledge. The civic content acquaints them with more complex aspects of effective citizenship as they transit from lower to middle and upper basic and senior secondary levels (Muller, 2000; Sifuna, 2000; Kutu, 2010).

Evidently, there were inconsistencies in educational policy formulation and this became an issue making the development of effective citizenship unrealisable. Post-independent education development leading to the return of civic education shows that current educational practices contradict the envisaged policy goals highlighted above. In addition, using the school system to attain national goals contradicts present realities indicating that, arguably, the standard is high but education quality is low and the sector is in crisis (Moja, 2000; Bolaji, 2011, 2014; Ajibola, 2008). This is ascribed to three issues: over-politicising education, non-involvement of stakeholders and policy/programme implementation problems as discussed below.

3.2:3 Problems of Education Policies in Nigeria

3.2:3(a) Over-politicisation of Education

Politics covers the diverse sectors of Nigeria including the education sector hence attaining nation-building via education is mostly politically inspired. Arguably, curriculum design and implementation in Nigeria are educational actions affected by political processes (Woolman, 2001; Musa, 2005; Ho & Alviar-Martin, 2010; Ogunyemi,

2010). Therefore, the Nigerian civic curriculum process intended to develop young learners' effective citizenship, inter alia, was undoubtedly exposed to manipulation by political classes (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004; Kahne & Middaugh, 2008). Consequently, curriculum politics is inevitable in education and attempting to make education apolitical is unrealistic. As stated in chapter 1, politics was the underlining issue which truncated developing effective citizenship through social studies education. Individual and sectional political interest overrule national interests in social studies policy paradoxes thus changing negatively the fortunes of Nigerian social studies education (Adedipe, 1985; Ogunyemi, 2010, 2011).

Outright rejection of (instead of modifying) colonial education, though based on nationalistic sentiments by the founding fathers in the 1950s and 1960s was actually due to politicisation of education (Ivowi, 1984; Woolman, 2001; Ogunyemi, 2010, 2011). In fact, the issue of politicisation of education, 1980s and 1990s, led to diverse policies which included proposed equal educational opportunities for the gifted, education of women and nomadic/fishermen education. Also, political parties manipulated education via slogans and manifestos such as 'free education at all levels' and 'qualitative education' as part of programmes to obtain votes from vulnerable electorate (Awokoya, 1981; Ogunyemi, 1998, 2010; Bolaji, 2014).

3.2:3(b) Stakeholders' non-involvement in curriculum reforms

Another issue involves non-participation of stakeholders in the design and formulation of civic curriculum programme. Civic curriculum development entails a gradual progression process of developing components like content, materials and methods with intent to impact knowledge, dispositions and skills via the school to learners (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1977; Onwuka, 1996; Oloruntegbe, 2003; Orukotan, 2006; Oloruntegbe & Daramola, 2007).

Whereas, literature showed that developing curricula (programme) should involve inputs, processes and outputs of education sector stakeholders. Regrettably, the general trend is non-involvement of stakeholders (teachers, students and parents) in the process of curricula design either by seeking their views or direct participation. A study avowed that 85% of teachers confirm non-involvement in designing their subject curriculum (Yigzaw, 1982; Gauteng Department of Education, 1996; Carl, 2002; Obayan, 2002). An exception to this trend showed that civic curriculum development in Australia and South Africa

involved stakeholders' collaborative efforts (Gauteng Department of Education, 1996; Nunan, 1989). However, most studies agreed on stakeholders' non-involvement in curricula development. Curricula implemented in Nigerian's classrooms are centrally developed by the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC), established by the Federal government. Just like Nigeria, most curricula design in transitional democracies operates top-down superficially imposed administrative decisions which make stakeholders beneficiaries rather than active participants in curricula development (Ramparsad, 2001; Zhao et al, 2002; Beggs, 2004; Beswick, 2009; Ogunyemi, 2010; Oloruntegbe, 2011).

Yet, not partaking in civic curriculum design could be the reason for teachers' casual outlook to classroom implementation. This isolation shows utter disregard for locally-driven (grassroots) collaborative civic curriculum design which gives such reforms wide national approval (Nomdo, 1995, Saban, 1995). So, stakeholders (as implementers) lack commitment towards implementing such policy leading to poor application and low performance as the outcome (MoE, 1999; Obayan, 2000; Okebukola, 2004; Ivowi, 2004; Ajayi, 2007; Omokhodion, 2008; Edho, 2009).

Also, teachers were hardly engaged in any form of training to acquaint them with the new curricula despite as sole implementers of curricula reforms (Thaman, 1988; Schmidt & Pramwat, 2006; Oloruntegbe, 2011). Nigerian government has never done enough to sensitise the citizens about various curricula programmes. Citizens are hardly aware of policies initiated for their development. However, denying stakeholders active engagement in curricula planning and design is a step to implementation lapses (Eminue, 2005).

3.2:3(c) Curriculum Implementation Lapses

The education sector encounters policy changes like the wind vane with every successive government due to poor implementation process. Though Nigerian bureaucrats are recognised experts in policy planning and design, the act of translating such policies to action is hindered by implementation lapses. The poor performance of education policies (UPE 6-3-3-4, inter alia) in attaining targets were due to the implementation process involving lack of funding ensuing in deficient instructional material, inadequate qualified teachers, irregular teacher training and classroom implementation lacking active pedagogical practices (Moja, 2000; Ajibola, 2008; Ejere, 2011; Bolaji, 2014). Recent

evidence shows that implementation problems leading to discarding UPE are being experienced under UBE policy. The Education for All (EFA) Regional overview reported the state of affairs in sub-Saharan countries, with Nigeria as one of the countries in serious danger of not meeting the targets of Universal Basic Education (EFA, 2000; Ejere, 2011). Based on the Education for all Development Index (EDI) of less than 0.8, Nigeria is among 16 countries in sub-Saharan Africa furthest from meeting EFA targets. Also, in the Global Competitiveness report (2009-2010), the level of primary education in Nigeria was ranked 132 out of 133 countries surveyed (Ejere, 2011). Evidently, lapses in the process of implementing education policies and programmes caused poor performance and the inability to attain specific goals in Nigeria.

Conversely, a unique trait of the UBE scheme is using the school civic curriculum to develop citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills required to attain national goals (NERCD, 2007; Mukhongo, 2010; Okeahialam, 2013). Government belief in engaging the school confirms Etzion's claim of the school as state agent to implement civic curriculum in the classroom to develop effective (socio-political) citizenship in learners (Csapo, 1981; Bray & Lee, 1993; Etzion, 1993; Morimoto, 1997). However, to what extent has the implementation of school based civic curriculum achieved its goals in young learners requires examining below policy documents and possible adherence to them during classroom implementation.

3.3 Nigeria's Policy/Programme Documents' Implementation: the stance Literature

In the last section, I conceptualise education policy and programme and relate it pre and post independent education trends in Nigeria. Also, I found that apart from inconsistencies leading to frequent changes in education policy and programmes, implementation lapses, among others, is the bane of policy actualisation. This section discusses what provisos policy and programme documents make and what extant literature and studies say on classroom civic curriculum implementation (regarding civic objectives, school resources and pedagogical practices) because the two set out implementation measures. Also, I use both documents and extant literature and studies to underpin (or otherwise) my results in Chapters 5 to 7. This helps me to translate into workable blueprints existing policy and programmes making it possible to explore whether civic curriculum objectives developed learners' effective citizenship via civic curriculum implementation.

3.3:1 Civic Education Policy Documents Perspectives

As stated in Chapter 1, the first official policy document for education in Nigeria is the National Policy on Education (NPE). It is designed to reveal the government contract with Nigerians. The National Policy on Education was first published in 1977 and subsequently revised in 1998 and 2004. In complying with the dynamics of social demands for educational change, the first edition underwent changes. The document states the five national goals which form the basis of our nation building process: a free and democratic society; a just and egalitarian society; a great and dynamic economy and a land full of bright opportunities for all citizens (NPE, 2004, p.1). Also, the NPE defines the process of using education as a tool par excellence to attain national goals like, inter alia, developing effective citizens. It is the reference point for school curricula programmes such as civic education. The second policy document called the UBE implementation guideline/strategy was specifically designed to execute the new education reforms called the Universal basic Education scheme (UBE). According to the Jomtien Declaration (1990) and action plan on 'education for all' and the New Delhi Declaration (1991) for the E-9 countries, basic education involves education using the school instructional styles, inter alia, for the overall development of young learners' potentials (FMOE, 1999). The third document is the Civic Education Curriculum programme designed to underpin the classroom implementation of the above two policy documents (NPE and UBE). It covers diverse units such as objectives, resources, pedagogy, discussed below.

3.3:2(a) Conceptualising Civic Education Objectives

One of the issues likely to determine the pattern of civic instructions in this study is developing appropriate (well defined) civic objectives. I examine this issue because it affects the use of other civic curriculum components like content, teaching aids and pedagogies in classroom civic learning. For civic objectives to elicit proper feedback from the implementers requires them being stated in clear and measurable terms. This helps implementers to know societal expectations and the discretion open to them (Horn & Meter, 1975; Ejere, 2011).

Studies on citizenship curriculum claim that planning, designing and actualising civic curriculum starts with stating well defined objectives due to its impact on other components. Objectives link other components as content, pedagogy (methodology),

instructional resources and evaluation. Conceptually, civic objectives are the intended knowledge, actions and dispositions aimed and applied to relevant instructional settings. Civic objectives are the expected instructional/behavioural changes shown by learners due to classroom civic learning to develop effective citizenship (Tyler, 1948; Wheeler, 1976; Okobiah, 1986; Ali, 2004). Well stated objectives are characterised by: (i) being learner-centred which expounds instructional activities that learners engage in with(out) scaffolding during and after civic lessons. (ii) focusing on developing civic learners' effective citizenship (cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains) components. That is, focusing on the three learning domains instead of stressing one above the others (Curzon, 1990; Ololobou, 2010; Ahmad, 2011; Falade, 2011; Philip-Ogoh, 2011). In view of this, I explore whether civic objectives, presently implemented, are knowledge, dispositions and skills based to develop civic learners' effective citizenship.

3.3:2(b) Policy/Programme Documents and Literature on Civic Education Objectives

The effective citizenship development goal in the NPE evolved from the national goals stated above. Attaining these goals requires developing effective citizens using the civic curriculum to engage in social constructivist (learner-centred) teaching and learning activities for optimal development (S.1 (4d), S.1 (9d) & (9f), NPE, 2004). Also, the UBE implementation guideline proposed that effective citizenship, at the basic education level, involved learners developing knowledge, skills and dispositions allowing them to discharge their civic/citizenship obligations efficiently and competently. Civic learners are to develop ethical, moral and civic dispositions and skills required for life-long learning for active community participation. Similarly, the civic curriculum document underlined skills (intellectual and participatory) acquisition by civic learners to act independently when dealing with various social and personal issues. Evidently, the three documents focused on knowledge, dispositions and skills acquisition as basic to developing civic learners' effective citizenship.

Extant studies show most Nigerian civic classroom implementation focuses more on cognitive (knowledge) objectives at the expense of affective (dispositions) and psychomotor (skills) domains. Evidence of overemphasis on knowledge in the social studies and civic objectives is revealed in studies on the domain-focus of social studies (civic education) objectives in Nigeria. A study shows that 99.43% of civic objectives for

the upper basic level (JSS 1-3) are knowledge-based while 0.567% are affective (dispositions) laden and the psychomotor (skills) domain is absent (Mansaray & Ogunyemi, 1994; Ifegbesan, 2008; Falade, 2011; Philip-Ogoh, 2011; Ahmad, 2011). Unsurprisingly, the civic curriculum currently implemented suggests that most civic objectives are stated in cognitive terms using words such as identify, explain, mention, differentiate and list showing the curriculum as inducing knowledge constructions to the detriment of disposition and skills.

However, unduly stressing knowledge domain indicated it is examination oriented thereby impeding effective civic practice in the school and community (NPE, 2004; Po, 2004; Okam, 2008). The absence of dispositions and skills based issues in the civic objectives limits learners' chances of gaining experiential learning by practicing knowledge construction, whereas active citizenship needs integration of the three civic components discussed. So, focusing on the cognitive component over and above dispositions and/or skills could lead to a pedagogical flaw hindering effective citizenship development (Bruer, 1993; Shanker, 1997). However, achieving the objectives requires adequate school resources provision discussed in the next section.

3.3:3 School Resources

I examined statutory policy documents and literature on civic curriculum objectives being the goal translated into classroom implementation using school resources. In this section, I classify school resources as human (teachers' recruitment and training) and material resources. Statutory documents (NPE and UBE guidelines) stated that a nation's schools cannot rise above their teachers' quality and thus stress the need to improve teacher education. Also, teachers should be involved in educational (curricula) planning, development and implementation because past reforms failed due to neglecting the "teacher factor". Based on this, I examine what statutory documents and literature says on teachers' recruitment, training development and the provision of instructional materials.

3.3:3(a) Policy Document on (Human Resources) Civic Teachers' Recruitment

The National Policy for Education says persons qualified to teach civic education should possess appropriate and relevant academic and professional certification (NPE, 2004, pp 26-7). This was underpinned by UBE guidelines stating that teachers recruited should display a wide variety of innovation and creativity. So, I appraise extant studies and

literature on whether qualified civic (classroom curriculum implementers) teachers were recruited in conformity with statutory documents standards.

3.3:3(a) i Human Resources - Availability/Recruitment of Teachers

Human resources refers to effective coordination of civic teachers' activities towards attaining civic objectives. As stated above, recruitment involves engaging academically and professionally qualified persons to translate civic objectives into classroom implementation within the school system. It is a person legally certified as qualified to guide learners to develop civic knowledge, dispositions and skills within a formal instructional context (Awanbor, 1998; Adepoju & Fabiyi, 2007; Okecha, 2008). In this study, recruitment entails employing new or improvising (seconding/drafting) teachers to teach civic education.

However, studies lacked consensus on teacher recruitment status towards implementing civic education. Some studies indicated high teacher recruitment for subjects including civic education due to the Federal Teachers' Scheme (FTS) introduced in 2006 as an avenue to provide teachers for the implementation of basic education. Others studies, although not denying such recruitment, insisted that recruitment of inadequately qualified civic teachers affected 85% of the states in Nigeria. This hindered quality of the delivery of civic education (Federal Ministry of Education, 2005; Adenipekun, 2006; Adepoju & Fabiyi, 2007; DFID, 2008; EFA Fast Track Initiative, 2009; Obanya, 2010; Ejere, 2011; Okoro, 2011; Reuben et al, 2012; Tsafe, 2013). Underpinning this was a study of six (Bayelsa, Ondo, Katsina, Kwara, Plateau, and Gombe) states showing only Kwara was nearest to the required 1 teacher per 35 learners specified in the NPE. Also, a personnel audit shows that basic education ideally requires 966 308 teachers but only 627 550 teachers are available with 368 613 (55.2%) professionally qualified thus there is still a requirement for about 597 695 teachers (Adeyemi 2007; UBEC, 2009). The recruitment shortfall is due to inaccurate data for planning and reductions in education budgets leading to underfunding of teacher training institutions. Also, teachers' pay package and lack of promotion opportunities meant poor job motivation. There is disparity regarding working conditions (salaries, fringe benefits, promotion, etc) between teaching and other professions (Adelabu, 2005; Global Campaign for Education, 2006; Omokhodion, 2008; Obayan, 2010; Ejere, 2011). This puts off qualified persons from taking up a teaching job leading to personnel improvisation as a stopgap.

3.3:3(a) ii Personnel Improvisation

The problem of inadequately qualified teachers established above led to personnel (civic teacher) improvisation by government and school administrators. Improvisation involved seconding teachers lacking the requisite specialist academic qualifications. Conceptually, it entails accessing teachers hitherto recruited to teach related (social studies) or unrelated subjects (as role substitute) to implement classroom civic curriculum (Weick, 1993a; Crossan & Sorrenti, 1997; Onifade, 2004; Mendonça, et al, 2007). I applied ‘personnel improvisation’ in this study (as used in other fields) to explain government resolve to augment teacher shortage (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998; Moorman & Miner, 1998b).

Improvisation, in this study, raises the debate on whether these teachers possess the requisite civic content knowledge and teaching skills to implement civic education. Studies posit that specialist teachers are better than teachers not formally certified (Darling-Hammond, 1999; OECD, 2010). Evidently, civic education (specialist) teachers have good content knowledge and teaching skills for better efficiency than non-specialists (Adeyinka & Koloi, 2007).

The first of such improvisation measures was the federal government recruiting post-secondary school leavers (para-teachers) as a makeshift for teacher shortfall. They were trained via a Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) for 18-months and sent to the classroom. Inadequate subject knowledge (specialisation) and teaching skills made it difficult for them to teach civic education. Consequently, teachers select themes based on difficulty level, adopt didactic (recitation) pedagogies-copy-work, dictation and lecturing due to lack of professional skills (Mangwat, 2001; Obinna, 2002)

The other teacher improvisation measure involved school administrators drafting in teachers with teaching skills but lacking civic content knowledge. Studies showed most Nigerian states have many of these improvised teachers. For instance, Balyesa State has 5,202 teachers where only 2,246 (43%) are qualified -592/11% with a bachelor’s degree and 1654/31% with NCE, the minimum qualification to teach at basic school (Jekayinfa, 2007). Another study argued that of the 575,068 basic school teachers, 282,000 lack either certification, and/or specialisation to teach a specific subject (Theobald et.al., 2007; Adeyemi 2007; Sam, 2009). This study was confirmed by international reports showing most basic school civic teachers lacked curriculum content knowledge expertise. Only 25% of the school teachers in sub-Saharan Africa surveyed have pedagogical skills

(United Nation Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), 2004, 2006). From the above I observe that implementation of civic reforms involves high numbers of teachers lacking professional certification and/or civic content knowledge and specialisation.

This trend is dire because teachers' acquired teaching quality, knowledge and skills are related to enhanced achievements in the civic learners' classroom (Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 1995; Darling Hammond; Lu, 2005).

Improvisation could lead to filling civic classrooms with inexpert teachers constituting a threat to the intellectual, moral, and emotional growth of learners. Even the organisational theory stated that untrained teachers constitute a menace to the school due to poor skills leading to causing serious errors (Fafunwa, 1991; Mangwat, 2001; Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Also, improvisation could lead to lack of motivation for most Nigerian teachers whose commitment, passion and enthusiasm to the profession have been weakened. Supporting this, a study of teachers in the South-West Zone of Nigeria agreed that teachers were unmotivated due to a delay in paying salaries, among other factors. This resulted in regular strike actions, absenteeism, low teacher performance output which put in jeopardy the implementation of the classroom civic programme (Anyaeibu, Christman & Jingpu, 2004; Adelabu, 2005). Again, organisational theorists assert that since teachers' skills, attitude and commitment are crucial to developing effective citizenship, government sincerity to satisfy teachers' needs could raise their output. Maslow expounded the order of needs to include, inter alia, physiological, self-esteem and self-actualisation. These are basic needs for teachers to expect from their jobs (Maslow, 1954; McGregor, 1960; Bolman & Deal, 2003). From whatever perspective, recruitment could seriously effect civic implementation which involves teachers' poor performance due to excess workload, large class size, poor planning and preparation.

3.3:3(b) Teachers' Continuous Professional Development

Developing effective citizenship requires not just providing certified civic teachers but confirming their continuous professional development (CPD). The statutory documents (NPE and UBE guidelines) proposed reinforcing teachers with general, basic and systematic hands-on practical skills. This enables them to effectively perform their duties and also caters for the pre-service teacher education deficit through in-service training as an integral part of CPD (NPE, 2004). Such in-service training should stress classroom

collaboration (team-work), dialogue, inquiry and content knowledge. Based on these documents, I appraise literature on whether civic teachers acquire regular training on new teaching skills as stated in Chapter 1.

In this study, continuing professional development is the experiential skills, knowledge, and pedagogical competences acquired by civic teachers to constantly sustain their professional and academic efficiency in order to guide young learners to develop effective citizenship and realise teachers' self-actualisation. It is experiential because knowledge results from acquiring diverse experiences; however, experience alone is inadequate to explain teachers' adoption of new skills (Steffy, 1987; Vonk, 1991; Bell & Gilbert, 1996; Harland & Kinder, 1997). This shows that enhancing competence in teaching civic education requires regularly acquiring new civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions. CPD comes in diverse forms involving workshops and regular inductions initiated and planned by the state/local government education board to develop new and serving civic teachers. Selected civic teachers are exposed to current information and skills by experts on citizenship issues. Also, CPD involves career-long training via teachers enrolling individually for distance learning/sandwich programmes on a part-time basis (Mohammed, 2006; Yusuf, n.d.). Also, CPD could involve civic teachers' initiatives to empower themselves through self or group directed professional development activities using information and communication technology (ICT).

The above mentioned CPD, if properly utilised, has diverse positive impacts amongst which is to enhance teachers' self-efficacy, their confidence, beliefs and ability to perform effectively. (UNESCO, 2005; Global Campaign for Education, 2006). Self-efficacy involves civic teachers' beliefs in their abilities to coordinate classroom learning activities in order to attain civic curriculum objectives. Teachers' confidence in their ability helps them to employ new instructional strategies to stimulate young learners' interest. Thus, acquiring new training involves knowledge of citizenship norms and pedagogical practices enabling civic learners to develop skills for public service (Bandura 1997; Slepko, 2008; Colbert, Brown, Ghoi, & Thomas, 2008). These studies show the impact of CPD on civic teachers' pedagogical skills, content knowledge and classroom self-efficacy (Adeyinka, 2001; Adeyinka & Koloi, 2007). CPD, if properly utilised, could instil more commitment in teachers as a crucial dynamic for schools' successful implementation of civic education. CPD could trigger commitment, passion and enthusiasm as part of the ethical and moral virtues civic teachers need to display in

classroom practice in order to impact effective citizenship in young learners (Huberman, 1993; Firestone, 1996; Louis, 1998; Tsui & Cheng, 1999; Yadav & Bhardwaj, 2013). Through professional development teachers develop commitment, emotional attachment, passion and enthusiasm through which teaching is perceived as a calling thus assuming the status of parents (*in loco parentis*) to the young learners (Pollard and Tann, 1987; Anonymous, 2004; Adeyinka & Koloi, 2007). Conversely, lacking commitment and passion is reflected through absenteeism, improper and inadequate planning and preparation for civic teaching which affects the quality of classroom effectiveness thus hindering effective citizenship (Nacino–Brown et al, 1982; Abari, 2004).

The positive impacts of diverse forms of CPD discussed above are crucial to a successful realisation of civic curriculum and effective citizenship considering that pre-service teacher education seems insufficient in equipping teachers with current civic content knowledge and new active pedagogies (Moja, 2000, Nkwanga & Canagarajah, 1999). This is because the teacher education programme stressed theoretical knowledge and had a superfluous emphasis on paper qualifications without acceptable benchmarks for certification. Pre-service teacher education hardly equipped prospective teachers with current instructional pedagogies like critical thinking and interactive and participatory styles to develop learners' effective citizenship. Teacher education qualifications obtained are ineffective and thus require critical appraisal to improve teacher training as standard to measure civic curriculum implementation (Ango et al, 2003; Theobald et al, 2007; Akyeampong, et al, 2009).

Despite the positive impacts of CPD and the inadequacy of pre-service teacher education discussed above, I thought that the government would encourage teachers, in particular civic teachers, in diverse CPD as outlined above. But available literature (studies) argued that most teachers were unable to have much opportunity to engage in any professional development due to funding. Teachers personally pay for programmes involving their professional upgrading due to lack of government funding (UNESCO, 2001; Global Campaign for Education, 2006; Okoro, 2011). Most provisions made for teachers' CPD are only documented but not implemented (Ayo, 2004). Some civic teachers did not attend workshops of any sort whatsoever for over 3 years due to lack of awareness of such workshops and refusal of school heads to release such teachers. The Nigerian government rarely placed much importance on the continuing professional development of teachers. I argue that teacher training effectiveness ends when they finish the pre-service teacher

education programme because they rarely have opportunities to acquire new content knowledge and pedagogical skills via CPD once in employment (Ayo, 2002; Mohammed 2006).

3.3:3(b) i Self/Group-Directed Professional Development

Due to the government failure to train teachers and the realisation that teaching is becoming more demanding, the need for personal staff development arises. This is because, irrespective of the thoroughness of the teacher education programmes, they will still suffer from deficiency occasioned by the demands of social change (Creed, 2001; USAID, 2001). In Nigeria such demands involve acquiring ICT skills, by integrating technology into civic content via curriculum reforms. Such reforms involve obtaining new pedagogies to change from teacher to learner-based teaching. Thus, teachers require new content literacy and teaching skills to sustain their job competence. It creates awareness on current societal demands and research on new instructional processes (Ayo, 2004; Ololube, 2006; Rebore, 2007; Okoro, 2011).

Thus, my study looked at whether civic teachers engage in self or group-directed professional development and the likely impacts, if any. However, I highlight some possible impacts like professional identity, career development, content (theoretical) knowledge, pedagogical skills, professional networking and benefits accruing to civic teachers/learners and inquiry form of teaching instead of canonical views of curriculum, textbook-based or recitation (McDermott, 1990; Bybee, 1993; little, 1993; Arons, 1989; Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2009). These impacts are classified into two groups involving teachers' professional efficacy as advocated by the social cognitive theories (Bandura, 1997) discussed above and teachers' classroom efficacy involving content knowledge and professional skills. The second group is more relevant to this study because they explore whether civic teachers receive any new training on content knowledge, teaching skills and the impact of such training on their civic classroom pedagogical practices (in section 3.4:3) to develop effective citizenship.

Evidently, inadequate in-service training of civic teachers by government led to self or group directed training in order to update their expertise (USAID, 2001; Van Eekelen et al, 2006; Theobald et al, 2007; Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2009; Ejere, 2011). This inadequacy was added to teachers' inability to reflect on existing skills and knowledge in order to acquire current active participatory and interactive skills (Adepoju & Fabiyi,

2007; Hardman et al, 2008; Eddy & Akpan, 2009; Santcross, et al, 2009; Okoro, 2011). Based on this, I say teachers' inadequate CPD had an adverse impact on classroom civic implementation leading to constant use of recitation (teacher talking) pedagogy instead of participatory/interactive activities. Classroom activities are based on recitation (teachers' questions which elicit short retort) instead of classroom dialogue among teachers and learners (Institute of Education University of Ibadan, 2001; Akyeampong, et. al., 2009). Invariably, inadequate CPD could have counter impacts on instructional materials discussed below.

3.3:3(c) Instructional Materials/Resources

Actualising civic reforms could be mediated, inter alia, by exposure to teaching aids. The NPE emphasised developing new teaching materials like civic textbooks, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) facilities and non-text materials to aid the implementation processes (S. 11(100f), (101d, e & f)). In view of this policy proposal, I examine extant studies and literature on whether adequate provision of instructional materials to teach civic education have impacts on effective citizenship development.

The impact of instructional resources in developing social, community and conventional citizenship in and out of civic classroom teaching and learning compels its exploration in this study. Generally, teaching requires learners having opportunities to use various senses aided by technological instructions replacing conventional face to face classroom activities. Using instructional materials is part of social constructivist mediating tools (Chapter 2) of changing from teacher to learner-based teaching guided by civic teachers during classroom activities and engaging civic teachers and learners in collaborative and cooperative interactive learning (Larson, 2001; Lane, 1994). Since verbalization is not enough for effective teaching then teaching materials become the means by which citizenship knowledge is constructed by civic learners. Thus, it is essential for civic teachers to adopt these mediation artefacts as part of the social constructivist learning (Ikerionwu, 2000; Jimoh, 2009; Akao, 2010; Okobia, 2011).

Classroom civic implementation requires using textual (reading and non-reading) materials and audio-visual (electronically and non-electronically operated) materials, (including audio tape recorders, video tape recorders, etc), individually or collectively in any civic classroom (Osakwe and Itedjere, 1993; Ezegebe, 1994; Aduwa-Ogiegbaen and Imogie, 2005). These materials stimulate classroom efficiency and enrich the quality of

civic lessons thus integrating these materials reinforces classroom interactions via exposure to diverse learning experiences individually or in groups (Momoh, 1980; Moronlola, 1982; Popoola, 1990; Okobia, 2011).

Studies shows mixed debates on the impact of teaching materials on civic implementation. While some teachers think such materials have an impact on classroom implementation others are unable to take advantage of these materials. This was due to environmental contexts where social amenities such as electricity, among others, deprive them of the technology-based material thereby undermining implementation in both urban and peri-urban areas (Garuba, 2003; Bolick et al, 2003; Kadzera, 2006; Abdo & Semela, 2010; Jotia & Matlale, 2011; Dahar & Faize, 2011). Without doubt, Nigeria lacks quality civic education implementation in schools due to inadequate teaching material provision such as texts books and other materials.

3.3:3(c) i Provision of Text books and Other Instructional Materials

Generally, adequate quality textbooks and information technology facilities, inter alia, is critical to effective citizenship actualisation. Various literatures showed negative trends which were reiterated by the (then) Federal Minister for Education, that existing amenities like teaching materials were deteriorating if not totally absent (Nkwanga & Canagarajah, 1999; Moja, 2000; USAID, 2001; Theobald et al, 2007; Hardman et al, 2008; Ikoya & Onoyase, 2008).

Specifically, effective civic actualisation is impeded by insufficient textbooks, recurring revision of approved text and poor textbook policy. The World Bank reported that less than 1% of basic schools have adequate textbooks, with extreme disparities between urban schools, and with 80% of peri-urban schools lacking any textbooks whatsoever. Other studies reported an average of 77% of civic learners in both urban and peri-urban schools lacking civic text books (Nkwanga & Canagarajah, 1999; Moja, 2000, 2008; Ogungbesan, 2012).

This negative trend led to the UBEC Intervention Fund created in 2005 to provide textbooks in four core subjects, excluding civic education, to schools (UBEC, 2006; Theobald et al, 2007). Regrettably, available (civic) texts are generally of poor learning quality, are in disorder and deficient in applicability both in knowledge and teaching skills (Theobald et al, 2007; Akyeampong, et al, 2009; Danmole, 2011). This shows that the

most available instructional materials (confirmed in a study of some schools in Edo state) to implement social studies /civic education are textbooks and chalkboards. Most civic teachers are restricted to using textbooks and chalkboards as the only available instructional aids (Okobia, 2011).

However, it should be noted that the adequacy of textbooks enhances knowledge as reflected in achievement tests. Studies confirmed in countries such as Uganda and Nicaragua, among others, that young learners show positive achievement in subjects where textbooks are adequately provided in schools. Thus, textbook availability (along with other indicators) is a significant determinant of school achievement (Heyneman, et al, 1978; Heyneman & Jamison, 1980; Heyneman & Loxley, 1983; Fuller, 1987; Fuller & Clarke, 1993; Moulton, 1994). However, providing just textbooks without other instructional materials may not help civic learners develop values and skills of effective citizenship. More importantly, providing such textbooks in just four core subjects by governments which excluded civic education, implies civic teachers and learners are to search for approved textbooks from self-publishing authors.

3.3:3(c) ii Self - published text

Self - published text involves an author's active participation in virtually all stages and processes of textbook production involving publishing, distribution and marketing (Ike, 2004; James, 2011). Similar to Kenya and Tanzania, Nigeria's book industry is more private sector driven without strict adherence to rules on a textbook's content and quality (Rotich, 2000; Rotich, 2004; Nwogu & Akinde, 2007; James, 2011; Kira & Bukagile, 2013).

3.3:3(c) iii Other instructional materials

Other instructional materials such as charts, diagrams, posters, pictures, or maps which could be produced locally at low cost are inadequate. Regardless of the fact that audio-visual materials like televisions, computers and video recorders help to practicalise the teaching of civic education, there is either inadequate or complete absence of these materials in both urban and rural schools (Inyang-Abia, 1992; Arisi, 1998; Ekpo, 2001; Garuba, 2003; Jimoh, 2009; Okobia, 2011; Okoro, 2011). This study views textbooks usage and other relevant teaching materials to implement civic education as trivial and inadequate in our schools.

Despite huge government investment in providing instructional materials, yet it is far from international minimum benchmarks. Even where funds are provided for these materials, such funds are either misappropriated or mismanaged. Thus, funds designated for quality and successful implementation of education reforms are not prudently utilised (Theobald, Umar, Ochekepe & Sani, 2007; Jaiyeoba, 2007; Ejere, 2011). Also, inadequate provision of instructional materials could be due to the high cost of developing and upkeep of such materials, reluctance of teachers to improvise, lack of civic resource rooms for storage of instructional materials. Limited time allocated to the subject in the school timetable and lack of expertise on the part of the teachers to operate these materials (including information technology) might have resulted in the inability to apply computer and other devices in the teaching of civic education (Garuba, 2003). The issue of deficient and poor utilization of instructional materials in teaching civic education is not limited to Nigerian schools. Studies showed countries like Botswana, Ethiopia, Malawi and Pakistan have similar situations (Jotia & Matlale, 2011; Abdo & Semela, 2010; Kadzera, 2006; Dahar & Faize, 2011).

Evidently, availability of visual, auditory and audio-visual aids are a vital device which help in constructing citizenship knowledge, values and skills. Their absence could undermine quality civic programme implementation which makes effective citizenship development difficult in our schools (Omokhodion, 2008; Adepoju & Fabiyi, 2009; ESSPIN, 2009; Ejere, 2011). Providing and using these classroom teaching technologies makes learning more interesting and a less stressful experience for Nigerian teachers (Jimoh, 2009; Okobia, 2011).

Civic curriculum quality implementation urgently requires the use of instructional resources. Alternatively, the reality of inducing learner-based classroom activities requires improvising and importing ICT as a vital device to aid pedagogical practices in civic classroom implementation discussed in the next section.

3.4 Classroom pedagogical practices

In 2.5:1, I stated that my background as a teacher educator compels the need to explore classroom pedagogies. I should know the teaching styles mediating effective citizenship in Nigeria's developing democracy. Meanwhile, both NPE &UBE documents state that teachers can improve curriculum implementation via regular exposure to new teaching styles. Through training, teachers are exposed to changing pedagogies which enhance

their enquiry and creativity skills. These documents reveal the civic mission of developing effective citizenship requires new pedagogies coupled with quality resources, both human and material. Thus, I appraise extant literature on which pedagogies enhance effective citizenship.

I explore, using empirical studies, whether active modern or traditional or eclectic (mixed) pedagogies has impact and which is more predominant during classroom civic learning. Empirical studies depict pedagogy as a complex, ambiguous and disputed term. It involves deliberate civic teacher initiated classroom interaction and activity to mediate civic learners' interactive and participatory activities in and out of the classroom (Watkins & Mortimer, 1999; Cogill, 2008; Westbrook, et al, 2013). It is the curriculum content (citizenship issues) which civic teachers guide learners to practice through the classroom implementation process to construct citizenship knowledge (Leach & Moon, 1999; Bernstein, 2000; Alexander, 2001, 2003; Kennedy, 2010). From the above, civic pedagogy is the diverse components of learning theories (2.5) manifesting during classroom implementation activities involving learners' active participation mediated by the teacher to attain curriculum objectives (intents).

Civic pedagogy is basic to any reform efforts at equipping civic learners with effective citizenship skills, knowledge and dispositions. Nevertheless, there are mixed debates on the relevant pedagogical (teaching) styles which are the most successful at instilling effective citizenship in learners. The IEA and other studies on citizenship training argued for and against traditional teacher-based and participatory learner-laden pedagogies.

3.4:1 Traditional teacher-based Pedagogy

Traditional (teacher-led) methods emphasise factual knowledge and a more didactic teaching style. This teaching style entails memorising and regurgitating civic concepts by learners (Dewey, 1938; Sifuna, 2000; Teague, 2000; Mellor & Elliot, 1996). Consensus among studies on Nigeria's classroom pedagogical practices revealed more reliance on traditional (teacher) based (lecture, memorisation and recitation) teaching (Hardman et al, 2008). A study of 20 schools in 10 different northern states in Nigeria showed the prevalence of recitation teaching involving chalk-talk, routine choral question and answer (Akyeampong, et al, 2009).

3.4:2 Participatory/Interactive Pedagogy

Conversely, participatory/interactive methods area more reformist-based style of teaching about resolution of national/global citizenship issues. These involve using discourse, dialogue and inquiry for a more radical and critical assessment of citizenship issues (Mellor & Elliot, 1996). Since effective citizenship content is developmental in nature then the content should be developed from known to unknown, simple to complex, concrete to abstract as civic learners move from lower to higher basic. Attaining this requires civic teachers using participatory, activity-based styles like role play, group work, dramatisation, simulation, open classroom climate, inter alia. This develops critical thinking skills to enhance learners' literacy about their social contexts. Through critical thinking learners develop analytical, reflective and independent traits advocated by liberals. These traits are derived via civic classroom dialogue on national and global citizenship issues (Ukpokodu, 1997; Reich, 2002; Woolman, 2001 Asimeng-Boahene, 2007; Mukhongo, 2010).

Though, studies above showed Nigerian teachers practice didactic and recitation approach, yet, teachers still showed interest in using participatory/interactive teaching styles. Studies further showed that though most teachers perceived group work as vital and the majority claimed to use group work regularly, actually just one teacher used it across 42 lessons. Likewise, classroom interactions and discourse analysis shows vocal responses were mainly used by teachers. Many teachers claimed to use choral responses rarely or not at all. From these studies teacher-centred pedagogy is mainly used in core subjects (including civic education) in Nigerian schools. Also, it is interesting to discover that teachers are aware of better practice but do not implement it (Ango et al, 2003; Hardman et al, 2008; Akyeampong et al, 2009). The above findings show our schools are developing passive learners who may find it difficult to engage in critical citizenship. This is consistent with literature (2.5:3) which alluded to relative or non-implementation of these learning theories in the civic classroom is not limited to Nigeria (Wendy, 2003; Evans, 2006b; Olla, 2013). This could be due to teachers' low quality and standards due to recruiting inexpert teachers simultaneously lacking adequate training in relation to these interactive theories discussed (2.5) above.

The IEA and other studies pertaining to England and Hong Kong reveal that citizenship education is mostly implemented via eclectic pedagogy integrating both teacher (taking notes, teachers talk, engage in textbooks and worksheets) and learner pedagogies (role

play, debates, group works) to develop civic learners' effective citizenship (Kerr et al, 2002; IEA, 2002; Kerr, 2005; Kennedy, 2010).

Other studies show that civic learning using participatory pedagogies like open classrooms, collaborative learning, role play and simulation have more impact on learners' citizenship literacy (Nemerow, 1996; Porter, 1993; Print, 1999, Print et al, 2002). This learning style aids critical citizenship through dialogue, exchange of views and expression to develop dispositions and skills which inspire active community participation (Blankenship, 1990; Hahn, 1998; Niemi and Junn, 1998; Hess, 2001; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, and Schulz, 2001). That is, it is vital to de-emphasise classroom teacher-based instructions and stress more learner-activity based instructions which induces critical thinking during classroom learning. Overall, this study views the need for eclectic pedagogical styles which entails combining teacher and learner-pedagogies during the classroom civic implementation discussed below.

3.5 Civic (Education) Curriculum Implementation

3.5:1 Conceptualising Civic Education Curriculum

As stated in 1.2, the basic philosophical underpinning Nigeria's curriculum actualisation involves developing learners' effective citizenship. Attaining this needs consistent civic curriculum review in order to integrate new citizenship norms. Modern human activities have become technologically advanced as to require appraisal of curriculum conceptualisation in order to develop effective citizenship via civic curriculum. So, the curriculum (either explicitly or implicitly) should go along with current global realities on effective citizenship (Maduewesi, 2007; Ajibola 2008).

But then how can a curriculum be conceptualised? It is the entire learning interactive activities holistically planned for learners in the civic classroom to develop citizenship norms (Offorma 2005; Maduewesi 2007; Ekweme et al, 2009). In another context, it entails the whole learning experiences the school guides learners to engage in to attain behavioural change. As such, civic curriculum goes beyond the usual discrete school subject and is one integrating abstract and practical knowledge of issues for learners to acquire in the school. The curriculum focuses on civic contents learning which helps teachers collaborate with learners to examine citizenship issues in order to construct new knowledge. Also, the curriculum should engage learners in extra-curricular activities to obtain experiential learning through school clubs, community projects, inter alia. This

involves, inter alia, community-school affairs using community experts such as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) as resource persons to discuss pressing citizenship issues.

Above conceptualisations suggest narrow and broad civic curriculum perspectives. The narrow view limits civic learning to classroom instructions which excludes activities outside the civic classroom such as moral/ethical and religious issues occurring in the school and beyond. Also, it sees the civic teacher as mere implementer of the planned and prescribed civic curriculum. The teachers' guide citizenship content knowledge via a process of depositing facts in learners (Graham-Jolly, 2003; Carl, 2005; Kelly, 2009). Civic teachers merely implement prescribed curriculum thus restricting teachers' professional impacts in developing knowledge, dispositions and skills (Johnson, 1993; Smyth, 2010).

The broad civic curriculum comprises all the opportunities for learning provided by a school. That is, integrating classroom learning and extra-curricular activities both implicit and explicit, formal and informal, planned and unplanned learning occurring in the school. This presents holistic views of diverse citizenship norms and subsequent learning experiences involving skills, knowledge and dispositions developed by learners via the school civic curriculum implementation (Graham-Jolly, 2003). This study adopts the broad view of civic curriculum due to its holistic traits which integrates citizenship norms to develop effective citizenship.

3.5:2 Civic Curriculum Implementation in Nigeria

Nigerian studies agreed that civic curriculum programme implementation, as in other developing democracies, is a major issue. Most curricula implementation has been mere declamatory without actual impact on the school, young learners and society. This is due to the lacuna between policy intents/objectives and actual classroom implementations due to bureaucratic barriers affecting our overall development (Denga, 2000; Okiy, 2004; Ikoya & Ikoya, 2005; Edukugho, 2006; Obanya 2007; Ejere, 2011; Bolaji, 2014).

Implementing civic curriculum documents within the school context involve classroom interactive activities. The civic teacher (as facilitator) translates formally approved contents (a syllabus) into schemes of work and lessons notes to guide learners to construct knowledge and develop skills and dispositions (Mkpa, 1987; Chikumbi and Makamure

2000; Obanya, 2004; Garba, 2004; Onyeachu, 2008). The implementation process involves turning civic curriculum objectives and content into practice through a process starting from the civic teacher designing the civic scheme of work, instructional materials, pedagogical methods and conducive classroom interactive setting and ending with learners acquiring and constructing (via the intended curriculum) concepts, skills, and dispositions aimed at effective participation in society. This makes civic learners the basic stakeholders in the civic curriculum implementation process. However, effective implementation of civic curriculum should shift from the intended to learned curriculum when civic learners reflect traits of effective citizenship (Okebukola, 2004; Ivowi, 2004; Obanya, 2007).

Yet, the general policy implementation issues *pari-pasu* (side by side) with the classroom implementation process discussed above justified exploring translation of civic curriculum as a school subject into classroom/school actualisation.

3.5:3 Civic Education Curriculum as a School Subject in Nigeria

In Chapter 2, I conceptualised civic education as a field of research and its impacts on effective citizenship components. Here, I discuss civic education re-emergence as a school subject in Nigeria by discussing the objectives and content which are translated into classroom implementation.

Civic education re-emerged in the Nigerian formal school curriculum due to a dynamic interplay of both external and internal influences dictated by the new educational reforms. Externally, citizenship issues were articulated at international conferences such as the Jomtien Education for All Conference (1990), International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo (1994), the Beijing Women Conference (1995), and the Copenhagen World Summit for Social Development (1996) (Ogunyemi, 2011). These conferences were intended to refocus human development towards developing apposite citizenship norms in learners by participating governments using whatever suitable styles (Russell, 1977; Mansaray & Adeyemi, 2004). Also, attaining the goals of Education for all (EFA) agreed in Thailand between 5th – 9th March, 1990, and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015 led to the re-emergence of civic education in Nigeria.

There was also the remote influence of the international network for civic education (Civitas International). This is a global public policy network intended to enhance effective citizenship development in young learners among nascent democracies. Similarly, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) influence on Nigerian scholars led to developing more interest in civic education conceptualisation and practice. These efforts reinforced the return of civic education into the formal school system (Cogan & Derricott, 1998, 2000; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004; Ogunyem, 2011; Ogundare, 2011).

Besides the external influence, there were national issues and problems leading to the re-emergence of civic education as a school subject. As stated in Chapter 1, social studies was designed as an integrated curriculum, to develop learners' effective citizenship. However, its unwieldy scope aimed at tackling citizenship issues inter alia, led to its failure. Therefore, the concern for developing and transforming Nigerian youths into effective citizens which social studies failed to tackle led to disarticulating citizenship issues to become a distinct subject called Civic Education (NERDC, 2007, p.v; Federal Ministry of Education, 2007, p. v). Historically, civics was offered at both primary and secondary schools, but integrated into general knowledge and later subsumed into social studies in 1971. The 1991 curriculum review included citizenship education in the secondary and teacher education programme as citizenship content of the social studies curriculum. Eventually, civic education was returned in 2006 for children between 7 to 16 years (primary, basic and Senior School (SS) levels) with the objectives stated below (Udoh, 2000; Ogunyemi, 2010; Ogundare, 2011).

The Civic curriculum return indicates government intent and readiness to remedy the tragedies of the past, by utilizing civics to correct such mistakes. This perception is substantiated by the late American President J.F. Kennedy that *'only with complete dedication by us all to the national interest can we bring our country through the troubled years that lie ahead'*. Thus, civic education returned to equip young learners with skills to examine current and future national issues via dedication to nation building (Kennedy, 1961 cited in Abdou Moumouni, 1968).

Unfortunately, literature shows that developing effective citizenship through civic education could be a difficult task because programme implementation issues which plagued social studies still run in our educational system. One such issue includes

producing certificated conscious young learners who only need to read and write mainly to pass examinations. They earn a certificate mostly by reading through past question papers and memorising model answers. The educational system does not develop learners to solve citizenship problems outside the classroom but only inculcate large amounts of incoherent knowledge difficult to practice (Cookey, 1969; Adaralegbe, 19; Okam, 2008; Ogunyemi, 2010). Nigeria's educational system breeds young learners whom Alexander Pope described as bookful blockheads who ignorantly read, with loads of learned lumber in his [sic] head. This reflected the failure of social studies in particular and the educational system as a whole to develop effective citizenship among Nigerians (Cookey, 1969; Adaralegbe, 1970).

3.5:4 Objectives of Civic Education

The objectives of civic education at both junior and senior levels involve

- (i) acquiring and learning to use the skill, dispositions, knowledge and values which prepare learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives;
- (ii) attaining the Millennium Development Goals and the need to implement the critical element of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies;
- (iii) creating awareness on the provisions of the Nigerian constitution and the need for democracy;
- (iv) creating adequate and functional political literates among Nigerians;
- (v) sensitising Nigerians on the functions and obligations of government;
- (vi) Inculcating in the child the spirit of self-discipline, hard work, cooperation and respect for authority;
- (vii) promoting the understanding of the inter-relationship between man/woman, the government and the society;
- (viii) highlighting the structure of government, its functions and the responsibilities of government to the people and vice-versa;
- (ix) Enhancing the teaching and learning of emerging issues;
- (x) Inculcating in students their duties and obligations to society (NERDC, 2007).

3.5:5 Civic Education Curriculum Content

The civic education curriculum content contains issues germane to developing effective citizenship as indicated in the National curriculum for Junior and senior Secondary School. The content covers ten themes involving:

- (i) values
- (ii) citizenship
- (iii) national consciousness and national unity
- (iv) human rights and rule of law
- (v) representative democracy
- (vi) duties and obligations of citizens
- (vii) Nigerian constitution
- (viii) social issues
- (ix) peace and conflict resolutions
- (x) National economic life (NERDC, 2007).

The above content is a multi and inter disciplinary, learner-centred, interactive, activity/issues-based curriculum. Young learners are to be exposed to total learning experiences which reflect depth, appropriateness, and inter-relatedness of knowledge. That means citizenship issues are presented in logical and sequential order of themes which ensures continuity of citizenship issues. Moreover, the curriculum shows flexibility by enabling the civic teacher to introduce creativity and adaptability into civic content.

3.6 Conclusion

I examine policy documents and studies on Nigeria's civic education implementation in this chapter. In doing this, I discussed educational trends from the colonial period to post-independent Nigeria. I found inconsistencies in policy design throwing the sector into crisis due to, mainly, education politicisation and implementation issues. The national goal of developing effective citizenship as stated in policy documents is contrary to present realities depicted by extant studies/literature. As a teacher educator interested in the impact of translating civic intents into classroom implementation, I specifically examine classroom factors like civic objectives, school resources and teaching styles. Studies reveal current school practice is contrary to envisaged statutory goals stated in policy documents on the three civic education implementation factors. These civic curriculum factors and effective citizenship form the basis of my research methodology examined in the next chapter.

Chapter Four:

Research Methodology

4.0 The Introduction

In this study, I explore the translation of civic objectives into effective citizenship development via classroom implementation. As discussed in my literature review, I observe that school resources and pedagogical practices (teaching styles) affect civic content to develop effective citizenship. Thus, it is crucial to examine stakeholders' (civic experts, teachers and learners) perceived impacts through the following: I look at the possibility of civic objectives developing learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills components in effective citizenship. Also, I examine the classroom implementation of civic curriculum content in developing learners' effective citizenship components. Moreover, I find out the classroom implementation of school resources and pedagogies impact on content in basic and senior secondary learners' effective citizenship development components. I then translate the above issues into the research questions stated in Chapter 1. However, my overarching question is whether stakeholders perceive that the civic curriculum impacts on learners' effective citizenship development components. These research questions, derived from the literature appraised in Chapters 2 and 3, guide my epistemological stance, data collection methods and research analyses.

I examine in this chapter relevant (basic) research elements like the philosophical and methodological stances of this study. This leads to my use of multimethod research design and multimethod concurrent and sequential explanatory design involving questionnaire and focus group discussion, data collection and analysis. I also discuss below other research design elements like study variables, sampling strategies, instruments, data collection procedures and ethical considerations and issues.

4.1 Epistemological Stance: Social Constructionism or Social Constructivism

In this section, I view epistemology as the study of knowledge and from this import arose two epistemologies (constructivism and constructionism) which researchers often but wrongly construed as the same and thus used them interchangeably. To correct this view, I intend to distinguish between these two epistemological concepts in the discussion below and accordingly opt for social constructivism as the relevant epistemology for this

study. I then justify my choice of social constructivism as well as expound on the social constructivism pedagogy and link it to the modernisation theory

One of the traits of a reflective research is examining the methodological/epistemological foundation upon which the research is premised (Evans, 2002). Epistemology is a branch of philosophy which forms the basis, types and means of developing knowledge. Epistemology reflects the nature of the nexus between the knower/would-be knower and what can be known by offering a philosophical grounding to decide on the kind of knowledge which is possible and how we ensure its adequacy and legitimacy (Crotty, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Marsh & Furlong 2002). In other words, epistemology is the knowledge which explores the constructions or meaning that people attribute to perceptible experiences which, in this study, involves the nexus between the researcher, effective citizenship knowledge and participants (Lee, 2011; Moriarty, 2010; Guba,1990). Epistemology depicts the perspective of the known realities and the process of knowing such realities, that is, how to know what we know.

Accordingly, this study, basically identified certain epistemological paradigms which involved the objectivist/positivist and interpretivist/constructivist epistemologies which depict distinctive insights about the process by which we know what we know (Crotty, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1998). These paradigms explain the process of knowing the reality of effective citizenship via inquiry to ascertain the status to be ascribed to the perception and understanding we have (Crotty, 1998). Thus, I argue that knowledge about effective citizenship could be tacitly derived via ascribed individual/social meanings or constructions.

The objectivist/positivist epistemology, common in quantitative research, avowed that meaning that is meaningful reality, is distinct from the operation of any perception. Also, the researcher remains distant and independent of the object of study (M. Crotty, 1998). One can perceive events as they happen and understand such in the absence of any engagement, thereby denying any reality. This means that objectivity is possible. Also, positivists believe that the results are generalizable and replicable even as they attempt to explain the behaviour instead of the meaning (Marsh & Furlong 2002). Conversely, the interpretivist/subjectivist epistemology suggests that there are multiple realities in relation to social events and issues. This paradigm further posits that realities regarding events and issues can only be socially constructed since these events and issues depend on how they are construed (Marsh & Furlong 2002). Impliedly, societal dictates are

known via interpretative inquiry by groups/individuals who are constantly streamlining social realities (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The goal is to understand and interpret multiple social realities initiated through social interactions and such interpretations are determined by the personal, cultural and historical experience of the researcher (Minichiello et al, 2000; Creswell, 2007).

However, scholars have identified constructivism which is used interchangeably with constructionism, as an epistemology of the interpretivist paradigm (Crotty, 1989; Guba & Lincoln, 19889). Nevertheless, constructivism is not a single nor unified epistemology. Instead it is perceived from multiple perspectives, amongst which is social constructivism which scholars also perceived as erroneously synonymous with social constructionism (Yilmas, 2008; Healy, 2011; Hyde, 2015). Notwithstanding, I discuss constructionism, social constructionism constructivism and social constructivism regarding their similarity and differences and which is relevant for this study and the reasons for the choice.

4.1(a) Constructionism and Social Constructionism

Constructionism is based on the view that meaning is constructed, thus reality is socially constructed via interactions among individuals, in which meanings are shared in discourse thereby initiating new knowledge (M. Crotty, 1998). In other words, a constructionist view of the world submits that meaning is not discovered, but constructed during individual interaction. “Before there were shared perception capable of interpreting the world, which hitherto held no meaning at all” (M. Crotty, 1998, p. 43). Social constructionism which emerged from sociology and communication is an anti-realist, relativist link to the post-modern era in qualitative research. Social constructionism entails knowing the nature of reality in terms of developing a jointly constructed understanding of the world. Social constructionism is basically an epistemological stance which contends that social and interpersonal factors are the bases of human existence. It explores socio-cultural factors on communal and individual life (Gergen, 1985; Hammersley, 1992; Andrews, 2012; Galbin, 2014). Also, social constructionism entails a group of individuals constructing meaning in the course of experiencing the reality being construed, and sharing such construction in the community. Social constructionism is concerned with the collective generation [and transmission] of meaning. Crotty (1998) identified the concept of social constructionism to explain that beings construct meaning as they encounter the world they are interpreting, and they share these interpretations in the community. Social constructionism suggests that all meaningful reality is socially

constructed and that the social world and the real world are not to be seen as separate worlds.

4.1(b) Constructivism and Social Constructivism

Conversely, constructivism refers to knowledge which is individually constructed based on the social context of learning. The constructivist researcher intends to interact with key actors involved in the study, in order to reduce the lacuna (gap) between the researcher and participants (Burns, 1997). This concern has to do with how individuals construct meaning. However, each individual's way of making sense of the world is valid and worthy of recognition (Crotty, 1998) and each individual can develop and share perceptions about the world. As stated above, constructivism is characterised by multiple perspectives and thus particular reference is made to cognitive and social constructivism briefly discussed below. Cognitive constructivism asserts the existence of reality which is knowable to the individual through accurate (re) constructions based on personal experience. Moreover, a cognitive constructivist posits that meaning construction of issues is personal, exclusive and subjective or imposed on reality, thus stressing that the knowledge construction process is due to the person's action and interaction in the world individually (Crotty, 1998; Doolittle & Hicks, 2003).

Social constructivism involves the process whereby individuals collectively create meaning of reality within a social context. Such reality is constructed via interactions and consensus among groups of people to develop new knowledge (Buchanan, 2007; Healy, 2011). It stresses traits involving social interactions, action regulation and historical change. Social constructivism recognises multiple realities which differ with the perception and stance of the individual. In accordance with the social constructivist stance, I am convinced that a core tenet of a social constructivist perspective involving multiple realities can be in operation concurrently within a given context with a view to drawing from the learners' perspectives (Krane & Bird, 2005).

Social constructivism asserts the existence of realities which is knowable through shared social experiences which lead to consensual (agreed) meanings. There is the conviction that knowledge has subjective meaning initiated and reconstructed by individuals due to new encounters. Thus, knowledge is created discretely via mutually contextualised learning (Packer & Goicoechea 2000; Doolittle & Hicks, 2003; Hyde, 2015).

However, some scholars suggest that both social constructionism and social constructivism are the same and use them interchangeably. To them, social constructionism, as an epistemology, begins from constructivism which asserts that individuals construct meaning within their context and then progresses to the constructionist stance which involves discoursing individual meaning constructed to co-create and develop new meaning through consensus (Burns, 1997; Buchanan 2007; Yilmaz, 2008; Healy 2011; Hyde 2015). Also, social constructionism is perceived as complementary to social constructivism because individuals/groups collaborate to construct knowledge involving realities. However, the two epistemologies differ based on the fact that social constructionism engages in creating artefacts via group social interactions while social constructivism engages in group knowledge construction for learning due to the interactions.

4.1(c) Rationale for the Choice of Social Constructivism

Having distinguished between these two epistemologies, especially regarding the difference alluded to above, I am convinced that social constructivism is the appropriate epistemology underpinning my assertions to knowledge in this study. Social constructivism epistemology is more appropriate and relevant to explore issues involved in this study since it engages in group knowledge construction mainly for learning, among other reasons alluded to below.

Moreover, this epistemology perceives reality as subjective; that is, individual experiences could lead to grasping the world inhabited. Also, it perceives reality as relative and uncertain since truth is based on a person's creation of meaning (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Crotty, 2003). Social constructivism, as an epistemology recognises that there are multiple realities merged to create multiple theories which developed from individuals' induced meanings of experience (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Accepting this reality entails grasping the beliefs and perceptions held by people involved in setting the world view instead of assuming an outsider view (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Rodwell, 1998). This makes social constructivist realities relative and human creation of meaning subject to the individual (person's) outlook.

Thus, this research is premised on the notion that realities involve how young learners individually and collectively, through social interactions and consensus, construct their effective citizenship knowledge. Also, social constructivism asserts that social creation

of reality involves close cooperation and teamwork between me and the participants who are able to convey their views (Searle, 1995; Crabtree & Miller, 1999). The participants' perceptions depict their understanding of reality which mediates the researcher's in-depth insights of the participants' world view and actions. In other words, the individual acquires common, socially constructed realities which enables them to function (as collaborators) co-operatively. From this perspective, a joint sense of reality is the basis and prevalence of social interaction made most apparent in the form of human language. Individuals are engaged in communal construction of realities which enables them to function collaboratively. Consequently, a common sense of reality is the basis of social interaction made most obvious via the form of human language. The participants' views depict their grasp of reality which mediates the researcher's in-depth insights of the participants' world view and actions (Lather, 1992; Robottom & Hart, 1993).

Though social constructivism alluded to multiple realities, however, these realities differs with the view and stance of the observer. Thus, reality is relative as well as socially negotiated. This means that meaning is neither constant nor measurable in objective terms, rather meaning (truth) originates due to collective immersion into the realities in the milieu. Thus knowledge, as reflective reality, is subject to human norms and practices created due to links among people within their milieu and as such acquired and circulated within a social context.

My choice was influenced by different factors including my research questions, in conjunction with the literature reviewed on civic education and social studies in Chapters 2 and 3. Also, being a lecturer and researcher in social/citizenship education enabled me to read literature and past studies on constructivist methodological thoughts and pedagogy. This boosted my beliefs to help learners construct their own views of realities. Thus constructivism empowers my deep insight on developing effective citizenship from stakeholders' views of these realities.

This research was also influenced by the beliefs that knowledge (perception) of the world is relative, transactional and subjective. In addition, learners' effective citizenship perceptions depend on their individual and group interpretations of experiences based on the context of different previous encounters, social interactions and consensus; and values which invariably affect their construction of new effective citizenship knowledge. This implies that there is no independent truth to be proven considering the diversity of interpretations and analysis which can be used (Hugly and Sayward, 1987; Savill-Smith,

2001). Also, effective citizenship knowledge (truths) evolves from interactions between learners during civic exposures which has an effect, not only on these interactions, but the individual construction of realities (Berlin, 1987). Finally, knowledge entails recognizing a stakeholder's subjective view of citizenship realities which means the notion of effective citizenship has to be constructed as the respondents perceive it in order to ascertain multiple realities (Ratner, 2008).

In accordance with the social constructivist stance, I am convinced that there can be multiple realities in operation concurrently within a given context with a view to drawing from the perspectives of learners (Krane and Bird, 2005). Thus, the research is premised on the notion that realities involve how young learners individually and collectively through social interactions and consensus construct their effective citizenship knowledge.

This epistemology posits that people give meaning to phenomena and understand this via their interactions and experiences - personal epistemology (Feucht & Bendixen, 2010). Teachers who interact with learners within their setting have experiential knowledge. This is basic to exposing the dilemmas facing them giving the need to know the truths as experienced by participants. These issues are the basis of why this research aligned with constructivism.

From the above, a multifarious sequence of interactions is revealed involving the learners, schools, civic teachers, and the regulatory bodies (Al-Zyoud, 2011). So, engaging with the perceptions of civic learners and teachers can be realised through the use of surveys but cannot be significantly recognised and expressed by traditional positivist methodologies. This is because numeric data will only serve as guide to social realities, and is inefficient in terms of grasping innate contextual aspects of citizenship issues thus the rationale for focus group discussions. Instead, an epistemological underpinning premised on constructivism (with particular reference to both cognitive and social constructivism) appears to be the most suitable means of appreciating all the issues involved and the data collected. Cognitive constructivism asserts the existence of reality which is knowable to the individual through accurate (re) constructions based on personal experience. Social constructivism asserts the existence of reality which is knowable through shared social experiences leading to consensual (agreed) meanings (Doolittle & Hicks, 2003). Applying this stance implies an assumption by me that there are multiple realities (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) and to interact with my participants as they construct

their realities, make sense and draw meaning from these realities in order to value their judgement, and to describe these experiences in the context of my academic experience (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006 cited in Al-Zyouud, 2011).

4.1(d) Social Constructivism and Modernisation Theory

Modernisation, as a socio-political theory, underlines the strong nexus between education (formal school) system and effective citizenship development. That is, formal education involving the school system should be a tool to transform young people to become competent adult citizens with capacity building to articulate personal and national interests as against tribal sentiments. Schools as the agents of society are established to develop learners with a modern outlook to engage in the political system, due to knowledge and skills acquired in the school system (Apter, 1963; Almond & Verba). The school civic curriculum should help young learners construct new citizenship knowledge and skills and alter existing dispositions as a way to strengthen citizenship transformation. This could be attained by engaging and developing citizenship principles and practices in learners, individually and collectively. Undoubtedly, the contemporary school system could be a vital tool for learners' emancipation through citizenship practices as a form of empowerment. Since citizenship is constructed and reconstructed based on citizens' behaviours then learners require diverse skills, care, consensus ad idem regarding citizenship norms and values and good judgment to transform their community (Van Gunsteren, 1998). Although the school inculcates obedience to the state, structure of the political systems and also rights and responsibilities (Anderson, et al, 1997; Brophy, 1990) yet it must mediate reflective (critical) citizenship to help question existing practices in the political system (Anderson, et al, 1997). Modernisation theory depicts the school as agent to impart any of the above citizenship perspectives as outlined in the state designed curriculum for learners' transformation (Barr, Barth and Shermis, 1977; Banks, 2008).

Attaining learners' civic transformation needs interactive/participatory learning theory like social constructivism (2.5:1) to foster reflective knowledge construction involving interactions to generate new ideas (Lambert et al, 1995; Maclellan and Soden 2004; Glasersfeld 1995). This theory requires the school to mediate learners' appropriate skills acquisition whereby learners can construct their own knowledge of citizenship practice. Each learner is expected to disclose past experiences, views based on their socio-cultural histories and world perspectives into the interactive learning process in order to construct

new knowledge (Kamii, Manning, and Manning, 1991). Through collaboration (joint interactions) with their teachers and other more knowledgeable peers, young learners are acquainted with their peers' thinking processes and this makes learning a collective endeavour instead of individualised learning.

The social constructivist classroom initiates interactive collaborative activities via a pedagogy of conversations (dialogic interaction) involving young learners talking themselves through to solve citizenship problems. Through dialogic discourse learners and teachers participate in classroom learning by collaborating to build on their own and each other's' knowledge and ideas to develop coherent thinking. This is because knowledge and understanding emanates from exploring and analysing citizenship issues and not being indoctrinated by teachers' ideas and values. Such constructivist pedagogy of conversation develops the critical and independent reflective thinking capacity for learners to construct knowledge and intellectual and participatory skills to engage in the polity (Giroux, 1989; Ukpokodu, 1994, 1997; Reich, 2002 Woolman, 2001). These point to the nexus between modernisation theory, constructivist epistemology (4.1) and pedagogy (2.3:2 & 2.5:1). Therefore, social constructivist learning is relevant to the modernisation theory because it mediates transformation of learners' identity which involves total engagement of learners' cognitive, dispositional and skills domains in the civic classroom learning process (Biesta & Miedema, 2002; Alexander, 2006).

From the epistemological perspective, social constructivism explores the diverse realities of civic teachers and learners' deeds towards developing effective citizenship in their diverse contextual settings. This requires multiple realities existing in the form of multiple concepts (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus, this study is intended to reveal multiple realities of civic implementation being explored to have a clearer view and also for participants to state their stories on the realities innate in civic curriculum implementation. Participants will also identify ways to surmount implementation issues (Denzin & Lincoln 2000; Robottom & Hart, 1993, Baxter & Jack, 2008). The study's broad goal is exploring related multiple concepts from diverse contexts to grasp stakeholders' views on effective citizenship development in the context of civic education classroom learning (Sherwood, 2010).

Nigeria's multi ethnic/religious nature is obvious in our school system. So, implementing civic in the school should attract diverse views from participants. So, the social constructivist stance should show personal insights by using focus group and

questionnaires. This depicts the flexibility of the nuances of dynamic interactive processes (Mountain, 2004; Sherwood, 2010). This reveals that epistemology defines the choice of method. Thus, social constructivism boosts thick interactions between me and participants to assess diverse views on effective citizenship (Rodwell, 1998). So, my social constructivist stance dictated using questionnaires to test constructs and focus groups to discern patterns stated in literature (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Shoqirat, 2009). This shows fusing empirical and verbal details could reveal broad based issues built-in civic actualisation of effective citizenship (WHO, 1998; Tone & Tilford, 2001). Studies shows that social constructivism is proper to gather and probe data arising from a multimethod study which uses empirical studies (tables, charts, figures) and verbal (texts) details to explain the research issues (Sechrest & Sidani, 1995; Sandelowski, Voils, & Knaf, 2009).

Through social constructivism, participants' diverse views are obtained and utilised in a way that focus groups explain questionnaire data (Creswell, 2003; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Pragmatically, I used what works to answer the research questions and to combine insights offered by both research methods as outlined in the research design below (Greene, 2007; Morgan, 2007). Then, the methods required to create multiple constructs relevant to effective citizenship development are outlined in the research design table in the next section.

4.2 Research Design

Table 1 Summary of the Various Aspects of the Research Methodology and the Research Timeline: May 2012 to February 2013

Data Collection Methods	Justification/Rationale	Link to RQs	Sample Size	Data Analyses Method	Links to other methods
1 (a) Questionnaire: open and closed questions	To assess the suitability of civic education objectives to guide learners' knowledge construction, develop dispositions and skills.	1a	Social studies/citizenship education experts in colleges of education and universities	Quantitative (descriptive) analysis & qualitative (thematic) analysis	To discover if the objectives of civic education are congruent with other elements of the curriculum
1 (b) Questionnaire closed questions	Explore civic learners' perceived impact of civic content on their effective citizenship development	1b	Civic learners in junior and senior secondary schools	Quantitative: Descriptive Analysis	Findings from this instrument were used for focus group discussions (ii)
2 Questionnaire closed questions	Explore civic teachers' perceived availability, adequacy and impact of school resources civic instructions	2	Civic teachers in junior and senior secondary schools	Quantitative: Descriptive Analysis	Findings from this instrument were used for discussion
3 Questionnaire closed questions	Explore civic teachers' perception on which teaching practices have impact on civic instructions	3	Civic teachers in junior and senior secondary schools	Quantitative: Descriptive Analysis	Findings from this instrument were used for discussion
4(i) Focus Group Discussion	Collect more data to augment /elaborate questionnaire responses	1b	Civic students in junior and senior secondary schools	Open questions using qualitative (thematic) analysis	To provide in-depth explanation on the questionnaire findings above.
4(ii) Focus Group Discussion	Collect more information to augment/elaborate questionnaire responses. To give more details on the questionnaires	2 & 3	Civic teachers in junior and senior secondary schools	Open questions using thematic analysis	To provide in-depth explanation on the questionnaire findings above.

Table 1 above, depicts that the research design entails employing quantitative and qualitative methods to test and discover constructs regarding developing effective citizenship via civic education classroom implementation in schools. Using the quantitative method facilitates collection of broader information, involving numerical data which enables me to ascertain disparities among variables which have large samples for broader inferences and information (Seale, 2004; Silverman, 2005). However, data collected via quantitative means lacks the depth required to explain implementation issues involving effective citizenship development. Survey questionnaires alone may not provide the in-depth views, experiences, values and outlooks of participants (Clough & Nutbrown, 2002; Byrne, 2004). However, the quantitative method is combined with qualitative design to offer in-depth information to clarify and explain for a better grasp of issues about the implementation of civic education to develop effective citizenship.

4.3 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Typologies

Literature depicts methods involving quantitative and qualitative data gathering and analysis in the context of a single study as either mixed method, mixed model or multimethod research designs. Mixed-method research involves at least a quantitative and qualitative method; but the two methods are not innately tied to a specific research paradigm. It involves collecting or analysing quantitative and qualitative data discretely in a single study. Mixed model research entails integrating qualitative and quantitative data by transforming, in most cases, qualitative data into quantitative data thus merging the two sets of data collected (Caracelli and Green 1993; Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie 2003; Byrne et al, 2007). However, this model occurs in more than one phase of a single study which includes the research questions, research methods, data gathering, data analysis and the interpretation or inference process (Byrne et al, (2007). Multimethod design entails using quantitative and qualitative studies which are relatively complete on their own and afterwards applied together to form a basic part of a particular research. Each study is planned and conducted to answer the same research questions; data collections undertaken separately from the same participants while the results are triangulated to form a comprehensive whole (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Morse, 2003; Creswell, Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003; Creswell & Clark 2007; Driscoll et al, 2007). Since literature and studies have shown lack of consensus on the distinct pattern of conducting mixed methods, I used multimethod design to answer the research questions within the limits of this study context (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004).

4.3:1 Multimethod Research Design

Multimethod is used in a research program when a series of projects are connected within a broad issue and so designed to solve an overarching research problem. It has been variously defined in the literature as involving collecting figures to test hypotheses and integrating information gathered to give detailed descriptions, contexts and account of the trends explored (Morse 2003; Stange et al, 2006). Also, it is a research process which uses more than one method or worldview, that is, the researchers apply both qualitative and quantitative theoretical stance or paradigm (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Also, Morse (2003) says multimethod entails a methodical and thorough conduct of both quantitative and qualitative tasks completed in themselves and the findings (results) of both methods triangulated (merged) at the discussion phase to develop into a comprehensive study.

I used multimethod design as a process for collecting, analysing, and merging questionnaire and focus group discussion data in this study. Using this design was due to my epistemological stance as explained in 4.1 above, knowledge of past citizenship studies using similar methods (Bowling and Ebrahim, 2005; Jones, 2006; Dismore, 2007) and the need to aptly answer the research questions for this study in order to have a better grasp of research issues (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Creswell 2005). Doing this requires diverse instruments and methods to explore the intricacies in the various citizenship domains realities-cognitive, affective and skills developed in learners (Dismore, 2007). Thus, constructivism tests these realities by obtaining participants' views via questionnaires and focus group discussions.

Past studies revealed that citizenship is very complicated for a single method to portray a true reflection of the issues involved especially when there is a lack of existing instruments with which to conceptualise their various perspectives. More so, the data collected involved examining knowledge, dispositions and skills development of learners' effective citizenship. Thus, collecting data which presents detailed accounts of issues on these components dictated combining methods (Silverman and Subramaniam, 1999; Jones, 2006; Dismore, 2007).

From the above discussion, I used relevant methods to collect data to reflect the different citizenship components' realities. Applying questionnaires and focus groups should not be seen as adopting two contrary methods but as part of the data collection means of this study (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Also, I adopted multimethod because my research

questions involved both adults and young learners who could be induced to participate by diverse methods (James et al, 1998; David et al, 2001). This is because stakeholders' diverse dispositions and skills in reacting to questions and discussing issues must be considered. For instance, school children were more disposed to discussion than filling in questionnaires. Also, I combined (survey questionnaire and focus group) methods due to the realisation that more information would be collected from stakeholders (Garbarino & Stott, 1992).

Combining both questionnaire and focus groups helped me to draw from the strengths, (thus reducing the limitations) inbuilt in the two methods (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). For instance, it may be difficult for a qualitative-minded reader of this study to grasp the outcome of my questionnaire findings and vice versa (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). Thus, multimethod was to answer research questions which seem hard for a single method depending on whether a qualitative or quantitative researcher reads the study outcome. Through multimethod generalizations, vital details of participants' ideas are sequentially explained.

From the above, multimethod enabled me to validate (triangulation in 4.3:2) data and results of questionnaire and focus group data to ascertain new or opposing issues which require more inquiry. As stated above, quantitative and qualitative methods are not incompatible, then integrating the two methods mediates testability and context into this study (Van Maanen 1983; Kaplan & Duchon 1988; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). Collecting questionnaire and focus group data using diverse methods from civic teachers and learners inter alia offers a broad variety of analysis which depicts a broad image of civic curriculum implementation and learners' effective citizenship (Bonoma 1985).

The multimethod procedure has developed in diverse research fields to further improve research process and findings regarding policy issues. Literature depicts this design as a veritable practical mechanism to appraise educational policy/programmes like civic curriculum (Morse 2003; Almarsdottir et al, (2009). It is a skilful process of reviewing civic curriculum components in order to develop reliable interpretations. By this, policymakers are guided to ascertain the functionality of civic curriculum as well as those aspects which are impractical and to understand reasons for such non-functional areas and so propose practical reforms (Sanderson, 2002; Granger, 1998; Campbell, 1988).

In order to answer this study's research questions, I adopted Morse's principles to guide linking quantitative and qualitative methods (Morse, 2003; Byrne & Humble, 2007). These principles are outlined and discussed in relation to this study below.

Multimethod design adopts a particular epistemology to underpin the whole study. Thus, this study adopts constructivism discussed above (4.1) as the underpinning epistemology. Also, the use of multimethod design provides several options regarding the dominance/priority given to either quantitative or qualitative tasks in a study. However, this study gives equal emphasis to both quantitative and qualitative collection and analysis of data, that is, both quantitative and qualitative data are to complement each other (Morse, 2003; Morse & Niehaus, 2009). Also, two types of multimethod designs are applicable in the data collection stage of this study. This study employed simultaneous (concurrent) and sequential data collection processes as discussed below (4.3:2) (Morse, 2003; Byrne & Humble, 2007). Also, this study's multimethod design entails merging questionnaire (numeric) data with focus group (texts) data. Both data results are reported jointly in the discussion chapters (5-7) of this study. In the report, I present the questionnaire statistical results first and subsequently merge it with the focus group themes to explain and elaborate on the quantitative results as a form of triangulation discussed in 4.3:2 below (Sandelowski, Voils, & Knafl, 2009).

4.3:2 Multimethod Concurrent and Sequential Explanatory Design

This study majorly entails multimethod sequential explanatory design. However, I used open and closed questionnaires to collect and analyse data from civic experts (4.6:1) for a detailed report of the civic education implementation impact on developing learners' effective citizenship.

Applying multimethod sequential-explanatory design involves first collecting and analysing questionnaire data after which focus group data were collected and analysed to answer the same research questions tested at the questionnaire stage data (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). In this sequence, the focus group data collected was to elaborate and expound on questionnaire findings obtained in the first phase. Thus, the focus group discussions stage complemented and underpinned the initial questionnaire stage.

The rationale for applying this design was because the questionnaire data I collected and the consequent analysis merely gave a common understanding of the research problem. That is, (as stated above), numeric data only served as a guide to citizenship realities, but

could not expound innate contextual citizenship problems. The focus group data and its analysis process could further clarify statistical results by examining participants' views extensively (Rossman & Wilson 1985; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998; Creswell 2003).

In line with sequential explanatory design, the research gave equal priority/weight to both the questionnaire and focus group discussions data collected and analysed. The implementation involved administering the questionnaire for data collection and analysis with the intent of answering the research questions through empirical analysis. This was followed by using the already prepared open ended questions to collect and analyse focus group discussion (FGDs) to elaborate on the empirical (questionnaire data) findings (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick 2006; Oremus et al, 2010).

My questionnaire and focus group results were merged when discussing the entire study so that my study could gain broader insights into the issues (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2008). Applying this design in my research revealed its strengths and limitations (Creswell, Goodchild, & Turner 1996; Green & Caracelli 1997; Creswell 2003, 2005; Moghaddam, Walker & Harre 2003). This seems easy for me to operate and mediate detailed analysis of the research questions. In addition, it enhanced my explanation of the underlying factors behind my quantitative results. Conversely, it takes much time in terms of data collection and analyses and is equally expensive in terms of logistics. Hence, I needed to consider the feasibility of resources required to collect and analyse both data types.

In this study, concurrent multimethod involved collecting and analysing open and closed questionnaires from social studies/citizenship education lecturers in Colleges of Education and Universities across Nigeria. I used concurrent multimethod design for lecturers due to their geographical spread across Nigeria and academic freedom. These factors make it difficult to engage them in individual interview or bring them together for focus group discussion.

4.3:3 Triangulations

I used methodological triangulation to boost the accuracy, validity and to have a broad insight into civic implementation issues; but its use was not without limitations in this research.

Triangulation involves using questionnaires and focus groups to gather and test data about the experiences of civic teachers and learners on diverse representations of citizenship

realities (Denzin, 1994; Miles & Huberman 1994; Green & Caracelli 1997; Green et al, 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998; Foss & Ellefsen, 2002). It implies finding the multiple perspectives of civic education developing effective citizenship through using questionnaires and focus groups (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). I reasoned that combining methods balanced the depth and breadth of my study because triangulation offered in depth explanation of the issues involved in this research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2001).

It is crucial to state that investigating civic education was a complex area with many connecting factors to consider. For example, the literature reviewed on citizenship issues in Nigeria revealed that the subject touches on various strata of nation building involving individuals and groups within the socio-political, economic and moral spheres. Thus, diverse factors involved make it difficult to use one research method to explain the issues in-depth.

International literature has proved the efficacy and robustness of triangulation. Therefore, applying both methods contributes to more informed recommendations as stated by Williamson (2005) who offered some reflections into the usefulness of triangulation: “Triangulation forced me to look at the data in the widest possible manner and subject analyses to critical scrutiny... instead of simply accepting findings from one methodological paradigm [which could result in eliciting less credible conclusions]” (p.17).

As shown above, using methodological triangulation allowed me to examine teachers’ and learners’ views from various angles ensuring consistent and credible data. For instance, do teachers’ school resources impact perceptions in the focus group data (FGD) correlate with questionnaire findings and also does learners’ FGD correlate with the questionnaire findings? Triangulation was applied as a self-checking function to increase the level of confidence in the results and to complement the strengths of each and thus reduce the inherent inadequacies in the combined methods (Foss & Ellefsen, 2002; Williamson, 2005).

Confirmation in triangulation research means finding the faults and strengths of each data collection method used for necessary correction thus minimizing the threat of low validity (Shih, 1998; Bowling, 2005; Aled & Bugge, 2006). This is evident in my questionnaire findings which could be alleged to be superficial while my focus group discussions results may be alleged to lack generalisability (Morgan, 1997). The weakness of my questionnaire and the strength of my focus groups have been counterbalanced thus

bridging the gaps in each method. Nonetheless, I avow that confirmation was not the main benefit of methodological triangulation in this research. Applying it does not imply that the methods will confirm one another. My anticipation was that since each method is complementary in this research they would help to solve the research problems (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000).

4.3:4 Limitations of Triangulations

I am not unmindful of the fact that methodological triangulation as used in this study has its alleged limitations. One of such involves different literature frequently relating quantitative and qualitative styles to diverse and even contrary epistemological (theoretical) stances. Yet, the use of both styles is informed by the constructivist stance adopted in this research.

Blending inconsistent and contradicting epistemologies may be viewed as another restraint in my application of triangulation in this research. This is viewing the research from a parochial perspective (Phillips, 1988). As unequivocally discussed above, the research is built on the constructivist epistemology which consistently asserts that the world consists of multiple realities and that knowledge is relative, transactional and subjective. To have a clearer view on these constructivist beliefs led to the application of methodological triangulation. Applying both methods is to have insight into the construction and conceptualization of citizenship realities by stakeholders to establish and prove the constructivist beliefs.

Some data sets appear to be more appropriate to examine a specific research problem. For instance, questionnaire administration is more appropriate to examine research problems involving a large number of participants in contrast to the focus group. In practice, a questionnaire will successfully embrace the totality of views of stakeholders while conversely a focus group would provide a more comprehensive data set than the questionnaire in terms of narrating and explaining how stakeholders construct citizenship realities in the classroom.

All data obtained in this research endeavoured to give stakeholders accounts of classroom experiences on issues relating to issues on developing effective citizenship. Thus, findings of particular data were to complement other data in triangulation. This will be more evident in the subsequent findings and discussion chapters.

4.4 Quantitative (Survey) Research

Table 2 on the Relationship between the Research Questions, Variables and Questionnaires

	SURVEY RESEARCH DESIGN			
Research Questions	RQ 1a	RQ 1b	RQ2	RQ3
Questionnaires	Civic Experts' Questionnaire	Civic Learners' Questionnaire	Civic Teachers' Questionnaire	Civic Teachers Questionnaire
Respondents	Civic Experts	Civic learners	Civic teachers	Civic teachers
Variables:				
a) Demographic Variables	Gender, Institution, Specialization, Designation, Years of Service	Gender, State, School location, Class, Age, Ethnic Background	State, School location, Teaching Experience, Gender, Qualifications, Specialisation:	State, School location, Teaching Experience, Gender, Qualifications, Specialisation:
a) Independent Variables		1) Learners' Perceived Impacts of Civic content	–	1) Teachers' Perceived Impacts of School Resources
		2) Learners' Perceived Impacts of Classroom Pedagogies	–	2) Teachers' Perceived Impacts of Classroom Pedagogies
b)) Dependent Variables	–	–	Learners' Perceived Effective Citizenship Development	Learners' Perceived Effective Citizenship Development
Analysis	Descriptive Statistic	Descriptive Statistic	Descriptive Statistic	Descriptive Statistic
	ANOVA	ANOVA	ANOVA	ANOVA

I utilized survey research which comprised a cross sectional design involving collection of data through questionnaires and a focus group to give detailed information about stakeholders' perceptions in this research (Rea and Parker, 2005, p. 5; Bryman, 2008). This choice of research design was to make the data collected reflect a broad representation of stakeholder populations consisting of civic experts, civic teachers and

civic learners. Also, I used it to collect a body of quantitative data in connection with three variables (dependent, independent and demographic) which were examined to discover any patterns of impact (Bryman, 2008). The sample of respondents selected was used to generalize for the larger populations of the stakeholders (Bryman, 2008). In relation to the research questions for this study, survey design was adopted to examine the perceptions of civic experts, teachers and learners on different components (demographic/independent variables) of the civic education curriculum such as objectives, content and resources and pedagogies which served as possible impacts on young learners' effective citizenship (dependent variable) (Leary, 2001).

The questionnaires were sent to the respondents using their electronic-mail boxes, by post and physically given to some of them.

In line with the sequential explanatory design, the survey questionnaire comes first in order of data collection. The intention of the quantitative data collection was to identify the potential impact, if any, between selected components of civic curriculum (objectives, content, resources and pedagogical practices) as independent variables and learners' effective citizenship as dependent variable. The instrument enabled me to explain stakeholders' perceived impacts of independent on dependent constructs (Saunders et al. 2007).

In order to achieve the objectives of this research, survey items were developed to obtain information on the perceived realities of selected variables (that is, whether school resources and pedagogical practices have any impact on civic classroom implementation to develop a change in learners' effective citizenship realities.

4.5 Variables in the Quantitative Analysis

I applied three sets of variables namely demographic, independent and dependent in this study data collection and analysis. The target of my research was to discover the impact of independent on dependent variables. This study is operating on the perceived belief of impacts of one variable on the other (independent on dependent) variables.

The Dependent Variable (DV) is the variable that depends on the independent variables (Black, 2003). It is the result or effect of manoeuvring independent variables (Leary, 2001). The dependent variable for this research is young learners perceived effective citizenship development and it is divided into three components, namely, knowledge,

dispositions (attitudes/values) and skills (participatory/intellectual). Similar study was conducted by Finkel & Ernst (2005) using school based civic instruction to assess learners' effective citizenship development. It is a categorical variable and will be used to form categories (grouping variable) in both empirical and textual analyses.

The Independent Variable (IV) is the factor that can be changed in experimental study. It is usually what influences or changes the dependent variable. In this research, there are two independent variables, namely perceived school resources and classroom pedagogical practices. The two variables have their different themes as stated below:

1) **Perceived School Resources (PSR)** is the first independent variable comprising the following themes: recruitment of teachers, training, and instructional materials.

2) **Perceived Classroom Pedagogical Practices (PPP)**. This is the second independent variable comprising of Active Participatory Methods (APM) such as open classroom discussions, group project presentation, simulation, dramatisation and role play.

Both the civic teachers and learners gave their perceptions on the impact of these two selected independent variables on effective citizenship development discussed in their different questionnaires below. Also, the independent variables are categorical variables and could be used to form categories (grouping variables) in both empirical and textual analyses.

Demographic variables

These are demographic information given by respondents which included age, class, school location, years of teaching experience, state, etc. They could also become independent and interest variables which may have a direct influence on the dependent variable in order to help reveal the impact on the dependent variable. For instance, gender, age, school location or even ethnic background could have impacts on young learners' effective citizenship development. Thus, the need for this research to examine every aspect of the study in order to reveal the overall impact, if any (Orlitzky, 2008).

4.6 Choosing the Population

The target population were selected on the basis of the research questions and participants used in the study. Based on this, the target population was grouped into three, namely:

- (1) All lecturers teaching social studies and citizenship education in colleges of

education and Nigerian universities were used to test the first research question.

(2) All Junior Secondary Learners (now called Upper Basic students) and/or Senior Secondary Students (SSS One) from two states in south-western Nigeria were used to test the second research question.

(3) All students in (2) above and Civic education teachers at the Junior Secondary and/or Senior Secondary class (SSS One) from two states in south-western Nigeria were used to test the third research question.

The target population, for 2 and 3 above, were restricted to the south western region because it is the region where I live which impacted on factors such as time constraints, financial and logistical problems in terms of my distance from these regions and because the other five regions are going through political or religious unrest which makes such areas too volatile for research of this nature (The Nation Newspaper, 7th November, 2011).

Lagos and Ogun states were selected through stratified random sampling, that is, the six states were classified on the bases of their heterogeneous (metropolitan and cosmopolitan status) and homogenous nature. Lagos and Oyo states are heterogeneous (metropolitan and cosmopolitan status) while the remaining four states Ogun, Osun, Ondo and Ekiti states are homogenous. Thus, one state was selected from each of the two groups of states. The three participants' groups called stakeholders were civic experts, learners and teachers.

4.6:1 Sample and sampling procedure

(a) Civic Experts

The research sample to examine RQ1 were the civic experts. The sampling frame for the lecturers was derived from a comprehensive list of all registered members of the Social Studies Association of Nigeria (SOSAN) based on the following inclusive criteria: (a) lecturer 1 and above, (b) 6years of teaching experience and above and (c) a minimum qualification of a PhD in a social sciences or related field. These criteria were used because of their exposure to research related issues and involvement in curriculum design. All lecturers who met these criteria were contacted for voluntary participation in this study. 40 eligible respondents from the list were contacted, of whom 29 (72.5%) agreed to participate by filling and returning the open ended and closed research questionnaires emailed, sent through post or self-administered (see **Appendix 1**).

The reasons for using these respondents was because: they train teachers on the secondary school curriculum; are involved in curriculum planning and development and are experts in curriculum research with regards to curriculum design and development. They act as consultants to policy makers in government, providers of instructional material such as textbooks among others and facilitators in workshops, seminars and symposia on curriculum related issues and problems. (Ivowi, 2004).

(b) Civic Teachers and Young Learners

A total sample of 868 respondents comprising of civic teachers and learners were selected from Lagos and Ogun states in the southwest of Nigeria. The respondents were selected through probability sampling involving stratified and proportionate random sampling techniques. The criteria used for sampling were gender, academic attainment and learners' class (junior and senior secondary) (Fink, 2003). Each criterion was classified into relevant groups and selection made from each group based on equal proportion. For example, gender was divided into male and female. Civic teachers and learners are used in this research because they are critical stakeholders (actors) in translating curriculum objectives into classroom implementation (Okebukola, 2004). This was broken down as follows:

(i) Civic Teacher

Civic Teachers consisted of a total of 298 respondents which was divided into 128 from Lagos state and 170 from Ogun state. They were selected through the above sampling techniques using the following criteria namely age of the teacher, years of experience, gender, teaching qualifications and location of school (urban/rural), and the education district. The choice of civic teachers was because, as the actual curriculum implementers, the process of curriculum implementation begins when the teacher is handed the curriculum. Thus, the civic teachers' pedagogic content knowledge and teaching experiences are part of the determinants of developing effective citizenship (Okebukola, 2004 p.2). (See **Appendix 2** for the break down).

(ii) Civic Young Learners

Civic Students consisted of a total of 570 respondents divided into 225 for Lagos state selected from five education districts and 345 from Ogun state selected from three education districts. All the students' samples were selected through the above sampling techniques using the following criteria: gender, academic attainment, class, location of

school (urban/rural) and the education district. The choice of civic students was because curriculum implementation ends with them when, as consumers, recipients and learners, they have been exposed to the learning experiences prescribed in the curriculum. To know whether the civic objectives have been achieved involved what young learners finally inculcated regarding civic knowledge, dispositions and skill development (Okebukola, 2004). To measure this depends on the young learners' outcome behaviours matching the anticipated outcome specified in the curriculum and that's what this research intends achieving.

4.7 Research Instruments

(a) Perceived Civic Experts Questionnaire (PCEQ)

The questionnaire consisted of open-ended and closed items divided into sections A-F. Section A asked for demographic (biographical) data from respondents including gender, institution, area of specialisation, designation, years of service and qualifications. Section B consisted of questions on defining effective citizenship (adopted from Finkel et al, 2005). Sections C, D and E provided information on whether the objectives of Nigerian Civic Education are appropriate to achieve each of the effective citizenship components, namely knowledge, dispositions and skills. The final part (Section F) provided information about whether these objectives are appropriate or need to be reviewed to develop effective citizenship. Also, I asked respondents to suggest the strengths and weaknesses of these objectives. In between the closed questions were open ended ones, requesting reasons for further explanation on the closed responses. For example, asking questions such as: specify the objective(s), if any, which you think is/are most appropriate to develop civic dispositions in the learners from the list of the objectives above (see **Appendix 1**).

(b) Perceived Civic Teacher's Questionnaire (PCTQ)

This is a closed questionnaire designed to survey civic teachers' perceptions on the impacts of school resources (SR) and classroom pedagogical practices (PP) on learners' effective citizenship. This questionnaire elicited information on the perceived impacts of these variables on civic education teaching resulting in effective citizenship. This questionnaire was divided into three sections.

Section A consists of demographic information such as state, location of school, educational district/zone, teaching experience, school, gender, qualifications and area of

specialization collected. Section B has four themes comprising of fourteen item statements with two-point scale options (yes/no) designed to measure themes constituting Perceived School Resources (variables). These themes are recruitment, training and instructional materials. All these items requested the views of the participants on the availability, adequacy and quality of civic teachers, training programmes, and instructional materials like handbooks and textbooks to help teach the subject. It requested to know the perceived impact of these constructs on young learners' effective citizenship development whether applied or not.

Section C has four themes comprising of eleven item statements with two point scale options (yes/no) designed to measure teachers' application of classroom pedagogies (variables) such as open classroom discussion, simulation, role play dramatisation and group project presentation. All these items were adapted from criteria used to measure democratic orientations in emerging democracies (Finkel et al, 2005). The civic teachers were requested to answer whether they applied these themes in their classroom. For instance, whether the teacher allowed learners to discuss i.e. express their views on civic issues, or a group project presentation by dividing the learners into groups to make presentations on civic problems. (See Appendix 2).

(c) Perceived Civic Learners' Questionnaire (PCLQ)

This was a closed questionnaire designed to survey civic learners' perceptions on the impact of exposure to civic (content) instructions using school resources and pedagogical practices to develop their effective citizenship. To explore these issues the questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section A has demographic information such as gender, state, location of school, education district, class, age, school and ethnic background. Section B has information defining effective citizenship as adopted from Finkel et al (2005), and civic education objectives for the junior and senior secondary schools in Nigeria as stated by NERDC (2007 and 2009). Section C has 11 items grouped into three components involving civic knowledge, dispositions and skills. It used five-point Likert scales in the order of strongly disagree (SD), disagree (D), neither (N), agree (A), strongly agree (SA). These items asked for participants' views on whether civic content, as presently implemented, has helped them to construct their own civic/political knowledge, dispositions and skills. Section D involved seven sub-constructs (similar to sections B and C of CTQ) with diverse scale options designed to measure the use of school resources

availability, adequacy, quality and pedagogical practices on their effective citizenship. (see **Appendix 3**)

There were themes designed to measure how students perceived teachers' applications of classroom pedagogies adapted from Finkel et al's (2005) study on democratic orientations in emerging democracies. The civic learners were requested to answer whether these themes were applied during their civic lessons.

4.8 Validity, Reliability and Pilot Study

Before the main research, both a reliability test and a pilot study were conducted. The reliability test measured the degree of consistency and stability of the instruments. Also, it assessed the predictability and dependability of the instruments in measuring what they were meant for. The reliability testing of two of the instruments were deemed relatively high with the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of each scale (variable) above or close to 0.7 (Heppner and Heppner, 2004). The third instrument had 0.556 Alpha Coefficient values which also showed the reliability of the instrument (Ogunbiyi, 2007). In view of the reliability of 0.556 some of the items were revised to improve the scales by modifying their wordings to give the appropriate meaning of the items. With the pilot sample the Alpha Coefficient values (greater than .50) for most of the scales revealed the internal consistency of items in the questionnaire. The reliability for each scale is presented in Table 4.

Table 3 Cronbach's alpha coefficient of Instruments

Instruments	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient
Civic Experts Questionnaire	.711
Civic Teachers Questionnaire	.556
Civic Students Questionnaire	.768

After the reliability test, there was a review panel comprising of experts in social studies and educational measurement and evaluation and the English language from tertiary institutions in Nigeria that examined all the items in the three questionnaires, in terms of their appropriateness, organization of the scales, and the application of concepts and issues to fit into the Nigerian educational context. All the three questionnaires administered for the pilot study (CEQ, CTQ and CSQ) were improved upon leading to an overall enhancement of data collection processes and resulting analyses. These included

changing some of the demographic information in the CTQ such as using educational districts instead of administrative divisions; age of teachers was not relevant and was thus removed; qualifications were stratified (1st degree, Post graduate and PhD); area of specialisation was expanded to include social science, arts, languages, sciences, among others.

After the reliability test and validity had been conducted, a group of lecturers, civic students and teachers across schools and tertiary institutions were used to conduct a pilot study and the data were used to confirm the reliability test earlier conducted. See the table below.

Table 4 Participants for the Pilot Study

Instruments	Respondents	Institutions/Schools
Civic Experts Questionnaire (CEQ)	20 lecturers	6 colleges/Universities
Civic Teachers Questionnaire (CTQ)	30 civic teachers	20 schools
Civic Students Questionnaire (CSQ)	104 civic students	20 schools

The rationale for conducting a pilot study was due to the fact that the instruments used newly designed scales for this research. Thus I needed to test run their reliability and validity before administering the questionnaires to a larger group of respondents. Also, the pilot study was essential to enhance and ratify the reliability and validity of the questionnaires' items in the Nigerian context.

The pilot study revealed, for example, the need to amend the content of the teachers' questionnaire by changing the initial scale of three options to two for uniformity during analysis. Also, the external factors item was split into two. The pilot study revealed the need to shorten the amount of information on section B of the student questionnaire in areas such as inculcation of political knowledge and developing civic dispositions and having a simple and shorter definition of civic education. On the whole, the pilot study revealed the need for separation of the closed items from the open questions. Consequently, the open questions were used to collect qualitative data through the focus group discussions.

4.9 Data Collection

As stated (4.3:1) above, the first part of data collection was questionnaire (open and close) administration. This involved formal requests to local education districts in charge of schools in both Lagos and Ogun States. I asked for approval to administer the questionnaires to the civic teachers and students in schools within their jurisdictions and approval was granted (**see approval letters Appendix 4a-f**).

Administration of the three sets of questionnaires for data collection was conducted by myself and 3 research assistants. They helped me to administer questionnaires in some schools while I was in other schools. They helped me in collating the questionnaires and together (in a conference like format) coded the data into SPSS version 15 (which I later changed into Brunel SPSS version 18 during data collection). Prior to the data collection process, a briefing was conducted for research assistants to prepare them for questionnaire administration. Also, I counselled them on the mode of conducting the survey and kept in close communications with them during the process of administration.

Schools were visited to present letters to principals who passed us over to the subject teacher(s) for further cooperation and interactions. This was an opportunity to meet with the civic education teachers and acquaint them with the objectives of the research. Through these exchanges with the administrators and subject teachers, I gathered some information and experiences on the teaching mode of civic education which further confirmed my earlier epistemological stance discussed in section 4.2:1.

The survey was conducted between May 15th and July 27th, 2012. As planned, the teachers selected the 15 civic students based on stratified and proportionate sampling using criteria such as academic attainment, that is, best five, middle five and the last five students. Also, selection covered other criteria such as gender and classes involving junior and senior classes. The civic teachers introduced us to the students and then explained the process to them and further gave a copy of the information sheet explaining the research objectives and a brief account of the questionnaire along with ethical considerations (**see Appendix 5**) - before the students completed the questionnaire. We encouraged them to ask questions about the survey especially concerning their rights in the research before and during the questionnaire administration.

Issues of anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent stipulated by the research and ethics committee of Brunel University London were strictly adhered to throughout the research. Selected students were assured that their participation in the research would not

cause any harm or risk to them. That information given would be treated as confidential and data given would be used in aggregate only. They were assured that their teachers and principal would not have access to the data and that it had no relationship with their academic attainment in civic education. They were informed of their right of withdrawal from the questionnaire administration at any time without consequence throughout the process of research.

The questionnaires were given to the selected students by their subject teacher(s) in schools, but under the supervision and monitoring of either myself or the research assistants. Each respondent took an average of 15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. As the respondents were completing the questionnaire the research assistants or I stayed to explain any issues. Based on the reports from the research assistants, the questionnaire administration did not suffer any major hitch. However, a few cases of students who were not willing to participate (in accordance with their rights) were stated. Students who participated were asked individually and collectively whether they understood the questions and their response was in the affirmative showing that they comprehended the questionnaire items. The copies of the completed questionnaire were immediately collected from the students.

This same process was followed during the administration of the questionnaire to the civic teachers. The questionnaire administration was conducted simultaneously to both the teachers and students except in schools where the students were not used as respondents but only the civic teacher(s) completed the questionnaire.

On the whole an average of 15 civic students to two teachers participated in the questionnaire in schools where both students and teachers participated. A total of 580 students and 76 teachers from 38 schools (this is for schools where the survey was administered on both students and teachers) from the two states participated. There were a few cases of non-item-response for teacher and students.

For the third questionnaire involving the civic experts, I explained the purpose of my research to the President of the Social Studies Association of Nigeria, the umbrella body for all social studies and citizenship education lecturers in both colleges of education and universities across Nigeria. The list of members in different institutions across Nigeria was used, out of which forty were selected through stratified random sampling using designation, gender, inter alia. Most of them were contacted by telephone regarding the

suggested mode of sending the questionnaire. However, only twenty-nine of the questionnaires were returned and not all the sections were completed by the respondents.

4.10 Quantitative Data Analysis

To answer the research questions for this study, I analysed data collected through the three sets of questionnaires administered on the various respondents to statistically show the impacts of independent variables on developing effective citizenship via civic instructions. Based on the literature reviewed in the earlier chapter (Chapter 3) on civic curriculum objectives, content, school resources and pedagogical practices which might affect the contents to develop effective citizenship (Finkel and Ernst, 2005; Falade, 2007). I then stated hypotheses for each research question.

RQ 1: To what extent are the civic education objectives, presently implemented, appropriate to develop effective citizenship in learners?

I hypothesized that the responses of the civic experts will signify that the objectives of civic education, as presently implemented, are not appropriate to achieve citizenship orientations in young learners. That is, the objectives of civic education, as presently implemented may not develop knowledge, dispositions and skill in young learners. To test this, the questionnaire scales and responses were scored from 3 – 1 for the items, coded and analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts, means and standard deviation. The frequency counts were used to determine the numbers of respondents who either agreed, not sure or disagreed with the statements. The frequency counts were later converted to percentages to permit meaningful descriptions of civic experts' general dispositions on the suitability of civic objectives in developing effective citizenship. The questionnaire's open end section administered for this research question was analysed using thematic analysis.

RQ 1b: To what extent do civic learners perceive their exposure to civic (content) instructions has developed effective citizenship (if any) in them?

I hypothesized that the responses of civic students will not signify any impact of the civic (content) instructions on the developing effective citizenship goals in young learners. That is, the civic (content taught) instructions have not developed effective citizenship in learners. To test this, the questionnaire scale was scored from 5 – 1 for positive items and negative items reversely scored from 1-5. Also, items were grouped under a component civic knowledge, dispositions and civic skills. Items under a component were summed up

and calculated as part of the dependent variable (effective citizenship). The descriptive statistics helped to determine the number of respondents that either strongly agreed, or agreed or were undecided, disagreed or strongly disagreed. The frequency counts of responses were later converted to percentages in order to permit meaningful descriptions of the general dispositions of the respondents on each theme.

RQ2 To what extent do civic teachers perceive any impact of school resources (SR) on civic instruction to develop effective citizenship (EC) in learners?

I hypothesized that the responses of civic teachers will not signify any impact of SR on civic instruction to develop EC. That is, TPSR will not have any impact on civic instructions. To test this, the questionnaire scales and responses were scored from 0–1 for the items, coded and analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts, means and standard deviation. The frequency counts were used to determine the numbers of respondents who either gave yes or no to the statements. The frequency counts were later converted to percentages to permit meaningful descriptions of the general dispositions of the civic teachers on the impacts of these three variables in developing effective citizenship.

RQ3 To what extent do civic teachers and learners perceive any impact of pedagogical practices (PP) on civic instruction to develop effective citizenship (EC) in learners?

I hypothesized that the responses of civic teachers and learners will not signify any impact of PP on civic instruction to develop EC. That is, TPPP will not have any impact on civic instructions. To test this, the questionnaire scales and responses were scored from 0–1 for the items, coded and analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts, means and standard deviation. The frequency counts were used to determine the numbers of respondents who either gave yes or no to the statements. The frequency counts were later converted to percentages to permit meaningful descriptions of the general dispositions of the civic teachers and students on the impacts of these three variables in developing effective citizenship.

4.11 Qualitative Data Collection Process

4.11:1 Focus Group Discussions

Focus groups allowed stakeholders to explain in-depth the effects of civic education on their citizenship development and explore why and how certain selected variables (factors), tested in the first stage, were significant or non-significant predictors of citizenship development in school-based civic education.

I organised the focus groups as a prudent discussion within a liberal setting to examine the perceptions of stakeholders (civic teachers and students) on identified variables/themes relating to whether citizenship development had been achieved through civic education in young learners. I involved groups of civic teachers and learners selected to share their various personal experiences in the implementation of civic education (Krueger, 1994; Powell and Single 1996).

I used focus group discussions as evidence of the epistemological obligation of this research to comprehend the perceptions of my respondents on the construction of multiple realities (Morgan, 1997). In other words, this enabled the practitioners in the field of education to reveal the multiple realities of issues involving their civic education teaching and learning process.

The rationale for using focus groups was to facilitate in depth clarification which the questionnaire could not provide on citizenship orientations through well formulated questions (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). It encouraged discussion among respondents on the predictors/causes of citizenship development in and out of civic lessons via group activities and motivation. Respondents were induced to refer to personal experiences in the classroom and to challenge each other's submissions in order to get more clarification (Krueger, 1994).

4.11:2 Sampling Strategies

Out of the 298 civic teachers and 580 students who completed the questionnaire in 2 states, 104 teachers tentatively agreed to participate by putting their phone numbers in the questionnaires for follow-up. Out of this number, 20 civic teachers were selected for each state through purposive stratified sampling. Selection by stratification was based on the demographic criteria provided in the questionnaires such as years of teaching experience and state of practice (employers), gender and education districts. Nevertheless, most of the group members (teachers) knew each other as colleagues, acquaintances and friends.

For the students, those selected were in the Senior Secondary School class. The Senior Secondary Schools (SSS) students were selected because, at the time of conducting the focus group discussion, those students who filled in the questionnaires (then in junior class) had transited into the senior class. The purposive stratified sampling used helped to identify respondents who shared some common traits and differences. This facilitated good rapport and interactions among them thereby producing robust and fruitful discussions and information (Calder, 1977; Carey, 1994) due to the open-ended questions on specially targeted or purposeful issues (Patton, 1990). In view of the purposive stratified sampling employed, the qualitative sample was not random; therefore, the findings may not be entirely representative of all the civic teachers and students in the two states. Nonetheless, since more than one focus group discussion was conducted, cross-discussion analysis could lead to theoretical rather than statistical generalisation. Furthermore, the initial collection of data through the questionnaire in this research could offset and compensate for the above limitation. In other words, this limitation can be tackled by embedding the findings in the wider sample provided by the questionnaire and by relating them to the research literature.

4.11:3 Participants

In the focus group discussions, I selected a sample size of 20 civic teachers each for Ogun and Lagos states. For the civic students, 20 were selected for Lagos and 15 for Ogun state (see table below). Although large, as Patton says, there are no rules governing sample size in qualitative inquiry as sample size should be determined by what you want to know, the objectives of the research, what is involved, benefits derivable and prudence in terms of available time and resources (Patton 1990; Mclafferty, 2004). Also Merton et al, recommended groups of 12–15, or even 15–20 respondents, that is, numbers of respondents may vary from 4 to 20. Focus groups should not be so large ‘as to be unwieldy or to preclude adequate participation by most members nor should it be so small that it fails to provide substantially greater coverage than that of an interview with one individual’ (Merton et al, 1990, p. 137; Powell et al, 1996).

Table 5 Breakdown of Participants for the Focus Groups in two States

States	Teachers			Students		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Lagos State	09	11	20	09	11	20
Ogun State	10	10	20	07	08	15
Total	19	21	40	16	19	35

Pragmatically, the large sample size was due to financial and logistical limitations. That is, the number of respondents for the FGD was relatively large because I could not afford to organise more than one session for the teachers and students in each state due to the cost of transportation of respondents from different locations, rental of a venue for the discussion (on an hourly basis) and provision of refreshments during the discussions for the four groups.

The large number availed me with diverse views from respondents across the groups which provided rich data and increased its validity and credibility (Krueger, 1994). In Nigeria, focus group discussion is seldom used as a method of collecting data, and those that use it involve large sample sizes (Oyetade, 2004; Falade, 2007).

The fact that few group members knew each other prior to the gathering meant good interactions among them thereby producing robust discussions. Also, those that were meeting for the first time appeared happy to participate after initial hesitation. After some time, respondents became so engrossed in the discussion that their expressions were becoming agitated, (not against themselves), which could be implied were based on their experiences of the difficulties militating against the teaching and learning of civic education. Just as some were reluctant to talk, others were ready to speak their minds in the hope that such a forum would pass on the problems to the regulatory bodies (government).

The civic teachers selected in the two groups reflected in their discussion their diversity in experience and exposure. Some of the respondents showed high levels of confidence, readiness and openness to discuss the questions. To this extent they were somewhat assertive in terms of their perspectives of issues as well as responsiveness during the discussion. Having realised this, as moderator, I made contributions to make other respondents realise that such contributions were mere personal opinions which were neither final nor authoritative. While some respondents were very active in the

discussions, some were lukewarm and thus needed some encouragement to contribute to the discussion.

In contrast, the students, with fewer participants were easier to control, less rowdy and more coordinated. Although one may be tempted to conclude that may be because they were students, there was another group of 20 students from Lagos whose session was almost like that of their teachers.

4.11:4 Procedures for Data Collection

For the focus groups, initial contacts with administrators at the local education districts proved difficult. They wanted to be sure the discussion was for research purposes before releasing the teachers and students. However, they gave consent when they were convinced that the focus group was not only for research but also included a workshop to develop civic teachers' pedagogic content knowledge and further improve the students' knowledge of civic issues. Thus, letters of approval (see Appendix 9) were issued. In view of this, contacts were made with school principals and civic teachers to facilitate the process of releasing them for focus group data collection.

The principals and parents were not willing to release students alone without the civic teacher as guardian; therefore, my only choice was to select learners from the same schools as the teachers selected.

4.11:5 Preparation and Issues for Discussion

The discussions took place at two different venues that were central to respondents in the two states. The first discussion was held at a conference hall with a conducive environment and adequate facilities to make respondents comfortable for the realisation of the group activities in order to promote good rapport and discussion among all those present (Ressel et al, 2002). The first two focus groups discussions were conducted for civic teachers and students in Lagos state in October, 2012. While the second focus group was arranged for civic teachers and students teaching in Ogun state three weeks later (November, 2012).

Before the commencement of the focus group discussions, I explained the ethical principles such as anonymity and confidentiality, and respondents were reminded of the need to give their consent as was the case during the questionnaire administration and were given a similar consent form to sign. The programme was divided into different

sessions involving the focus group discussions and workshop on the teaching of civic education. The first session in the programme started with the focus group discussions which the moderator formally introduced by explaining the objectives and procedures.

The format of discussions involved raising issues on the themes as stated in the open questions which were separated from the closed questions. The questions raised were both structured as stated in the open ended items and unstructured as issues emanated from the open questions especially in relation to the findings from the various sections of the questionnaires (see **Appendix 6**). Respondents were also encouraged to narrate their personal experiences on each issue where necessary.

The discussions started with the civic teachers and that of the students followed. The findings from the survey questionnaires were used in order to gather further and in depth explanation. Therefore, I explained to the respondents each theme and what they stood for in the research after which the findings on these themes were projected and respondents were allowed to comment on each finding as questions were raised requiring further clarification by explaining in-depth the possible rationale for each response. They were asked whether they agreed or not with the finding and why. Then how will this impact or not on the young learners' citizenship orientation (Eckert, 2012).

The themes/issues included recruitment of qualified teachers, training of teachers, availability and adequacy of instructional materials, the impact of active participatory methods, among others. These are the issues generated from the civic questionnaires which require further clarifications. After this, they were asked to explain what the findings reflected and why it was so (Eckert 2012); specifically, issues for discussion involved teachers' knowledge of the civic content through exposure to in-service training and application of participatory methods, among others. For instance, what is the impact of recruitment in the teaching of civic education? Do you see recruitment being a cause of or having an effect on the citizenship orientations of your students from your personal experience as professionals?

In the course of the discussion, the researcher as moderator tried to encourage respondents through some form of contributions on the issues raised. This enhanced the flow of discussion on the issues from the respondents' perspectives (Morgan, 1997). The research assistants taking notes (minutes) read out contributions on each question for the respondents to be sure that it was their views before moving to the next questions. This was to ensure that I was not conveying my own views but that of the respondents and

especially where arguments ensued, the recorders were played back for them to be sure of what they said.

Conversely, the large number of respondents was a cause for concern occasionally in the course of the discussion. There were some side comments which led to distractions in the discussions. Also, there was occasional disorderliness and non-compliance with rules governing the discussions. I exercised minimal control to allow for free expression and equally ensuring the coverage of relevant issues within the time allotted (Burns and Grove, 2001).

Also, some respondents monopolised the group discussions, however, questions were redirected on the issues for others to respond, thus ensuring continued interaction among all respondents (for instance, “I wanted more contributions from other respondents on this issue”). The discussions for each of the four groups were not more than 2 hours.

Various kinds of refreshments were served during the discussion in order to create a more cordial, friendly and social rapport.

After the group discussions, two invited resource persons spoke to the respondents on the content of and the use of active participatory methods in the teaching of civic education.

I audio taped and transcribed verbatim each of the four group discussions (Creswell 2005). I transcribed part of the group discussions from the voice and tape recorder in order to get acquainted with the data. But in order to save time the services of one of the research assistants during data collection was co-opted to complete transcribing of the other focus group discussions.

4.11:6 Focus Group Discussions Trustworthiness

In 4.8 above, I conducted a reliability and pilot (study) test to measure the degree of consistency, stability, predictability and dependability of the survey questionnaires. That is, appraising the quality of quantitative study requires testing the validity of the research regarding its internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity. A similar rigorous test was conducted to measure the trustworthiness of the focus group discussions.

Conversely, assessing the validity of qualitative studies is a recurring task due to the physical setting in which the study occurs. Qualitative study hardly focuses on broad generalisability of results, rather it convinces the readers that the findings are worthwhile by disclosing the trustworthiness of the study which involves ascertaining its credibility,

transferability, dependability and conformability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Lincoln, 1989; Wiersma, 1995; Healy, 2011). To a constructivist, trustworthiness involves boosting the acceptability of the study via the clarity of the inquiry processes and backing the findings with literature to convince the readers of the credibility of the findings (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Denzin, 1998).

Credibility, (which is internal validity in a quantitative/positivist study), depicts an accord between participants' constructs and the researcher attesting that the study analysis results and findings are trustworthy. This could be learnt after other scholars see the study methods and findings as valuable. (Flick, 2006; Buchanan, 2007; Moriarty, 2010; Healy, 2011).

The first credibility check this study used involves prolonged engagement via constant visit and referential adequacy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This entails regularly visiting schools to become familiarised with the research context/location, which, though, time-consuming was crucial to developing trust with the civic teachers and learners (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Prior to data collection between May and December, 2012, I spent time interacting with teachers and learners involved in this study within the school. I was able to develop such interactions with the teachers and learners because I was a secondary school teacher for many years before moving to the higher education level as a teacher educator. Also, I regularly visited schools to supervise my students during teaching (practicum) practice annually, and more so, many of these teachers were former undergraduates of my institution. Apparently, these prior links could have averted potential biases which most studies at times are unable to surmount (Jackson, 1968; Shoqirat, 2009; Likupe, 2011). Nonetheless, the interactions became more cordial when local education district administrators gave me letters to principals. The Principals, in turn, introduced me to the subject teacher(s) to discuss the modalities of the research. This informal meeting gave me the chance to acquaint participants with the objectives of the study. Also, I discussed ethical issues as it relates to the study, but devoid of providing comprehensive information on the study methods and civic implementation issues. This meeting was an opportunity to gather some information and experiences on the mode of teaching civic education. Meeting and interacting with civic teachers and learners prior to data collection within the school context enable me to fully appreciate the school's culture. It further develops the trust, cordiality, affinity, sincerity, honesty and truthfulness expected from participants' in their answers for more authentic construal of their views (Gillis & Jackson, 2002). Thus, I argue that meeting with participants in the

school boosted the credibility of the focus group data analysed (Burns & Grove, 2001, Polit et al, 2001; Shoqirat, 2009).

Also, I ascertain the focus group discussion credibility through referential adequacy which entails documenting the focus group discussion data electronically. That is, I employed audio tape-recording of the discussions to show the accuracy of the participants account of the civic curriculum implementation issues. Notes on participants' contributions on each question were read out to be sure that it was their views before moving to the next question. This was to ensure that the actual views of participants and not my own views were conveyed. This could enhance semantic validity since participants could ascertain if the expressions used matched their own meaning. This is a basic issue in this study because I am more familiar with the culture of schools in Lagos state in contrast to Ogun state. This is a way of ensuring that participants' responses were not misconstrued thereby reducing the risk of low data credibility. This became a measure by which the adequacy of subsequent data analyses could be verified (Eisner, 1975, Buchanan, 2007).

The audio-tape recording was examined *pari-pasu* that of the notes taken while analysing and interpreting the data on a particular issue. This gave me the chance to regularly check the data analyses and interpretations with the original source in order to minimise the chances of misinterpretations or misconceptions of data. Misinformation or misinterpretation was vital due to the pre-existing rapport between the participants and me (Bilmes, 1975). Also, in ensuring that my preconceptions were of lowest priority, I analysed and categorised data via constant comparison with participants' responses, extant literature and discussion with experts (Glaser, 1998; Healy, 2011). Participants were contacted to cross check (confirm) whether the responses transcribed were rightly reported as a form of validation (Krueger and Casey, 2000; Bryman, 2008). Overall, I tried to reflect participants' actual thoughts and retorts on civic implementation within the school context in Nigeria (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Shoqirat, 2009; Likupe, 2011). But, this method may be faulty since participants can be either cautious or submissive if they have developed affinity for the researcher (Bryman, 2008).

I moderated the focus group discussions and due to my training as a teacher educator and researcher, I was able to establish cordiality and good rapport with participants and make them more comfortable. I was cautiously attentive and noted participants' reaction to issues and did ask for explanation on ambiguous issues. As the moderator, I made

contributions to make other respondents realise that such contributions were mere personal opinions which were neither final nor authoritative. While some respondents were very active in the discussions, some were lukewarm and thus needed some encouragement to contribute to the discussion. In line with qualitative literature, I present a vivid explanation regarding my findings in this thesis. This entails providing a detailed report of issues and methods noted in the course of the study. Also, I recorded unanticipated issues which occurred during focus group discussions so that readers could assess the applicability of the findings to other school contexts. If contextual comparisons are delineated, then some degree of transferability would have been achieved.

Though I was unable to conduct a focus group pilot study due to logistic and financial issues, however, the panel of experts used (4.8) above to examine quantitative questionnaire items did the same for the focus group questions before being administered. The goal was to establish the trustworthiness (reliability and validity) of the focus group discussions regarding whether the issues raised could expound or elaborate further on the quantitative questionnaire items (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Likupe, 2011). Based on the experts' review, some items were revised to enhance the quality and accuracy of the data obtained from the participants. The focus group discussion questions were constructed with inbuilt provisos to confirm participants' views on civic curriculum implementation to develop effective citizenship. It's likely that schools' civic implementation may differ due to ecological and cultural factors thus it is vital that participants' retorts are honest. To this end, I asked another set of senior colleagues in social studies/citizenship education skilful in qualitative research to verify the focus group data collected and analysed. I briefed them on ethical issues such as confidentiality of the study data while required to check for the moderator's bias, if any, and analysis dependability (Mountain, 2004; Likupe, 2011).

Moreover, triangulation assisted in ensuring the credibility and dependability by virtue of the methodologies employed in the focus group discussions. This study's methods triangulation could mediate the confirmation of survey questionnaire and focus group data merged. In other words, making inferences from the collection and analysis of data on civic education implementation to develop effective citizenship requires integrating data generated from survey questionnaire and focus group discussions. Methods triangulation results in completeness as well as merging of data in the analysis process thus differentiating authentic data from false data.

Finally, having complied with the above measures then I argue that the trustworthiness of the focus group discussion has been utilised (Miles and Huberman, 1994, Polit et al, 2002).

4.11:7 Problems and Limitations of Focus Group Discussion

As with other methods of data collection, the focus groups conducted had their own particular problems.

The large size of respondents was partly due to the interest shown by some teachers to take part in the discussion, even when the principals were unwilling to release them. They kept on sending text messages on their willingness and readiness to come at their own expense in order to take part. Some that were not selected still got the information from their colleagues and joined the transport to come for the discussion.

These group discussions were confronted with the problem of group influence in which some respondents were consenting to a majority of opinions. This could have an adverse effect on the validity of data collected. However, I believe that since all respondents were given the opportunity to freely express their views through persuasion, then the issue of group influence would have been reduced. More so, that the data collected were to be analysed as the product of the various group discussion instead of a collection of individual interviews. Then, this becomes a strength because it involved accessing the collective negotiation of meaning as stated by Margaret Wetherell, Michael Billig etc.

Another limitation of these focus groups involved the inability to conduct a pilot study. If one had been conducted, it would have been aimed at testing the questions that respondents would have been asked. It would have discovered whether some of the questions were vague or leading questions. Unfortunately, the focus group questions were not pilot tested, because, it was not only time consuming, it was financially draining and labour demanding to organise. The open ended questions were pilot tested with the closed ended items and these (open ended items) were the questions applied for the focus group discussions.

Also the results from the first focus group discussion were used, (instead of arranging another), as pilot testing (Krueger and Casey, 2000). However, at the end of each focus group respondents were asked if the questions were clear and if any of the questions could be made clearer and the schedule was altered accordingly.

In accordance with the sequential explanatory design, qualitative data analysis was the second stage of the data analysis. In this qualitative stage, thematic analysis was used. This involved the use of filing and colour index method which enabled me to feel closer to the data as adopted by other researchers (Dean and Sharp, 2006).

4.12 Thematic Analysis

The term theme refers to an element which occurs frequently in a particular manuscript or transcript (van Manen, 1990). “Thematic analysis” involves the process of identifying the theme(s) which are personified and produced in the evolving meanings and descriptions of the research work (p.78). Therefore, thematic data analysis involved the process of making a meaning of content involving the experiences which civic education teachers and their students described. Making meaning out of these experiences entailed construing the meanings and themes in the transcripts to ascertain the perceptions of the causes of achieving (or not) citizenship orientations in the young by sharing their experiences in the teaching and learning of civic education

The process of analysing the data involved transcribing each audio-recording of the civic teachers’ and students’ discussions.

Also, the data were analysed through coding and re-coding using a priori categories and themes drawn from the research questions and literature reviewed (see Chapter 3) which were enhanced during analysis. In other words, codes and themes were sorted according to their relationship with quantitative findings (Eckert, 2012). Example of themes include instructional materials, training, recruitment, open classroom discussion and active pedagogical practices.

Then data emanating from these separate discussions were examined in relation to the identified themes which were developed to directly respond to the quantitative findings. These themes were also assessed for relationship to quantitative findings either by supporting or explaining or disproving (Eckert, 2012).

Theme isolation was conducted through selecting expressions which appeared revealing about the issues discussed. This involved being immersed in the data to understand its meaning and to maintain respondents’ opinion along with the issues under examination (Moustakas 1990).

The themes mentioned above were identified in relation to quantitative findings as follows:

- Categories were created for each transcript based on the categorical variables in the research questions (PEC, PSR and PCPP) used for quantitative findings (see 4.5 above).
- In each category, themes were identified. For example, under ECD themes such as civic knowledge, dispositions and skills were identified; under SR themes such as recruitment, training and instructional materials were identified.
- On the whole, categories were identified, generated and linked accordingly to the various issues discussed.
- Then the numbers of themes are being reduced, (where necessary), by integrating (collapsing) themes with similar contents under those categories. (Brunard, 1991).
- Then the final form of categories identified and each of them examined within the context of each question reported in the group discussion schedule and the research questions as a whole.

Since the teachers were asked to respond directly to findings, then the results to be presented will be organized such that the findings from quantitative analysis are stated and then explained using the qualitative focus group data. This makes way for proper integration of both the questionnaire and focus group discussions findings. Unrelated data will be included in the analysis by creating another theme and if necessary category for such and will be incorporated into the scope of this project (Dismore, 2007; Eckert, 2012).

4.13 The Roles of Research Assistants within the Study Context

In this study, I refer to research assistants, hence the need to offer some information regarding their roles within the research, their contributions in the research process, criteria for selection, their research experience and the training and support received prior to data collection.

Apart from the reasons adduced (4.1 and 4.3) above for using quantitative research to collect data in this study it could accommodate a large representative sample to offer broader information and inference via statistical data analysis. Thus, I administered survey questionnaires in fifty (50) basic and senior secondary schools in eleven

educations districts of Lagos and Ogun states. Doing this alone would involve touring many kilometres on the road which could be hectic and lead to burnout. Moreover, the schools were about to go for the long summer break and my fieldwork had a stipulated timeline. Therefore, it became imperative to co-opt three people as research assistants in my questionnaire administration.

In selecting these people, I took into consideration criteria such as research experience, prior training in the field of lecturing and research and the role expected of them in the study.

Upon collecting permission letters from the local education districts, I visited schools to informally interact with the principals and prospective teachers and learners so that I ensured regular communication. The teachers were aware that either myself or research assistants would conduct the questionnaire administration. The research assistants were my colleagues with considerable lecturing and research experience and thus were qualified to administer questionnaires in schools I could not get to. The colleagues are listed below:

AA¹ a lecturer, specialises in developmental economics with lecturing and research experience of about 15 years and is now doctoral candidate in a Nigerian university.

BB² a lecturer, specialises in Social studies educational research and methodology. With extensive experience of over 10 years in teaching and research on citizenship methods and now a doctoral candidate in a Nigerian university.

CC³ a lecturer, specialises in Nigerian politics and government, with teaching and research experience of 5 years and presently a doctoral candidate in a Nigerian university.

By virtue of their professional background, the three research assistants have received adequate training in quantitative research procedures. However, prior to engaging them in administering the questionnaire (data collection process), I conducted a roundtable session for them. In this training, I acquainted them with the background information and objectives of my study, ethical principles governing a Ph.D. project at Brunel University London and statutory laws which govern research in the United Kingdom (Data Protection Act 1998 (as amended)). Also, I explained the confidentiality and anonymity rules regarding civic teachers, young learners and other vulnerable participants, if any.

Also, exceptions to the rules of anonymity and confidentiality were expounded and the aftermath of the data when the project is complete. I showed them the Brunel Ethics forms which I had completed and the approval given and the need to work within the laid down research ethics such as giving participants the chance to read the information and consent sheet prior to answering the questionnaire. In addition, I counselled them on the mode of conducting the survey and kept in close communications with them and the teachers during and after the process of administration.

While in the field, the research assistants' practicalised the training session by providing background and objectives of the study to prospective participants (civic teachers and their learners). They ensured that the participant received full, clear information about the research project in language they understood as a prerequisite to giving their informed consent freely and that they could withdraw at any time. They helped me to hand over the questionnaires to the subject teacher(s) who in turn distributed them to the selected students in the schools, however, they supervised and monitored the exercise which took an average of 15 minutes. Also, the research assistants stayed to explain any issues arising after the participants completed the questionnaire. They submitted their reports which indicated that the questionnaire administration did not suffer any major hitch except a few cases of learners who were not willing to participate (in accordance with their rights). Also, there were a few cases of non-item-response for teacher and learners.

Learners who participated were asked individually and collectively whether they understood the questions and their response was in the affirmative showing that they comprehended the questionnaire items. The copies of the completed questionnaire were immediately collected from the students. This same process was followed while administering the questionnaire to the civic teachers. The questionnaire administration was conducted concurrently to the teachers and learners except in schools where only civic teacher(s) were used. Also, the research assistants and myself did the collation of the questionnaires together after data collection through a conference like format coding the data into SPSS version 15 (which I later changed into Brunel SPSS version 18 for data analysis).

4.14 Ethical issues and considerations

In this research, it was necessary to examine basic ethical issues involving a protocol detailing the objectives of the research, methods of investigation and diffusion of the results. This was sent to the Research Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and

Education, Brunel University, for consideration and necessary approval as a justified investigation. The data collection was conducted in Nigeria thus the research obtained the second approval letter from the local education districts in Nigeria. These approval letters were given to the principals of selected secondary schools where data was collected.

All stakeholders (civic experts, teachers and students) that participated in the questionnaire administration and/or focus group discussion were assured that their identities would be kept confidential and anonymous. Therefore, their participation did not attract or invoke any individual or collective risk.

The information sheet about the study was given to the respondents along with the informed consent form to read before taking part in the research. I also informed them that participation in the research was absolutely voluntary and they were free to withdraw their participation at any point in the research. Consenting respondents signed the consent form given to each of them.

Students were given the assurance that participation or not had no relationship with their academic performance. They were informed of their rights to accept or reject the audio recording of the focus group discussions. None of the respondents requested to listen to the recordings while their confidentiality was assured through substituting their real identities, (names) with codes. The respondents were told that the research was conducted for the fulfilment of my PhD programme thus data generated was used for academic purposes involving presentations at conferences and publication of articles in journals.

All the respondents were informed that the quantitative data collected would be analysed using specific statistical tools while the qualitative data generated would be anonymously analysed using themes and categories, therefore the identity of respondents would not be revealed. Respondents were counselled not to write their names on the questionnaire to preserve anonymity. I was the only one who had access to the completed questionnaire, transcribed data and the digital recorder.

I am aware that some respondents may see the focus group discussion as an avenue to express or reveal their grievances of some of the negative ordeals they have gone through in relation to their teaching (Kvale, 1996). In actual fact, some respondents raised such issues during the focus group discussions so that I should let the government know the problems they were facing in the course of teaching the subject. Raising such grievances was consistent with the view of Patton (1990) who emphasises that the purpose of such

discussion forum is primarily to collect data and not to entertain grievances nor to mediate.

4.15 Conclusion

In this chapter I describe the methodological issues involving various segments which could impact on the outcome of this research. This included the epistemological stance (constructionism to develop multiple realities). Applying a constructivist stance reasserted my conviction on knowledge relativity, transactional and subjectivity which makes it imperative to explore the world to ascertain these realities. In view of this methodological reflection, I tried to collect data through methods determined by the research questions, the literature reviewed and constructivist stance. To achieve this, I used a mixed-method approach involving questionnaire and focus group surveys conducted using sequential explanatory design. This was to enable an in depth comprehension of the group of evidence which connects school resources and classroom pedagogical practices and effective citizenship in order to collect rich data from a large representation and concurrently offer in depth explanation on issues involved from the samples comprising of civic teachers and their learners. Lastly, I examined ethical issues on the respondents' rights to partake or not in the research. The next chapters will examine extensively the two stages of analysis involving findings and results from the questionnaire and focus group discussions conducted. I discuss the findings by linking them to the various themes within the research questions and related literature reviewed on civic education and effective citizenship. Specifically, the next chapter discusses the results obtained from the instruments on the appropriateness of civic objectives and the extent to which civic content have imbibed effective citizenship.

Chapter Five

Perceived Civic Programme Objectives Knowledge Emphasis

5.0 Introduction

Chapter 4 described the research methodology procedures used to collect and analyse the study data. This chapter (5) offers a discussion of study data involving the research question; whether civic experts perceive civic curriculum objectives as appropriate to construct civic knowledge, develop dispositions and skills in Nigeria's young learners. Discussing this issue requires exploring literature in relation to data on government intent, in the context of an issue/activity based civic programme, its objectives, content and pedagogy tools. This will ascertain whether civic curriculum components above can develop knowledge, dispositions and skills to engage in political/governmental and nongovernmental citizenship. Ascertaining the development of these issues entails splitting the chapter into sections:

Section 5.1. discusses how the data results relate to the civic programme objectives' emphasis on political and nongovernmental citizenship knowledge which sequentially lead to developing dispositions and skills. The discussion, in relation to literature, show that such knowledge offers adequate insights on both citizenship realms, but entails a didactic pedagogy inducing learning by recall which echoes inbuilt political issues in the objectives. The data also indicates a symbiotic link among civic components implying that civic knowledge construction can lead to dispositions and skills development. For such symbiosis to mediate active participation in political and nongovernmental citizenship requires classroom interactive pedagogies entrenched in the learning theories discussed in chapter 2 (2.5). But extrinsic factors can obstruct links amid the components. Also, civic experts' data showed narrow views of effective citizenship as involving just political action thus barring nongovernmental citizenship participation.

Section 5.2 explores the data findings in relation to civic programme objectives as valuable. However, in relation to literature, most past curriculum programmes having good intention usually lack basic resources for implementation in schools.

Section 5.3 present the data reflecting civic content positive impact on political knowledge transmission. However, such knowledge can lead to passivity and naivety as hallmark of effective citizenship. It also reveals civic content has positive impacts on developing knowledge, dispositions and participatory skills on nongovernmental

citizenship. Also, the data reveals relative community citizenship advocacy groups' involvement in schools' extracurricular programmes but does not show any evidence of engaging knowledge through these extracurricular programmes to develop dispositions and participatory skills for critical and practical citizenship.

5.4. The data shows control variables such as states and students' level reflect more impact in the significant test while gender and school locations reveal no such significance.

5.1. Civic objectives over emphasising civic knowledge construction

5.1:1 Civic Objectives' undue emphasis on knowledge (cognitive domain) components

Survey data (6a) above disclosed that civic objectives overemphasised knowledge transmission making the objectives more knowledge-based. In this study, knowledge is perceived as the construction and recall of concepts via classroom instructional process. During teaching and learning young learners construct concepts and gather facts on diverse citizenship norms about Nigeria from socialising agents like the school (Mansaray & Ogunyemi, 1994; Patrick, 2002; Dudley & Gitelson, 2003; Falade, 2007; Ifegbesan, 2008; Ahmad, 2011).

Underlining the data above, civic experts said: "...*the objectives of civic education...relevance to improve...knowledge of learners*" (Part. 9). "*The knowledge...acquired would equip... young...citizens...*" (Part. 11). "*Civic attitudes begins with civic knowledge...*" (Part. 4). The civic experts perceived civic objectives from its traditional school-based view of mediating knowledge transmission practiced in the school system. The civic experts' stance is justified since raising intellectual and participatory engagement of civic learners should start with constructing knowledge in order to enhance their social and personal inquiry skills to solve societal problems and issues (NERDC, 2007pv; Tor, 2009). Also, it is vital that classroom civic curriculum implementation starts from the position of constructing knowledge of citizenship issues since such knowledge determines their grasping of/or engagement either as current citizens or citizens in waiting ready to impact on the practice of citizenship (Supple 1998; Osler & Starkey 2009, Larkin 2009; Ollas, 2013).

Table 6 a-c shows civic experts' perceived appropriate/most appropriate civic objectives to develop civic knowledge, dispositions and participatory skills

	Civic Objective Items	6a Civic Knowledge				6b Civic Dispositions				6c Civic Skills			
		Appropriate		Most App.		Appropriate		Most App.		Appropriate		Most App.	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A	Attain the Millennium Development goals & the need to implement the critical element of National Economic Empowerment & Development Strategies.	8	27.6	4	13.8	7	24.1	2	6.9	7	24.1	2	6.9
B	Enhance the teaching & learning of emerging issues.	15	51.7	5	17.2	12	41.4	4	13.8	12	41.4	4	13.8
C	Inculcate in students their duties & obligations to society.	17	58.6	9	31.0	18	62.1	7	24.1	18	62.1	7	24.1
D	Highlight the structure of government, its functions & the duties of government to the people & vice-versa;	19	65.5	8	27.6	12	41.4	7	24.1	12	41.4	7	24.1
E	Promote the understanding of the inter-relationship between man/woman, the government & society;	19	65.5	6	20.7	15	51.7	6	20.7	15	51.7	6	20.7
F	Inculcate in the child the spirit of self-discipline, hard work, cooperation and respect for authority.	22	75.9	7	24.1	29	100	17	58.6	29	100	17	58.6
G	Create adequate & functional political literates among Nigerians.	23	79.3	10	34.5	18	62.1	7	24.1	18	62.1	7	24.1
H	Create awareness on the provisions of Nigerian constitution and the need for democracy.	25	86.2	12	41.4	17	58.6	5	17.2	17	58.6	5	17.2
I	Sensitize Nigerians on the functions and obligations of government.	27	93.1	13	44.8	17	58.6	9	31	17	58.6	9	31
J	Acquire and learn to use the skill, attitudes, knowledge and values that will prepare young learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives.	29	100	19	65.5	29	100	16	55.2	29	100	16	55.2

Bold & Italicised= Appropriate Bold & Underlined = Most Appropriate

Achieving policy and programme objectives required an emphasis on knowledge constructions as a basis to develop other components. Extensive civic literacy is basic to developing dispositions and skills. Therefore, outlooks towards citizenship issues could be defined by the constructed knowledge thereby making knowledge vital to developing dispositions and skills (Mansaray, 1999; Ajiboye, 2002; Oyetade, 2003).

The ability of interactive learning theories to engage learners in classroom civic learning is well-discussed in 2.5. However, effective implementation of a knowledge-based civic curriculum is problematic since these participatory pedagogies (social constructivist, transformative among other theories) are implemented for learners to experience classroom freedom as a hallmark of what to expect after they leave the education system (Rudduck 2003; Osler & Starkey 2006; Covell et al., 2008). Nonetheless, I argue that this issue also crucially affects the teachers who live in the world that learners will inhabit after leaving the education system and thus are expected by that world to reinforce/reproduce its values in their classrooms.

Undue focus on knowledge leads to didactic learning which promotes recalling memorised concepts to pass examination as practiced in schools (Gbamanja, 2004). Although Nigeria's national policy underlines the importance of examination, such focus involves assessing entire civic learning domains and not underscoring knowledge construction at the cost of other components (NPE, 2004; Okam, 2008).

5.1:2 Civic Objectives emphasising political (political) citizenship knowledge

As mentioned above, civic objectives echoed (overemphasised) political citizenship knowledge as rightly observed by *an expert*: “*most of the objectives lay...emphasis on...political knowledge...*” (Resp. 3). This overemphasis led another civic expert to propose that: “*the objectives...should be reviewed to remove duplication and watering down of the seriousness of the issues that must be addressed thematically and within the domain profiles*” (Part. 7). Understandably, most civic experts perceived that emphasising political knowledge was pertinent due to the low level of national consciousness: “*A functional citizenship is based on thorough grounding of the knowledge of what is needed to be done in time and space. ...so...positive values developed through...knowledge and awareness...*” (Part. 20). I think these issues involve effective political participation which requires adequate literacy (knowledge) about Nigeria's political system.

Political literacy becomes more imperative considering our experience of long years of military dictatorship which has changed our attitude negatively to democratic culture. Underpinning this, a civic expert said: “...since many Nigerians are political illiterates with sensitization and political enlightenment we may move beyond some of these...” (Part. 18) and the reason for such illiteracy was stated by another civic expert saying: “Nigerians need to know the functions and obligations of government especially having been under military rule for long” (Part. 4). These responses further justified the civic experts’ position on civic objectives focusing more on political (knowledge) literacy. For over twenty-seven years, Nigerians were under dictatorial rules and thus became socio-political illiterates lacking the ability to critically participate in the affairs and governance of our nation (Huckle, 1997; Aluko, 1998; Falade, 2007; Ogunyemi, 2011). Though developing effective citizenship could require renewing learners’ knowledge on political participation via the school civic programme, however, as stated in chapter 2, formal schooling alone cannot develop effective citizenship unless the large society (other socialising agents) leads by example by ensuring good governance, eradicate corruption, ethnic and religious conflicts, advanced fee fraud (419) which Nigeria is notorious and other vices which are beyond the scope of the school (Adamolekun & Kincaid, 1991; Marizu, 1998; Akinyele, 2001; Ukiwo, 2003; Badmus, 2006; Ukiwo, 2007; Okeahialam, 2013).

However, having adequate political knowledge lead to gradual internalisation resulting in developing dispositions to engaging in the current democratic dispensation. A civic expert stated: “...Some of the objectives tend towards cognitive development and if the subject will make much impact affective learning should be promoted” (Part. 18). Evidently, evolving cognitive insight by offering more information on national political issues could induce dispositions mentioned by the experts. But overemphasis could make learners become passive recipients reflecting the classical era (Po, 2004; Bellamy, 2013).

Though exigency for knowledge of Nigeria’s political system was evident, without the requisite internalisation to develop dispositions and participatory skills, effective citizenship could be unattainable as a civic expert noted “Democratic culture demands tripartite elements of knowledge, attitudes and values as well as skills. It is when citizens have adequate knowledge, complementary attitudes and values as well as participation skills...that the society...can be classified as getting nearer to Almond and Verba’s ideal democracy of civic culture” (Part. 12). An expert said: “they...focused on building the learners to become more politically literate...” (Part. 15). Yet another stated: “A

large...percentage of the objectives are...related to...political... knowledge” (Part. 12). Evidently, civic experts perceived civic programme objectives, in achieving political citizenship, needed to focus more on political literacy regarding national issues and events, whereas participating in political citizenship required equal focus on the three citizenship components (Schugurensky & Myers, 2003).

Overall, although the imperatives of knowledge-based civic education are patent, yet undue focus on political literacy could undermine the development of dispositions and skills essential for cognitive and intellectual engagement and the expression of views. Supporting my stance, UNESCO proposed a curriculum shift from instilling patriotism, obedience and loyalty (which takes Nigeria back to the classical statist citizenship lacking the ability to discuss and absence of freedom for creativity but promotes service) to the state to a rather more reflective citizenship which develops the ability to make rational decisions for the public good (UNESCO, 2006; Ogunyemi, 2011) as well as developing critical skills to question loyalty to the state. This is the crux of nongovernmental citizenship discussed in chapter 2.

5.1:3(a) Emphasis on dispositions and participatory skills

Civic programme objectives could develop dispositions and participatory skills in young learners to engage in nongovernmental citizenship (see Table 6b&c). A civic expert stated: *“The ...objective is meant to enable learners acquire & demonstrate skills, attitudes & values which help them to be responsible citizens”* (Part. 7). Another said: *“The...objectives are what the young learners need in achieving...civic and political skills, attitudes, values and knowledge ... essential for...sustenance of democracy”* (Part. 6). *“Adequate knowledge... (awareness) will be created to develop...rights and functional attitudes for...development of good citizenship”* (Part. 26). Civic experts see effective (responsible and good), citizenship participation solely from political perspectives. Contrary to civic experts’ views, Verba, Scholzman & Brady (1997) see political engagement as activities intended to impact on government policy and civic participation involving collaborating with others to engage in nongovernment activities intended for community good. Civic experts have a different notion of civic engagement, however, citizenship participation requires learners’ active practice of the three citizenship components (knowledge, dispositions and skills) discussed below.

5.1:3(b) Symbiotic Links among Citizenship Components

As stated above, the data disclosed that effective citizenship entails holistic integration (discussed in chapter 2) of the three citizenship components which revealed links among the areas discussed. Gradually internalising constructed knowledge could lead to fostering dispositions and participatory skills in learners. Participating in a citizenship programme requires constructed knowledge that should be internalised to express predispositions: and this sequentially enhances participatory skills. Such internalisation is a lifelong gradual process in learners' personality via civic learning experiences especially in school. (Heater, 1999; Tor, 2009). Underpinning the above statement, a civic expert said: *“Popular participation of the governed in their government and perception of the symbiotic relationship between objectives...are critical elements of democratic society”* (Part. 18). *“...politically literate citizenry, civic education should equip learners-skill, attitudes, knowledge & values that will prepare young learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives”* (Part. 26). *“...young learners need... civic and political skills, attitudes, values and knowledge such as...hard work, cooperation and respect...”* (Part. 6). *“The knowledge...and skills...acquired would equip...young Nigerian citizens to deal with social and personal issues... grow as competent and vibrant Nigerians”* (Part. 11). Convincingly civic experts perceived that such symbiotic links among the three citizenship components could lead to citizenship (socio-political) participation. This showed a realisation that civic curriculum could be a veritable tool for such symbiotic links to enable young learners to engage in social and personal activities for community good and not just for political participation. However, for this study, I view symbiotic links as integrating knowledge, dispositions and skills holistically to develop political and nongovernmental engagements in learners as explained by Verba, Scholzman & Brady, (1997) above. Therefore, symbiotic links entail holistically integrating the three domains on political and nongovernmental citizenship for learners to practice via experiential learning (discussed below) in our schools.

However, such symbiotic links could be impractical because not all constructed knowledge is internalised and practiced just as the gradual development of dispositions might not necessarily be due to practice because of the hostile setting for experiential learning in some of our schools. Theoretically, though the three citizenship components may have symbiotic links showing these components requires the interplay of other factors within the school and larger society discussed above and in subsequent chapters.

5.1:3(c) Participating in nongovernmental citizenship

Experts' data (5.1:3b) shows civic objectives can develop in knowledge, dispositions and participatory skills via symbiotic links to engage in nongovernmental citizenship. Also, issues on nongovernmental citizenship are marginally built into the civic objectives to show Nigeria subscribing to global realities by using an issue and activity based civic curriculum to engage learners in citizenship participation (NERDC, 2007; Ogunyemi, 2011).

The nongovernmental citizenship in the civic objectives (see Table 5.1:1) examines issues from diverse sectors of nongovernmental activism evolving from local to cross-national boundaries. This citizenship type provides literacy and develops values (advocated by transnational bodies) on human rights education, peace and conflict resolution, social justice, ecological issues, HIV/AIDs education, gender equality, eradicating human and drug trafficking, poverty, Millennium Development Goals (MDG), and Nigeria's National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), among others (Johnson et al, 2009; Ogunyemi, 2011). These issues were to develop global interdependence on diverse sectors of human life which resonated in various international conferences on effective citizenship (Hicks, 2003; Ogunyemi, 2011).

The broadness of the two objectives shows the multi and inter disciplinary nature of citizenship development. A civic expert said: *"Objective 'B' on MDG needs to be made more specific with the aspect that is really concerned with effective citizenship"* (Part. 2). This revealed civic experts' perceived narrow view of civic curriculum developing effective citizenship from the political view. This could have induced their negative attitudes to the objectives on nongovernmental citizenship below.

The civic experts' data (Table 6) sees the two objectives as irrelevant to developing effective citizenship. Underpinning the survey data, a participant said: *"The A & B objectives...MDG goals realization and...emerging issues might be difficult to achieve because... civic education curriculum...does not cover...these areas..."* (Resp. 4). Another said: *"Objective B has no relevance in the civic education curriculum. Achieving citizenship (value) reorientation through civic education is almost impossible"* (Resp. 3). Civic experts viewed this subject from the usual politically based curriculum. As evident in the objectives, the curriculum was to foster diverse citizenship engagement like political, ecological and social justice as a hallmark of effective engagement in civic and political affairs. (Green, 1990; Johnson & Morris, 2009; Schugurensky & Myers, 2003;

Ogunyemi, 2011). Engaging in the above activities through the civic curriculum requires more than the narrow classroom teaching and learning perspective of most experts. But, a contrary view grasps the need to engage larger community: *“I believe civic values and attitudes are better promoted through activities and programmes...drawn from happenings in the society to promote positive behavioural change”* (Part. 10). From this, developing nongovernmental citizenship needs communities of learning via experiential learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Votz & Nixon, 1999; Ogunyemi, 2011).

However, achieving both political and nongovernmental citizenship using an activity and issue-based civic curriculum to develop young learners could contend with implementation challenges within the school system discussed below.

5.2 Contending Implementation Issues within the school system

This section is to acquaint readers with possible issues which may impact on classroom implementation of civic objectives discussed in the next section (5.3) and also, to act as a prelude to full discussions of implementation gap in the next two chapters.

In my days as a teacher trainee reading through past studies on policy initiatives in Nigeria, showed that implementation has been the bane of policy and programme actualisation. Also, as a teacher educator, extant studies still show implementation as the main challenge of actualising classroom curriculum programmes. Such implementation issues start from improper planning due to inadequate data on the human and material resources required for school and classroom teaching and learning. Regarding this a civic expert said:

The major weakness of implementation will be...availability of both human and material resources to execute these objectives... Availability of qualified, competent and dedicated...motivated teachers. Availability of appropriate text books and instructional materials and conducive (child-friendly) school environment (Part. 2).

This typical response revealed implementation challenges perceived by both civic experts and teachers indicating a lacuna between policy-programme and implementation leading to lack of functionality regarding curriculum execution as observed by a civic expert: *“The problem is... a lacuna (gap) between application and what is stated. This has to do with implementation. Our education must emphasize functionality”* (Part. 12). Lack of a functional curriculum could be due to schools experiencing deficiency regarding resources such as teachers’ recruitment, training and teaching materials, knowledge of relevant classroom interactive teaching practice and certainly not the advent of a new

subject as shown in chapters 2 and 3 (Ogunyemi, 2010; 2011). Thus, disarticulating civic education from social studies could not be the reason for the above challenges within the school system. Rather, I argue that these challenges have been compounded each year by issues such as large enrolment without the required school resources (teacher recruitment, training and re-training, adequate time) discussed in chapter 6 (Ivowi, 1998, 2004; Okebukola, 2004; Ogunyemi, 2006).

Hence, initiating a civic curriculum should not be seen as further expanding an extant educational problem instead it should be viewed as a victim of improper government planning and poor implementation (discussed in 3.2:3c) which have mired school and classroom curriculum actualisation as noted by a civic expert:

The major barrier to the acquisition of civic traits and values in the learners is the problem of implementation with regards to...poor teaching methods, lack of teacher education programme- in service-training, lack of uniformity in the implementation among schools in some states and non-implementation of the civic education programme in some parts of the country (Part. 4).

Due to the above responses of civic experts and teachers on contending implementation issues most Nigerian basic and senior school teachers were perceived as inexperienced due to the overwhelming presence of untrained and ill-prepared civic teachers as curriculum implementers (Kosemani, 1984; Mkpa, 2005). In support of the statement above, a civic expert said: “...teachers and schools lack knowledge, skills and materials to ensure their attainment” (Part. 11). Also, some teachers said: “...its ordinary teaching, teachers must go beyond ordinary teaching to develop skills to impact these things into the kids. For example, we only teach, when we come to the cognitive domain” (Part. 3 Lag). In another form, a teacher noted: “Majorly... teaching civic education...it’s based on my general knowledge of...happening around me...” (Lag. Resp. 9). These responses showed a general trend of teachers having the requisite knowledge and skills which further exposed implementation issues impeding actualisation of the curriculum which requires substantial classroom resources. As stated above, these responses were typical of most civic teachers showing a lack of these school resources (discussed in chapter 6) inducing classroom teaching focusing on a cognitive objective. Such cognitive focus fosters teacher-centred methods which help concepts memorisation in the civic classroom instead of focusing on using learner-centred interactive pedagogy rooted in the social constructivist, reflective inquiry and transformative learning theories which are briefly examined in the next section.

5.3 Civic content classroom implementation impact on knowledge transmission

Data shows an overemphasis on political citizenship knowledge construction above developing dispositions and skills. This shows civic content focuses on constructing knowledge more than developing dispositions and skills which mediate actual engagement in citizenship. However, inculcating political knowledge of effective citizenship leads to passive and naïve citizenship.

5.3:1 Transmitting political citizenship knowledge

This study data revealed young learners' intellectual efficacy through the knowledge of political citizenship issues transmitted by civic content in the classroom. Knowledge construction was exhibited by conceptualising (defining) citizenship concepts: "*civic education...taught me to be patriotic. Patriotism means...you are loyal to your country... civic education has taught me to be loyal to my country*" (Resp. 3 Lag). Another learner defined: "*...nationalism is an act of having strong attachment for one's country...nationalists like...Awolowo ...Azikwe...*" (Resp. 4 Og.). "*Civic education make me know more about ...these people... what they did in the past...*" (Resp. 1 Lag.). Yet a learner noted: "*civic education...made positive impact in me concerning national symbols. ...in school, whenever...reading the National Anthem, we...be doing anything.... But since...taking civic education, we...be at attention... civic education...made strong and positive influence on us...*" (Resp. 2 Og). "*A group of people having the same views or objectives*" (Resp. 2 Og). Also that: "*It helped...to obey... law. ...civic...taught me about the need to cooperate*" (Resp.14 Lag). Another said: "*Civic education taught us our rights as individuals and... rights of others...I have...not known... about it, but since...taught ...I...gain something...*" (Resp. 5 Lag).

Table 7 showing Perceived Civic Curriculum Content Impacts on Political Citizenship Knowledge

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly Disagree		Mean	
		Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
a	Nigeria's political history	5	1	3	1	3	3	39	36	51	60	4.29	4.54
b	Obedience to the law	7	-	5	2	3	3	23	29	62	65	4.29	4.59
c	Show love, respect and patriotism	7	2	5	2	3	2	22	28	67	65	4.42	4.57
d	Change dispositions towards civic duties	5	1	6	.9	7	3	29	34	54	59	4.22	4.50
e	Current political issues	28	1	6	1	6	6	34	46	27	45	4.02	4.33
f	Membership of political party	34	2	11	7	14	10	25	36	17	44	3.43	4.15

Defining civic concepts above showed participating learners' cognitive ability due to civic content focusing mostly on knowledge of ethno-nationalistic citizenship involving national identity, obedience and loyalty to the nation stated in the civic objectives (5.1:3). Conceptualising civic issues above shows a civic classroom which involves inculcating civic concepts based on teacher-learner talk in line with didactic and monologic pedagogies. Such teachings impede open classroom talk which enable learners to, individually and/or collaboratively, construct civic concepts as above. (Lyle, 2008)

This entails inculcating accumulated civic knowledge and understanding via teacher questions designed to test or promote recall as well as prompt learning by memorising pre-packaged knowledge (Lyle, 2008). Learners have narrow chances to examine civic issues due to controlled, monitored and managed (direct) classroom interactive instructions. Such pedagogic styles lack collaborative discursive patterns because the teacher dominates the classroom. In fact, civic teachers lead classroom activities, as a vital trait of the civic curriculum classroom implementation process (Mroz et al., 2000; DfEE, 1997; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). This will be further discussed in the pedagogic chapter (7).

Above knowledge transmission is due to the primary role of the school as state agent created to initiate young learners into the existing ethno-nationalistic (political) citizenship (Green, 1990; Etzioni, 1993; Schugurensky & Myers, 2003). So, the school is regulated by pre-determined civic curriculum content, objectives and pedagogies which restrict the pattern of classroom discourse. More so, Nigeria's civic curriculum (like other countries) mandates civic teachers to lead every aspect of classroom learning such as discourse, assigning tasks among other activities. Generally, schools are engaged in pre-determined, restricted, inflexible curriculum implementation which could be the reason for young learners' hatred and resistance of political/governmental citizenship participation (Lehesvuori, 2013; Matusov 2011; Lyle, 2008).

Unsurprisingly, young learners were able to assert their literacy by eliciting citizenship facts committed to memory due to teachers' emphasis on above civic pedagogies to aid their learning by recall which is the lowest form of learning within the cognitive domains. This justifies a teacher who said: "...¹*we only teach, when we come to the cognitive domain..., we only teach...knowledge level...the lowest level in teaching learning process...*" (Part. 3 Lag). From the above, it seems the civic teacher, as programme

¹ Cited in 5.2 above

implementer, lacked the higher-order pedagogical knowledge and skills on interactive learning like transformative or reflective inquiry, among other theories.

Notwithstanding the above, focus on knowledge could be because it is logical to think that recalled political knowledge could be retained and gradually internalised to develop dispositions and participatory skills (see 5.1:2) about national values and ideology which induct them into the political culture (Marshall, 1998; Leung, 2006). Also, stressing knowledge transmission could be due to the notion that informed citizens are more equipped as catalysts to make the government receptive because articulating positions and constructively expressing such could likely alter government decisions (Centre for Information and Research, 2003). Also, such knowledge could propel future active participation in the polity due to the belief that learners could actualise knowledge learnt in school later in life to boost political development.

5.3:2 Problem of transmitting political citizenship knowledge

Transmitting knowledge accumulated on ethno nationalistic citizenship in the absence of basic civic skills and dispositions could be ineffective for lifelong engagement in Nigeria's polity. This is because presenting only knowledge could be easily obliterated by political happenings in the larger society. Events like inter-ethnic and religious clashes and a low level of national consciousness and integration experienced by over 250 diverse nationalities have led to most Nigerians showing loyalty first to their ethnic nationalities. For instance, despite the civic knowledge content imparted in school, a young learner from the northern part of Nigeria still favoured Boko Haram insurgency as narrated by a civic teacher: "...we discussed the issue of Boko Haram while teaching "insecurity". And a boy...in my class...said...if I have the opportunity, I will join Boko Haram...he told us...his family members, the elderly ones have made him to believe that the southerners and Christians...have disallowed them to get education..." (Resp. 6 (Og). This scenario could be an exceptional case yet it depicts the effects of other socialising agents like ethnic affinity and family which has the tendency to exceed transmitted accrued classroom knowledge. Thus, constructing knowledge alone could be adversely altered by out-of-school citizenship experiences.

This justifies employing interactive/participatory styles like transformative, reflective inquiry and social constructivist learning (discussed in the pedagogy chapter) which studies posit are capable of guiding learners to practice civic content as a vital part of the classroom learning process. Social constructivism induces active civic learners'

participation in constructing knowledge via interactions and consensus. Such participations/interactions create the chance to express their views which lead to creating common insights into civic issues during classroom interactions (Bodrova & Leong, 2012; Gauvain, 2008).

Civic objectives mandate civic teachers to lead learners define ethno-nationalistic ideas evolving from the classical and civic republican citizenship (5.1:3). This models stressed civic duties to the state, collective decision-making for collective (public) good, exhibiting loyalty and obedience to state institutions and active participation (Oliver & Heater, 1994; Pettit, 1997; Bellamy, 2000; Karta, 2002; Peña, 2003). This makes the school a mere transmitter of ethno-nationalistic literacy which leads to passivity and naivety as symbols of effective citizenship (Green 1990; NPE, 2004; Zaman, 2006; Winton, 2007; Tor, 2009; Ogunyemi, 2011).

This could be the reason why some teachers felt they could not put an emphasis on critical citizenship issues in civic classes. A teacher said: “*...discussing about...political issues in the country...you are in soup. They don't want to care whether these children are really getting along with what you are impacting unto them...*” (Part. 1 Lag). “*...But I believe that many teachers may not for political reasons. Only a few...of us who may be ready to dare or face whatever comes to do that. But many teachers don't do for political reasons*” (Part. 4 Og). As stated above, most civic teachers claimed that schools' key duty is enhancing learners' knowledge about the structure and function of government, obedience, and patriotism as a basis to engage in political citizenship (Meyer, 1977; Barr et al., 1977; Zaman, 2006).

From the above, knowledge could be vital but teaching knowledge alone is inadequate to achieve political participation. Political involvement requires knowledge coupled with other components to change government policy or the choice of a political office holder, inter alia. Thus the urgent need to use the interactive/participatory pedagogy. However, the school could evolve a social constructivist classroom in which group interaction, as the root of constructing knowledge, enables learners to experience and practice these civic/citizenship duties within the contexts of their daily actions via extracurricular programmes. That is, using interactive activities to engage in discussing citizenship issues within the school/classroom milieu leads to knowledge construction, mediated by a more knowledgeable person and/or peer group within their socio-cultural setting (Bakhtin, 1984; Prawat & Floden, 1994; Gergen, 1995; Vygotsky 1978).

5.4 Perceived Civic Content Impact on nongovernmental Citizenship

Similar to political citizenship above, data reveals civic content impacts more positively on nongovernmental citizenship knowledge construction than disposition and skills development. Although young learners claim dispositions and skills development, data disclosed efficiency in practice of such knowledge in school via relevant classroom pedagogies to foster more practical citizenship engagement to underpin extracurricular programmes.

5.4:1 Critical citizenship via intellectual and participatory activities

The data shows young learners engage in critical citizenship involving student voices as hallmark of intellectual and participatory classroom interactive activities with the intent to impact on citizenship. This is a rejection of their prior role of knowledge consumers and take on the active meaning-making role. Thus depicting civic content's positive impact on their discourse of current issues, engaging in human rights activism and peaceful protests in the community as shown in the table (8) below.

Underlining this, a learner said: *“civic education has given... right to know what we...need ... speak out, giving us the boldness and... courage...”* (Resp. 1 Lag). Another learner noted: *“... people always want to show their views to government. Something that are hurting inside... but our representatives are not really working... to tell them...our views.... what to do is...participate in protest to express our views to...government that what they are doing to us is very wrong”* (Resp. 3 Lag).

The above focus group data suggests that learners exhibited civic content understanding which fits into the current citizenship constructs. They showed knowledge and skills of constructive citizenship which qualified them as current citizens within their own rights and not citizens in waiting (Osler and Starkey 2009, Ollas, 2013). Civic classroom implementation seems to have built on learners' grasps and participation in citizenship issues to make an impact on citizenship practice within the political system (Supple 1998).

The young learners showed the need to critically and independently examine issues based on the belief that articulating views via student voices further induced more active participation in their community (Tor, 2009). However, such intellectual articulation is due to civic learning content exhibiting the symbiotic links among the domains (5.1:4b) to allow active engagement in school educational activities and adult community

involvement (McLaughlin, 1992; Kerr, 1999; Po, 2004; McCowan, 2006; Ogunyemi, 2011; Kutu, 2013; Yu-le, 2004).

The positive impact of civic content above underpins civic classroom pedagogy based on social constructivism and transformative learning, among other theories. However, these learning theories manifest in diverse classroom pedagogies like open discussion, simulations, dramatisation, inter alia (discussed further in subsequent chapters). These pedagogies engage young learners in interactive discourse activities as a way of experiencing democratic practices in their current lives as index for future interest outside the school system (Rudduck, 2003; Osler & Starkey 2006; Covell et al 2008).

Focus group and questionnaire data confirmed extant literature depicting these pedagogies tendency to increase learners' content recall, higher conceptual understanding, enhanced citizenship participation and change civic positive dispositions towards civic duties and tolerance (Hahn, 1996; Aull 1998; Hess & Posselt, 2001).

Intellectual engagement entails discussing controversial public issues involving the state of affairs of their polity such as corruption which a learner lamented thus: "*Civic education... taught me ...government ... should make the nation...first 10 richest nations. Instead they have made it the first 15th corrupt nation*" (Resp. Lag 1). Another said: "*Yes, civic education...changed my attitude to political apathy...a situation whereby citizens shy away or felt unconcerned about the activities of the state. It...changed my attitude...*" (Resp. 7 Og). As stated above, this trend of student voice (engagement) discussions on national issues illustrated young learners' insights of critical citizenship issues and the need to show interest in discussing such public issues inside and outside the school (Levine, 2005). Young learners' understanding of the citizenship issues were reflected in their articulation of current citizenship practice within the context of their own lives. Also, they revealed their skill to effectively undertake divers citizenship functions if given the chance outside of the classroom as the focus group revealed. Such view involved citizenship acts from the traditional (ethno-nationalistic) citizenship covering the republican, communitarian models, which emphasised citizenship roles like voting, obedience to authority, paying tax and loyalty.

Table 8 showing Perceived Civic Curriculum Content Impacts on Nongovernmental (Community) Citizenship Issues

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly Agree		Mean	
		Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun	Lagos	Ogun
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
a	Participate in discussions on citizenship related issues	25	3	18	5	5	5	26	38	27	48	3.14	4.25
b	Participate in human rights activities in the community	25	9	18	11	12	7	14	33	17	37	3.35	3.73
c	Participate in Peaceful protest	37	5	50	25	13	10	18	33	17	44	3.18	4.07
d	Collaboration to solve civic/ citizenship related issues	26	2	15	6	9	4	27	44	20	48	2.97	4.34
e	Participate in community service	18	3	7	2	8	5	30	43	27	46	3.32	4.25
f	Voting during elections	33	1	10	5	7	9	28	29	21	56	3.59	4.34

Civic content has the tendency to engage learners in liberal citizenship entailing nongovernmental action like ecological, community voluntarism and human rights protests (2.4:2) (Smith et al 2005; Ollas, 2013).

All these are made possible due to the above interactive classroom pedagogies which mediate learners' critical (higher-order) thinking, constructive citizenship efficacy and boost participatory skills in polemic issues. Learners were able to discuss their citizenship views as they relate to current events within the Nigerian political system. The open classroom discourse mediates social constructivist, reflective inquiry and transformative learning. This is because these interactive learning theories are characterised by critical thinking via dialogue and reflection; interactions, among others (Ollas, 2013).

This data showed civic content impacting essential intellectual and participatory skills in young learners to evoke critical citizenship traits (see 2.2:2b). This could foster analyses of issues to challenge socio-political events adversely affecting their lives. Civic content impacts the skill to discuss (as shown above) and act on diverse public issues (Ginsburg, 2001; Zaman, 2006). Accordingly, a learner said: *"It depends on the type of leader. If...is...good and well respected... knows what to give his state, I will have positive attitude about him. But if he is...bad...only wants ...tax and never pay...salary, I will have a negative thinking"* (Resp. 1 Lag). Young learners' responses showed that our schools, based on current global realities, are capable of performing the more complex role of using civic pedagogies, discussed above, as a catalyst, to create an environment in which young learners are empowered to comprehend, analyse and evaluate issues shown in this data. This gives them the chance to have more control of their learning experiences via collaborative interactive classroom dialogue (Sax, 1974; Green 1990; Falade, 2007; Ogundare, 2010; Ollas, 2013). Using civic content to impact critical citizenship in learners means developing individuals to exercise their right to think independently as the liberals advocated in Chapter 2; by developing independent critical skills to operate effectively within their community. Introducing the discussion of controversial issues via civic education is a way of equipping them via relevant pedagogies to tackle lifelong citizenship issues (Arthur & Davidson, 2000; Reich, 2002; Asimeng-Boahene, 2007; Mukhongo, 2010; Ogunyemi, 2011).

However, for civic content to guide learners' intellectual and participatory engagement against undemocratic practices, paradoxes in government actions and citizenship

inequalities (see 2.2:3) requires an open classroom climate (Chapter 7) which inspires free and critical dialogic pedagogy during civic learning process (Giroux, 1980; Ginsburg, 2001; Lyle, 2008).

Although it appears interactive civic pedagogy mediated student voices via dialogic learning, however, this might seem a difficult task for the school (5.3) as an institution created, governed and state funded (Zaman, 2006). Even more so, some teachers were reluctant to engage their young learners on dialogue relating to political issues which they perceived as sensitive. Some civic teachers remarked thus: *“No Political issue. The school is very...sensitive about discussing political/civic issues. To a teacher teaching civic education you may want...students to discuss political issue. ...students telling their parents what...happened in the classroom is a threat to teachers. Because of that teachers may not always discuss current issues...”* (Part. 6 Og). So it is a utopian idea to foster critical citizenship under a milieu of serious result for teachers using open classroom underpinned by dialogic teaching. Thus, as stated in 2.2:2d, inappropriate civic pedagogies could hinder schools’ critical citizenship actualisation due to the political class failure to provide school civic implementation strategies and resources in order for learners to match school learning experience with their daily living (Okeahialam, 2013).

5.4:2 Developing nongovernmental Citizenship through Experiential Learning

Survey questionnaire data showed young learners engaged in individual and collaborative community service and voting depicting civic content positive impact on their dispositions and participatory skills as shown in table (8) above. However, focus groups showed civic content impacted more on citizenship concept construction shown thus: *“Civic education...taught me...to cooperate...agreement between you and someone...like a group agreement between you and peoples...cooperation improves...a particular...community”* (Resp.14 Og.). This depicts the civic content focus on collaborative knowledge construction, a major trait of the social constructivist and transformative learning. Collaborative inquiry through constant engagement in classroom dialogue on controversial citizenship issues among learners results in constructing knowledge based on consensus. However, such knowledge requires practice to develop dispositions and participatory skills which gradually integrate learners into the larger society. Such knowledge could be practiced via experiential learning using extracurricular (out of classroom) civic activities in the school. As stated above, current

realities rooted in an activity-based civic curriculum requires collaborative learning whereby learners engage in peer to peer interactions to form a consensus in the classroom and during extracurricular programmes. Such interactions provide opportunity for learners to express views from an individual perspective, and then to dialogue which allows for reflections by the whole class before arriving at a decision. Through this process, various citizenship ideas undergo critical (self) reflections in the civic classroom (Lyle, 2008; Ollas, 2013).

Extracurricular civic learning are interactive activities planned by schools as an addition to classroom civic learning to offer exposure and experience to perform tasks which enhance community appreciation. It entails forming civic clubs operating outside the normal classroom civic learning, and are structured towards citizenship change requiring an interplay of the school and community (Holland & Andre, 1987; Tor, 2009). As stated above, extracurricular activities require collaboration, interactions and critical thinking and dialogue as rooted in the transformative, social constructivist and reflective inquiry learning. These interactive learning theories mediate learners' experience, team spirit, confidence in problem solving, decision making, and taking responsibility (Reeves, 2008; Burgess, 2009; Ollas, 2013).

In Nigeria, extracurricular (informal) civic programmes via civic clubs (press, literary and debates, Jet clubs, inter alia) ought to be an integral part of school programmes. However, implementation differs in the two states as stated by a civic expert²: *“The major barrier to the acquisition of civic traits and values by the learners is the problem of implementation with regards to...lack of teachers...lack of uniformity in the implementation among schools in some states and non-implementation of the civic education programme in some parts of the country”* (Part. 4). I posit that states lack equal commitment to civic curriculum implementation due to disparities in financial, human resources and political will.

For instance, comparatively, Lagos state lacked political will which led to poor implementation involving, for example, a shortage of qualified civic teachers in schools. This resulted in excess workload for the few available teachers (Chapter 6) thus preventing them from engaging young learners in extracurricular programmes thereby making civic clubs inactive. Also, due to the curriculum statist approach, some school

² Focus group data cited in 5.2 above

heads barely allow extra-curricular programmes for fear of the government alleging incitement of young learners by teachers on exercising their rights, (especially in a volatile and heterogeneous state as Lagos). *“No Political issue. The school is very...sensitive about discussing political/civic issues. To a teacher teaching civic education you may want...students to discuss political issue”*³. However, Ogun state schools, relatively, practices such civic content knowledge through extracurricular activities using civic clubs.

I think involvement in civic clubs during extra-curricular programmes could guide young learners to participate in activities that foster common aspirations which enhance development of individual and collective interest in politics and non-governmental activism (Verba, Schlozman & Brady, 1997; Lewis, 1995; Omoifo, 2003; Falade, 2007; Tor, 2009).

The exigency of practicing citizenship knowledge via collaborative learning is imperative considering these young learners’ conversations: *“we don’t have the right to vote because of...age. The rightful voter is...18years upward. So, we don’t have to know anything about it”* (Resp. 4 Lag). However, a dissenting participant said: *“she said...due to our age; we are not...to know anything about voting. ...But, we have to know because a time is coming when we... reach that age. So, it’s better...to know... now...our right ... to vote...”* (Resp.5 Lag). Still, another, another participant reiterated thus: *“It teaches us how to vote. Though, they taught us how to vote but we need to practice it. If the government can allow us....to practice voting, so...we...understand more”* (Resp. Lag 7). Even young learners realised that knowledge transmission requires opportunities to practice such knowledge through civic duties such as voting. Therefore, learners constructing knowledge without requisite practice is meaningless, thus civic learning process requires reflective engagement using extracurricular activities effectively inside and outside school (Sophocles, 400 B.C & George Santayana (n.d) cited in Gentry, 1990). Engaging young learners in extracurricular (informal) activities like debating, voting and community voluntary services could lead to developing greater participatory dispositions and skills (Becks & Jennings, 1982; Holland & Andre, 1987; Verba, Schlozman & Brady, 1995).

³ Focus group data cited in 5.3b (i)

Thus, civic clubs and students' associations could be induced to engage in elections of their leaders, and the creation of other elective posts as class captains, school representatives and prefects within the school system for learners to practice. Engaging in voting via extracurricular activities helps to eliminate corrupt electoral tendencies prevalent in the larger society. Unfortunately, extracurricular (informal) engagement, statutorily, should be an integral part of civic curriculum enrichment in our school, however, initiating other subjects further compounded the problem of lack of or inadequate space on the school timetable for participatory/interactive extracurricular implementation during school hours but after school hours when children are expected to be at home (Ivowi, 1998, 2004; Okebukola, 2004; Falade, 2007; Ogunyemi, 2005, 2011).

The optimism is that engaging in school extracurricular activities could re-orientate our young learners who have witnessed (and some engaged in under-age voting) elections flawed by massive riggings, results manipulations and false declaration of results. Besides, some of them are induced to vote due to poverty in places like Lagos as a metropolitan and cosmopolitan state.

These negative trends in larger society oppose the ideal image which young learners are exposed to in the civic classroom. A civic teacher expounded on this thus: *"...I could remember when teaching 'electoral malpractice' ...there are certain things I don't know about electoral malpractices, though...not up to voting age but they...saw a lot of thing happening what their parents, their brothers and sisters engage in during the election..."* (Part. 1). Such negative experiences could be eased if schools regularly applies interactive pedagogies for collaborative critical and dialogic teaching to avoid value conflicts between the school and larger society.

Since extracurricular programmes involved an interplay between the school and community, they often involved activities of citizenship advocacy groups. These non-governmental organisations engage in dialogic talks to promote critical reflection on citizenship issues linking school and community. Civic teachers commented on this: *"...some health... officials...came to our school to speak on HIV/AIDs and...gave...some materials for this..."* (Part. 2 Lag). Another teacher said: *"...A kind of organization is coming to our school to give a talk with the female students on sexual harassment"* (Part. 5 Lag). A civic teacher noted: *"...I invited some (youth) corpers to...talk about cultism...Community leader around...talk about community development."*

...And...teaching human rights” I invited a lawyer... to come and give talk about human right to the students... (Part. 3 Og)”. Most civic teachers used this form of extracurricular programme through the school morning assembly to engage in pedagogic teaching of inducing young learners to engage in collaborative community activities. Collaborative learning is a way of using extracurricular activities links school knowledge to meet the needs of society, thus, shifting civic education pedagogy from the didactic/monologic teaching to interactive-based learning foster effective citizenship development of Nigeria’s young learners (Shugurensky & Myers, 2003; Ogunyemi, 2011). In other words, such learners are adequately equipped knowledge, skills and dispositions in school for problem solving and decisions making to transform the community. But, such skills inter alia, could be difficult to practice in schools due to time deficiency, unfavourable school settings and teachers’ excessive workload (Ogunyem, 2006; 2010).

5.5 Demographic/Control Variables’ Test of Significance

Table 9 shows the Test of Significant on young learners’ civic curriculum knowledge

Variables	Participants	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df.	t	Sig.
(1) States	Lagos	176	25.1875	4.18215	508	8.550	.000
	Ogun		28.0240	3.18772			
(2) Gender	Male	205	27.2585	3.53505	507	1.000	0.89
	Female	304	26.9145	3.97674			
(3) School Location	Urban	491	27.0530	3.83928	508	.237	.187
	Rural	19	26.842	2.87254			
(4) Students’ Level	Junior	241	26.5382	4.0786	508	-2.961	.005
	Senior	261	27.5287	3.47022			

Based on the discussion on demographic and control variables in Chapter 3, there is a significant difference in political knowledge impact in the two states. Ogun learners showed more impact of political knowledge than their Lagos counterparts. This could be due to the legacy of political activism involving nationalists and statesmen in the forefront

of Nigeria's political independence evolving from Ogun state. These nationalists have become role models, not only to Ogun indigenes but to all Yorubas in south-western Nigeria. However, this is contrary to Lagos which comprises diverse political interests due to its heterogeneous status. At the students' level, this study revealed a significant difference in civic knowledge constructed by junior and senior civic learners. Thus, senior civic learners depicted a higher level of knowledge construction contrary to the Junior civic learners. Senior civic learners seems to have gradually developed the progression to more complex, deeper and broader civic knowledge and could possibly connect civic concepts to develop higher order thinking (Brough, 2007; Muller, 2000). Developing this progression by the senior civic learners could be due to acquiring some content knowledge through subjects like government and history, among others.

On gender, though most past studies indicated significant differences in favour of males, however, this study revealed no such disparity thus showing a positive response to feminist outcry through women (NGOs) advocacy groups opposing inequality, exclusion and relegation of women in Nigerian politics and the need for the active participation of women in society. Based on this, more Nigerian women are showing interest by aspiring for top political offices involving national and states legislatures, governorship, inter alia. This could possibly induce some impact on the civic knowledge of young female learners who see the levels their female models could go in their political pursuit.

On school location, the stand of literature was not reflected in this study because there was no significant difference in knowledge acquired among schools in the two locations. However, the mean above showed emphasis on knowledge construction was more evident in urban schools than rural counterparts which could be due to exposure to other socialising agents mentioned above. Evidently, I implied that schools in the two locations experienced lack of attention regarding resources discussed in 5.2 above and subsequently in Chapter 6.

5.6 Conclusion

Nigeria's educational philosophy intends to foster effective citizenship by developing citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills which in turn helps to engage in political and nongovernmental citizenship. In consonance with this and current global realities, a civic curriculum with activity and issue based objectives was designed. However, these civic programme objectives focused more on knowledge construction than developing

dispositions and skills. Accordingly, civic content had more impact on constructing political and nongovernmental citizenship knowledge than other components. This revealed the traditional role of our schools as transmitters and conveyers with young learners as recipients and consumers of passive citizenship. However, I consider citizenship as a much more flexible concept that could be modified in consonance with current concerns by the schools. The school as a social reformer could reshape the implementation of civic content to involve extracurricular programmes which help young learners practice knowledge, dispositions and skills. This would help them to engage in both political and nongovernmental citizenship which, however, depends on implementation resources (examined in the next chapters) available in our schools.

Chapter 6

Perceived School Resources Implementation Impact

6.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 showed that the activity/issue based civic programme objectives revealed Nigerian government intention to develop effective citizenship via civic/citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills. Despite this, the civic content mainly mediated knowledge construction of political, and nongovernmental citizenship. However, via knowledge construction, dispositions and skills were relatively developed. This was due to the inadequacy of practicing knowledge construction using relevant classroom teaching practice for experiential learning in the school. The question requiring an answer is why the civic content stressed knowledge transmission more than dispositions and skills during the classroom implementation process.

However, the last chapter (5.2), revealed certain issues contending against a successful school and classroom civic programme implementation process. In this chapter, I examine in detail these and other issues identified in the process of implementing civic programme objectives. Implementation, in this context, is the process of providing school resources (as stated in Chapter 3) to develop citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills as indices of effective citizenship development.

To examine this, I divide the chapter into four sections as follows: Section 6.1 discusses, in this study context, school resources which entail human, material and training (see Chapter 3) and how deficiency and lack of these resources leads to improvisation. Section 6.2 discusses evidence I found from the data of a problem with the recruitment and availability of civic teachers leading to personnel improvisation as a stopgap. This, in turn, results in ineffective civic content teaching due to excess workload and large class size. Section 6.3 concerns data that reveals civic teachers lacking appropriate and relevant insights regarding civic curriculum content due to inadequate in-service training. This leads to civic teachers' individual or group directed (initiated) training for academic and professional renewal. In section 6.4, I discuss how data indicates the inadequate and low quality of textbook provision and other instructional materials, thus necessitating subsequent improvisation efforts by civic teachers in schools.

School resources are a vital aspect of curriculum reform because a nation's educational system cannot rise above the quality of resources provided in the school. As stated in Chapter 3, school resources essential for effective civic curriculum classroom implementation can be classified into three: the recruitment of civic teachers, in-service training and instructional materials. Inability to adequately provide these requisite resources results in improvisation.

In this study, improvisation of resources (including personnel), refers to the substitution of standard resources to fit into existing teaching and learning for better civic performance (NTL, 2007; Ezeasor et al, 2012). That is, replacing the real resources with those designed by school curriculum implementers like civic teachers to facilitate classroom instructions (Kamoru and Umeano, 2006; Ihiegbulem, 2007). Improvising school resources was due to inadequate educational funding resulting from general economic recession. This impeded the recruitment of adequately trained civic teachers to implement relevant interactive learning theories which manifest through different classroom teaching styles to mediate civic learning (Omachi, 2000; Parker, 2011; Ollas, 2013).

6.2 Civic Education Teachers' Recruitment and Improvisation

6.2:1 Problem of Recruiting Qualified Civic Education Teachers

In this study, data revealed the problem of inadequate recruitment and provision of qualified civic education teachers. Teachers with relevant academic and professional certification to guide learners' civic knowledge, dispositions and skills development within the civic classroom instructional context were inadequate. Such inadequate qualified civic teachers, revealed by the data, under the new education reform was evident in the two states used for this study. A teacher said: “...*there is a maxim ‘when the desirable is not available, the available...becomes desirable’*. ...*there are not enough civic teachers in our secondary schools*” (Og. Resp. 9). Another teacher⁴ noted: “...*government is not ready to appoint any teacher for civic education, because when the subject was introduced to us...we are to...make use of those... teaching subjects that are related to civic education... those...taking government or social studies are taking this subject*” (Lag. Resp. 4). These reflections which are typical of most participating teachers showed that this reform lacked a proper implementation process regarding the provision

⁴ Cited in 5.2

of human resources. In fact, past educational reforms involving Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1955 and 1976 failed at the implementation stage due to the recruitment problem inter alia. Studies showed there were attempts at teacher recruitment to enhance the implementation process, however, consensus was that such recruitment was inadequate and affects most states in Nigeria. Based on this problem, over half of teachers in the education sector were unqualified and this was most evident in six states, Bayelsa, Ondo, Katsina, Kwara, Plateau, and Gombe, with Kwara alone nearing the benchmark of 1 teacher to 35 learners stated in the NPE (Adepoju & Fabiyi, 2007; UKDID/ FGN, 2009; Tsafe, 2013).

In addition, while basic education in Nigeria required 966,308 teachers only 627,550 were recruited and only 368,613 of these teachers (55.2%) were professionally qualified thus the system still needed a total of 597,695 qualified teachers. including civic teachers (FMoE, 2005; UBEC, 2009; Okoro, 2011). Therefore, consensus on deficient recruitment above was shown in the data of this study (Table 6.1:1).

The inadequate recruitment and provision of qualified civic teachers was due to the non-availability of accurate data for proper planning. Such inadequate planning commences from the lack of an implementation plan which depends largely on the mechanisms of administrative institutions. Also, inadequate planning could ensue from a reduction in education budgets resulting in the underfunding of teacher training colleges and teacher reward systems and bringing lack of motivation and extant inequality in working conditions (salaries and promotion) between teaching and other professions (Global Campaign for Education, 2006; Obayan, 2010; Bolaji, 2014). Looking for a way out of the shortfalls of civic teachers led to government and school heads using 'personnel improvisation' as a makeshift solution.

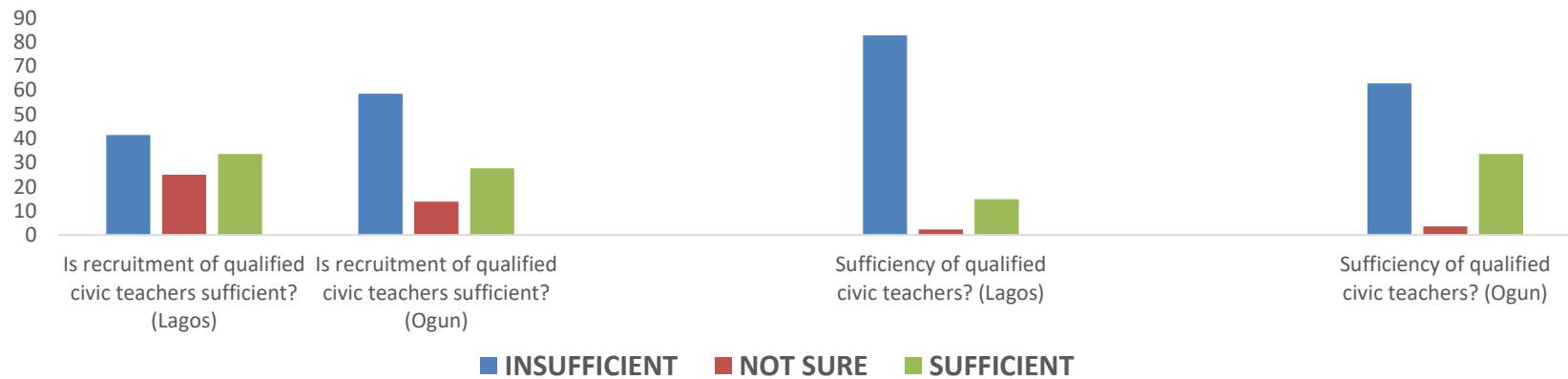
A major implication of having unqualified civic teachers involves the inability to apply appropriate and relevant classroom interactive teaching practice. According to Hardman & Abd-Kadir (2010) unqualified civic teachers engaged mostly in expounding civic issues via very complex question and answer classroom sessions. Such teachers use monologic pedagogy which entails teachers probing of learners' knowledge and grasp of civic issues which only promotes the recall of civic facts. Most of the questions teachers

asked were of low cognitive level intended to direct learners' reaction towards a vital answer (Alexander et al, 1996; Galton et al, 1999).

Table 10 Recruitment of Qualified Civic Teachers

Items	LAGOS STATE						OGUN STATE					
	INS	%	NS	%	S	%	Ins	%	NS	%	s	%
Is recruitment of qualified civic teachers sufficient?	53	41.4	32	25.0	43	33.6	17	58.6	4	13.8	8	28
Sufficiency of qualified civic teachers?	106	82.8	3	2.3	19	14.8	107	62.9	6	3.5	57	34

Figure 1: Recruitment of Qualified Teachers Civic Teacher (Lagos and Ogun)



6.2:2 Improvisations as a Stopgap Measure

Data revealed the drafting in of unqualified civic education teachers as a makeshift improvisation. This is due to the civic teachers' recruitment problem where both government and school heads seconded or drafted teachers in with or without the requisite academic specialisation or pedagogical skills to teach civic education. Teaching civic education depended on a teacher's availability instead of academic and professional ability. Focus groups showed that drafting teachers in from other subjects was used by school heads. A teacher said: "...introduction of civic education...in 2009... didn't make provisions... What you are...having is just improvisations. Somebody taking so so subject...assist us just to see (fill) the gaps and... insufficiency...we are witnessing in terms of professionalism (Og. (M) Resp. 9). This response makes one question not just the implementation process but also the policy makers' level of insight regarding policy and programme intent and realisation. Recruiting teachers of an unrelated subject to teach civic education without the requisite knowledge and skills means such programmes are heading toward failure. A determinant factor of a successful programme depends on the quality of the workforce (teachers) at the implementation level. In ameliorating a deficiency of qualified civic teachers, personnel improvisation was adopted. This involved accessing teachers hitherto recruited to teach related or unrelated subjects (in the form of role substitution) e.g. using social studies teachers to teach civic education (Weick, 1993; Onifade, 2004). This concept entails drafting other subject teachers to teach civic content was used to cater for the deficit of civic teachers (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998; Kao, 1996).

Improvisation was necessary due to the inability to offer civic education as a course of study in the teacher education institutions in Nigeria. A possible makeshift solution was to draft in social studies specialists who were perceived as possessing equivalent content and pedagogical knowledge since civic education was disarticulated from hitherto social studies education (Ogunyemi, 2011; NERDC, 2006). A participant said: "*We...teaching social studies...they gave civic education to teach. ...because...social studies teacher...should have knowledge to give these students...*" (Resp. 7 Lag.). Another participant said: "...government sees civic education as...part of social studies. So, while complaining that the burden of social studies is enormous ...we...have to take it together because it's part of social studies...in my school...the same teacher that... teaches social studies teaches civic education....it is ... part of social studies..." (Lag. Resp. 3). A

teacher said: *“truly ...the way civic education looks at it...in practical to... (government) ...we still need professional skills. ...the way you...teach government is different from civic education. What you... say in social studies is different from what we are going to say”* (Resp. 8 Lag). This further shows the lack of insight by policy makers who failed to realise that, though civic education was disarticulated from social studies, the two subjects have diverse content knowledge and pedagogical skills. Thus, drafting social studies teachers in to improvise implies that teaching civic education is just like teaching social studies.

Seconding social studies teachers to teach civic education might lead to civic education facing similar problems that social studies struggled with at inception. This involved drafting in teachers of social science subjects to teach social studies without adequate retraining. This resulted in educating young learners on citizenship norms out of the Nigerian context where they were supposed to function effectively as citizens (Okam, 2008; Ogunyemi, 2010). So, teaching civic curriculum with improvised civic teachers could lead to implementation failure (3.3) as was the case in prior reforms where improvisation involved all components of school resources. Evidently, it shows policy makers and curriculum planners lacked insight at the planning stage to make the necessary provision for a preservice teacher training programme for civic education. Improper planning has been the bane of Nigeria’s curriculum projects (Ivowi, 1984, 1998, 2004; Ogunyemi, 2010, 2011).

Nevertheless, the first stopgap measure involved the government improvising with teachers of related subjects to teach civic education. In fact, the majority of participants were seconded from social studies. A teacher narrated: *“... my school, I...taught civic education ... I was employed to teach social studies* (Lag (F) part. 1). Yet another said: *“I was...to teach social studies...I was told to teach civic education* (Lag (M) resp. 6). Another teacher said: *“I was a social studies teacher... then, the instruction was social studies teachers should take...Civic Education* (Lag (F) resp. 7). From these responses, teachers with inadequate civic knowledge and teaching skills became stopgap civic specialists as a way to offset teachers’ deficit. Unfortunately, these teachers were part of the personnel improvisation which involved using post-secondary school leavers (para-teachers) who underwent between 12-18-months Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) (Mangwat, 2001; Obinna, 2002).

Moreover, school administrators implemented another form of improvisation by seconding teachers from unrelated subjects. That is, teachers possessing pedagogical skills but lacking civic and citizenship related content knowledge were drafted in to teach civic education. This scenario was revealed in the focus group data which indicated schools where subject specialists in related areas were either lacking or inadequate; for example drafted teachers were brought in from unrelated subjects like agricultural science, business studies, and Christian religious studies to teach civic education. A teacher said: *“I was employed to teach social studies...because of the population in my school, a colleague of mine...teaching ...Agricultural Science was... to join me in teaching civic education.* (Lag (F) resp. 1). Another teacher noted: *“When the burden is too much they...introduced a teacher...taking Christian religious studies to join me...”* (Lag resp. 2). Again a teacher said: *“In my school... a business education teacher is teaching civic education* (Og Resp. 5). Lastly, a teacher declared: *“...in my school....., we have accounting teacher, commerce teacher taking civic and some of them are...rejecting...reluctant...”* (Og resp. 7). The teachers’ comments further indicated the ineffective decisions of school administrators in the course of programme delivery and implementation. Their inability to think properly regarding the best options in the implementation process led to most schools engaging non-specialists teaching outside their area of specialisation, particularly at a basic level where the foundation for effective performance is laid. Most states lacking qualified teachers and often having to improvise by compelling unqualified teachers to teach subjects other than their area of specialisation, portend great danger for the future of effective citizenship. Literature showed a state like Balyesa had 5,202 teachers in 2005 and only 2,246 (43%) were qualified with a bachelor’s degree 592 (11%) and 1654 (31%) with NCE (the minimum qualification) to teach at the basic school; others were improvised. Also, from the 575,068 basic school teachers, 282,000 lack either certification, or specialisation (or both) to teach a particular subject (Theobald et.al, 2007; Sam, 2009). In fact, large numbers of basic school (civic) teachers lack the required expertise regarding content knowledge. Only 25% of the surveyed school teachers in sub-Saharan Africa have teaching skills (UNESCO, 2004, 2006). Evidently, implementing civic reforms at the basic school involving many untrained civic teachers (lacking expert certification and/or content knowledge) denotes a serious barrier to effective civic content teaching and learning.

6.2:3 Ineffective civic teaching as an aftermath of Personnel Improvisation

In this study, data revealed that using personnel improvisation could lead to ineffective teaching and learning of the civic curriculum due to a shallow civic knowledge and/or poor pedagogic skills displayed by such civic teachers. A teacher said: “...*not...giving the subject to the right teacher or professional to teach...*” (Og (F) resp. 3). Moreover, a civic expert (5.3) reiterated that actualising civic education objectives required specialist teachers, among other factors.

From the participants’ reflections and attestations, personnel (teacher) improvisation for civic classroom implementation results in ineffective teaching. This is attributable to three major factors: teachers’ excess workload, large civic classroom size and lack of requisite pedagogical (teaching practice) skills.

6.2:3(a) Teachers’ Excess workload

Teachers’ excess workload is the totality of duties allotted which is more than the statutory proviso. Such workload covers teaching civic content (preparing lesson notes, teaching and marking scripts), administrative and supervisory duties inter alia. Excess workload has an adverse effect on teachers’ classroom teaching because lack of time leads to modifying teaching practices in order to cope with other duties and thus being unable to accomplish set objectives (Naylor & Malcomson, 2001).

In Nigeria, excess workload involved allocating more than the (twenty-five per week) maximum teaching periods and other duties statutorily stated (Ikworayebe, 2005). Using teachers as a form of personnel improvisation could be an additional burden to teaching, considering the amount of periods (over thirty-five periods a week) and classes of over one hundred students which teachers have to teach, manage and supervise. Civic teachers (Part. 8 Og.) comment on this issue below. These duties could be unbearable and lead to teachers’ ineffectiveness and hindrance to young learners’ academic performance (Nwwikina & Nwanekezi, 2010; Osagie & Okafor, 2012). The focus group discussions indicated that combining their subject(s) with civic education was burdensome, overwhelming and problematic: “...⁵*the same teacher that teaches social studies teaches civic education. ...when the burden was too much...*” (Og (F) resp. 6).

⁵ Cited previously

6.2:3(b) Large Civic Classroom Size

Large class size relates to a classroom population explosion more than the required statutory (policy) stipulation. The National Policy requires a normal class size to be between 35-40 young learners (National Policy on Education, 2004). The rate of interaction among young learners and teachers in a civic classroom size above policy endorsement could be very demanding for the improvised civic teacher. Having over one hundred young learners in a class leads to ineffective teaching and learning. Classroom teaching and learning becomes rowdy and lesson presentation unwieldy for such teachers. Due to large classes the teacher evades some statutory duties such as individual and group instructions on class work and assignments in order to avert burn-out. As stated above, participants claimed that the non-specialist teachers drafted were reluctant and were thus rejecting the subject (Og (F) resp. 7). This could lead to overworking the teachers resulting in inefficiency and low learners' performance (Gbore & Daramola, 2013). A teacher said⁶: "*We have...a teacher...take 8 or 9 arms of 100 students in a class* (Resp. 8 Og.). This civic teacher's assertion was underpinned by local and international studies and literature that young learners in smaller classes perform better by scoring higher in tests, receive better grades, and display improvement in attendance. That is, a positive link between a drop in class-size and young learners' academic achievement (Finn and Achilles, 1999; Nye, Hedges, & Konstantopoulos, 1999; United States Department of Education. 2003; Adeyemi, 2008). Also, from teaching perspectives, class-size significantly affects the quality of teachers' input and output at diverse levels of school. Large classes are most likely to use didactic (lecture) pedagogy instead of learner-centred (discussion) approach. This is because learners' focus tends to drop off intensely after some minutes of a class lesson (Penner, 1984; Verner and Dickinson, 1967). A focus group participant (Og (F) resp. 3) above insisted on giving the subject to the right teacher or professional to teach.

The data for this study evidently showed inadequate qualified civic education teachers in schools within the two states resulting in personnel improvisations to offset civic teachers' deficit. However, it is crucial to know whether regular professional training was provided for civic teachers (especially unrelated), who were drafted to teach the civic curriculum.

⁶ Cited previously

6.2:3c Lack of Pedagogical (teaching practice) Skills

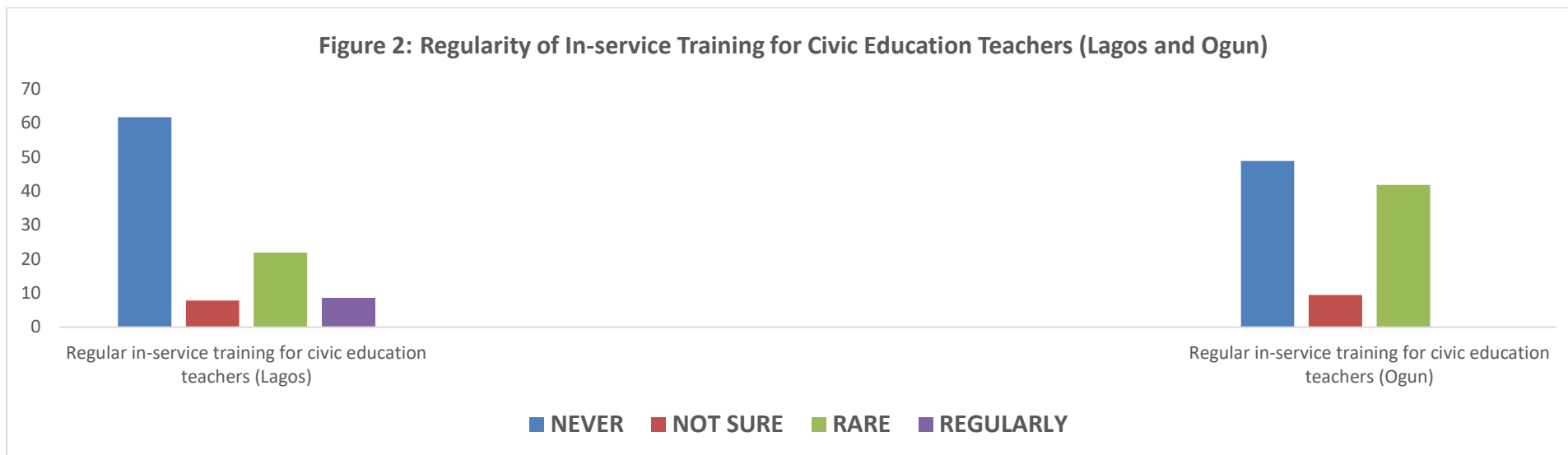
As stated above, effective teaching is vital to developing effective citizenship via an issue/activity based civic curriculum. Such teaching requires creativity and innovation by the teacher during the learning process. Civic teachers need relevant pedagogy skills involving methods to mediate learners' effective citizenship construction (Okebukola, 2004; Ivowi, 2004; Ogunyemi, 2006). Thus, drafting/seconding teachers (related and unrelated) with excess teaching load, large class sizes, as discussed above, coupled with inappropriate classroom teaching practice, unarguably, leads to ineffective civic learning. As stated in Chapter 1, research evidence has shown faulty use of pedagogies in related and unrelated school subjects where teachers were drafted in to teach civic education. In social studies, for instance, inbuilt interactive pedagogies have been relegated in many classrooms. Social studies hardly attract dialogic, exploratory, and collaborative teaching practice, rather, most teachers conceptualise the content for recall purposes. Questions of low cognitive level were asked to channel learners' response towards a required answer. Most classrooms are characterised by teachers' asking questions which require learners to report someone else's perceptions instead of constructing their own views on the issues (Okam, 2002; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010). This limits emphasis on the cognitive domain at the expense of affective development and skills acquisition (Ogundare, 2010).

In view of the above, it is pertinent to explore, in the next section, the efforts conducted in empowering improvised civic teachers along the use of interactive pedagogies so as to attain the civic education goals of developing learners' effective citizenship.

Table 11 Regularity of in-service training for civic education teachers

ITEM (S)	LAGOS STATE								OGUN STATE							
	NVR	%	NS	%	R	%	REG	%	NVR	%	NS	%	R	%	REG	%
Regular in-service training for civic education teachers	79	61.7	10	7.8	28	21.9	11	8.6	83	48.8	16	9.4	71	41.8	-	-

Figure 2: Regularity of In-service Training for Civic Education Teachers (Lagos and Ogun)



6.3 Relevant insights on civic education curriculum

Interactive learning theories discussed (2.5) above are seen as complex for classroom practice since they entail the teacher not just having but also exhibiting a high degree of civic knowledge, relevant pedagogical skills and insight into learners' individual differences as norm for critical and reflective thinking (Alexander 2005; Lehesvuori, 2013). Civic teachers need professional development training to implement these classroom learning theories. However, the survey data reveals that civic teachers lack appropriate and relevant insights regarding civic curriculum content due to inadequate or a lack of in-service training. This led to civic teachers initiating individual or group training to renew their content knowledge and pedagogical skills thus reducing using general knowledge to teach civic curriculum.

6.3:1 Civic teachers' dearth of curriculum insights

This study data showed civic teachers lacking appropriate and relevant civic curriculum insights due to the lack of or irregular in-service training. Both survey (Table 11) above and focus group data revealed an overwhelming presence of civic teachers (in the two states) without adequate civic education insights due to the inability to engage in professional upgrading via government in-service training.

In this study, I viewed civic curriculum insights as possessing the required content knowledge and understanding, pedagogical skills and dispositions regarding civic curriculum for effective classroom implementation. As school implementers, civic teachers required regular hands-on training to acquire more insights on citizenship issues and how to teach such issues to mediate efficiency and better performance.

The data revealed that civic teachers lacked regular curriculum knowledge and skills as admitted by a civic teacher: *"the need for civic teachers to be well informed, unfortunately, most teachers are not well informed..."* (Part. 5 Og). Confirming this response, another teacher lamented thus: *"...there has not been training in civic education..."* (Resp. 6 Og). Civic teachers, in junior and senior secondary schools in the two states, are not informed via training on the civic curriculum regarding modern pedagogic styles. The teachers either lacked the requisite skills, or are poorly trained on pedagogies involving classroom interaction and their roles as mediators in social constructivist, reflective inquiry and transformative learning theories.

Another teacher claimed: *“In my school...no training...since last year. There is no training for us”* (Resp.1 Lag). Yet another one declared: *“...I think... we supposed to go for seminar... everybody teaching...civic education. But when there is no opportunity...”* (Resp. 3 Lag). A teacher reiterated: *“Anyway...I think there is nothing like that. There is nothing like organising seminar”* (Resp. 9). Teachers’ responses depict a situation of neglect and alienation on both pre and in-service teacher education. Refusal to empower teachers with knowledge, skills and dispositions means the government viewed teachers as superfluous to the civic curriculum implementation process and this could have multiple impacts on young learners. Without a doubt developing effective citizenship requires that major implementers like civic teachers possess the necessary literacy, education and training.

The responses of teachers so far were consistent with literature showing serious deficiency of in-service training especially for unqualified teachers and as such these teachers were seen as curriculum illiterates. In the last sixteen years, government commitments to teachers’ professional development were merely documentary and rhetoric as efforts to train and retrain civic teachers in schools were extremely irregular if not totally lacking. This undermines various changes initiated under the new activity and issue based curriculum (Kosemani, 1984; UNESCO, 2001; USAID, 2001; Ayo, 2002, 2004; Mkpa, 2005; Mohammed 2006; Global Campaign for Education, 2006; Okoro, 2011).

This is why most civic classrooms still engage in pedagogy which mainly entails knowledge transmission to learners and the teacher, *sensu stricto*, maintains firm control of classroom activities towards achieving his/her goals (Bakhtin, 1981; Gutierrez, 1995; Skidmore, 2000).

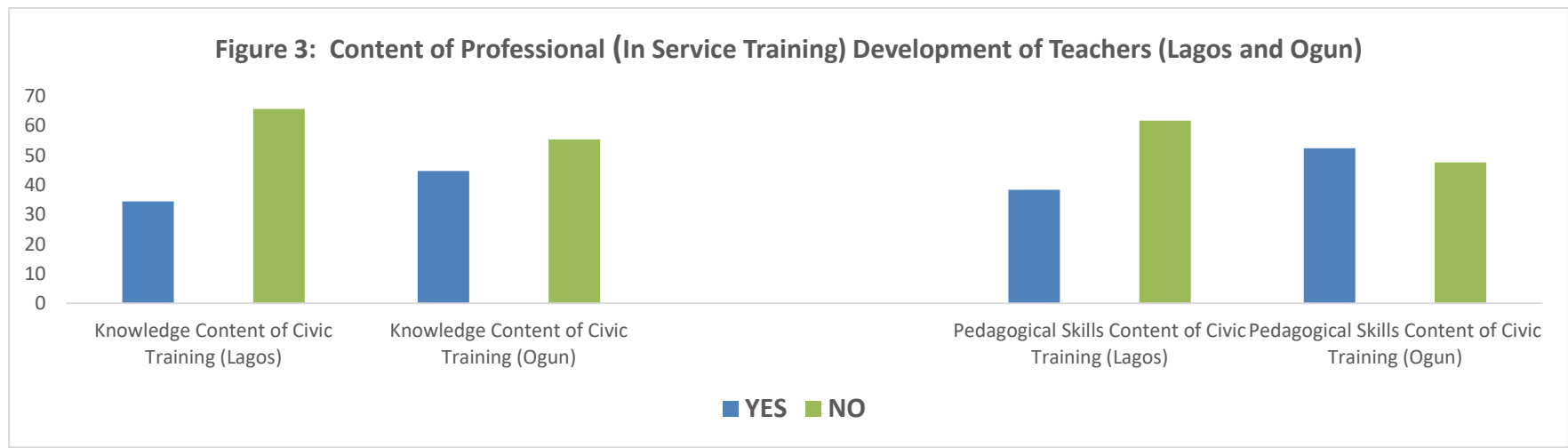
Government needs to understand that values of any classroom learning interaction among learners and teachers as curriculum implementers lies on how well the classroom is structured. To attain this, there is need for professional development (pre/in service training) which creates classroom settings which challenges teacher-centred practices whereby the teacher is a facilitator on the side and not an intellectual on the stage (Galton & Williamson, 1992; Lyle, 2008).

Therefore, the task of bringing about changes in the citizenship development of young learners involves innovative skills and knowledge on the part of the teachers. Regrettably,

negative attitudes of the government towards capacity building was contrary to government required compliance with policy documents of enhancing teachers' general education and pedagogical renewal via constant in-service training among others (Obayan, 2000; MoE, 1999).

Table 12 In Service Training Content Impacts

		Lagos State				Ogun State			
Items		Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
	Knowledge content of civic training	44	34.4	84	65.6	76	44.7	94	55.3
	Pedagogical skills content of civic training	49	38.3	79	61.7	89	52.4	81	47.6



6.3:2 Initiating curriculum insights within a deprived professional environment

Data showed a personal (self-directed) empowerment training programme was initiated by civic teachers to make up for lack of curriculum insights within their deprived professional setting. This initiative evolved due to the notion that “...*most teachers do not access the internet... Most of the topics at the senior level are contemporary issues. Not all of them can be gotten from the textbooks. We need to be well informed*” (Part. 5 Og). Therefore, “*teachers must go beyond ordinary teaching to develop skills to impact... It is the quality of the teacher training that can transform this...*” (Part. 3 Lag). These statements induced civic teachers to resolve to use their personal resources to acquire knowledge and skills in-built into civic curriculum to ensure functionality, professional survival and career development.

Civic teachers realise the importance of acquiring pedagogical skills to be able to grasp and operate the various civic learning processes. They need awareness on different ways of initiating and practicing interactive learning with a view to achieving civic goals. Social constructivism reflective inquiry and transformative learning (discussed in 2.5) should be incorporated into civic curricula. Thus, civic teachers require more knowledge and understanding of collaborative inquiry, critical reflection and dialogic teaching as the hallmark of interactive learning. Overall, teacher educators and pre/in service (civic) teachers require more skills on how to use these different learning theories to develop effective citizenship goals (Wegerif 2010; Lehesvuori,2013).

In realisation of the above, civic teachers organised a pattern of self-training which I called ‘Teacher(s) Initiated Professional (Training) Empowerment’ (TIPE) as a makeshift for prior lack of and irregular in-service training. In this process, civic teachers themselves determine, initiate and design modes of knowledge and skills acquisition within a deprived setting by “... *go(ing) on Net because it’s a new thing*” (Resp. 5 Lag). Another participant said: “...*we...sponsor ourselves through the school*” (Resp. 7 Og). This depicts teachers’ effort to raise civic content knowledge and pedagogy skill for classroom practice by searching for supplementary materials. The goal is for the civic teacher to foster higher order learning activities to probe and clarify issues. This alters the initial practice whereby learners have few chances to explore, examine and analyse issues to enhance their perception (DES, 1992). However, some civic teachers conducted a personal and group training programme discussed below.

6.3:2(a) Group (Initiated) professional development

This involved the activities of a set of civic teachers in a particular school determined to develop their teaching expertise with content knowledge and professional skills. They used information and communication technology to acquire citizenship and civic related information with the intention of self-development and better academic achievements for young learners. To achieve this, teachers constituted a collaborative civic learning group called ‘learning community of practice’. A teacher noted: “*We normally go online to make researches... We... meet regularly... (We are four) ...training ourselves. Nobody...trained us*” (Resp. 3 Lag). Yet another said: “*...in my school, me and colleagues, we...rub minds together* (Resp. 4 Lag.). They operated with a commitment to constantly improve their expertise by challenging each other to make inquiries so as to enhance their professional practice. This training is a very influential demonstration of teachers’ professional empowerment for the purpose of pre-lesson planning and problem solving. It boosts hugely teachers’ efficacy together. The teachers pinpoint aspects of the curriculum requiring more knowledge and skills by enquiring and analysing civic information collected via Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and relating such to aspects of the civic curriculum content in order to construct new knowledge (NSDC, 2001; Karimi, 2011). Discussion by groups of teachers is a way of creating a genuine teaching community based on their own personal inquiry. It is an effective starting point for collaboration, critical reflection and dialogic development. Civic teachers used this opportunity to develop and refine civic content knowledge and teaching practices in collaboration with colleagues (Hopkins, 2002; O’Sullivan, 2004; Day & Sachs, 2005). It is bottom-up teacher training that is required to bring about vital changes in the way teachers interact with their learners. This initiative is against top down which has failed to alter traditional pedagogies and give teachers a level of control of the process of school development (Moyles et al., 2003; Dillon, 1994).

6.3:2(b) Individually (Initiated) Professional Development

Focus group data showed some civic teachers improvise training individually. That is, a civic teacher constantly uses ICT to inquire and construct knowledge on civic and citizenship related issues for academic and pedagogical empowerment (Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2008). In support of this, a participant said: “*the only thing I need is just for me to go to the ICT Centre and brainstorm with the computer to get anything I want*” (Resp. 2 Lag). Another participant said: “*I had to go on Net because it’s a new thing. I kept on*

reading, reading. I tried searching the more” (Resp. 5 Lag). Realising the deprived academic context in which teaching and learning was taking place, these civic teachers perceived self-initiated training as a way of shifting from depending on external expertise to their own personal development. This induced the initiative to identify and be more proactive in their desire to acquire new knowledge, practices, and skills on the new civic curriculum (Sawyer, 2001; Van Eekelen, Vermunt, and Boshuizen Eekelen, 2006). This training transforms teachers’ views, competence, understandings, skills, and commitments, via what they know and are able to do in their classroom practice with regard to classroom civic implementation (O’Sullivan, 2006).

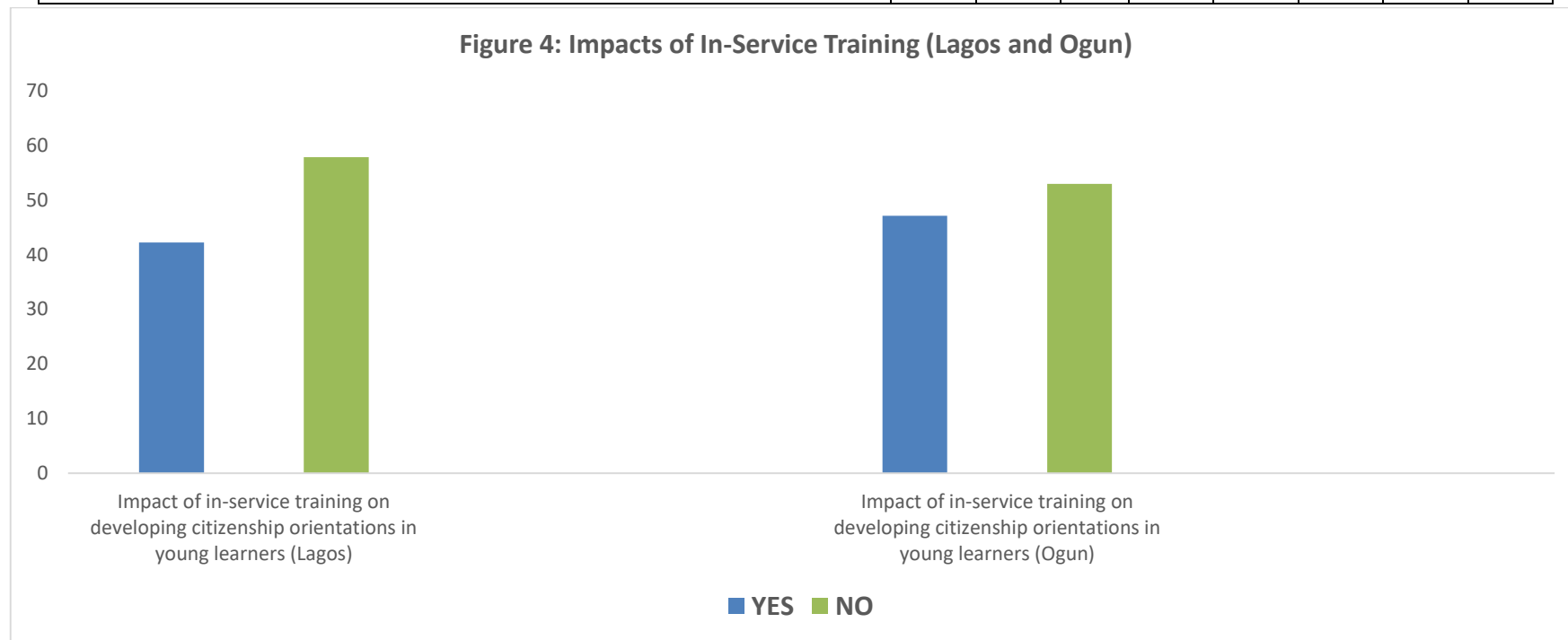
Acquiring civic knowledge content through the use of ICT showed the importance of teachers’ interaction with modern technology as a veritable tool for academic and pedagogic development. ICT was perceived as a form of intervention strategy enabling civic teachers to facilitate their professional development as free agent learners (Preston, 2000; Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2008). From the focus group data, the desire for individually initiated empowerment was due to civic teachers’ need to construct new civic and citizenship knowledge in order to improve subject content knowledge delivery for a better academic performance by young learners’ (Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2008). A participant said: *“I ... say...it gave... more information...an idea of what I should teach...”* (Resp. 10 Og). Another participant claimed: *“...they asked me to...look for...knowledge ... to provide some things to give these students”* (Resp 4 Lag). The teachers showed a desire to acquire more information through individual training which enhanced civic knowledge and teaching skills (Mushayikwa & Lubben, 2008). A participant said: *“...for civic education we...need professional skills.... teach ...civic education”* (Resp. 8 Lag).

6.3:3 Perceived In-Service Training Impact

In-service training could not mediate effective citizenship teaching because not much was done by the government for civic teachers to acquire relevant civic curriculum insights. Both survey 6.3:1c below and focus group data for this study indicated a negative view of in-service training by civic teachers on which might not on its own readily develop effective citizenship in young learners.

Table 13 Impacts of In-Service Training

STAFF DEVELOPMENT (IN SERVICE TRAINING		LAGOS STATE				OGUN STATE			
ITEM		YES	%	NO	%	YES	%	NO	%
Impact of in-service training on developing citizenship orientations in young learners		54	42.2	74	57.8	80	47.1	90	52.9



This was because the training content only provided civic teachers with general knowledge of citizenship and civic issues and topics and experience about the immediate community and not necessarily acquiring new content knowledge. A participant said: *“Majorly... teaching civic education...is based on my general knowledge of...happening around me...”* (Lag. Resp. 9). I expected government to use in-service training as a necessary intervention tool for civic teachers to effectively engage in classroom activities using diverse pedagogical practices rather than using general knowledge to teach civic issues. This showed content knowledge was grossly inadequate and a possible reason most civic teachers failed a test conducted on civic content knowledge which can be attributed to a lack of prior training to provide initial literacy on civic content (Falade, 2011; Salami, 2011). Exposing civic teachers to training should be an imperative measure towards enhancing effective classroom teaching practices (Hardman, 2009). Renewing the content knowledge and pedagogical skills of civic teachers helps to develop the critical thinking, problem-solving and communication skills of young learners (Loucks-Horsley, Hewson, Love, & Stiles, 1998; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996). This literature perspective was restated in policy documents that in-service training could enhance the teaching of civic education to develop critical citizenship.

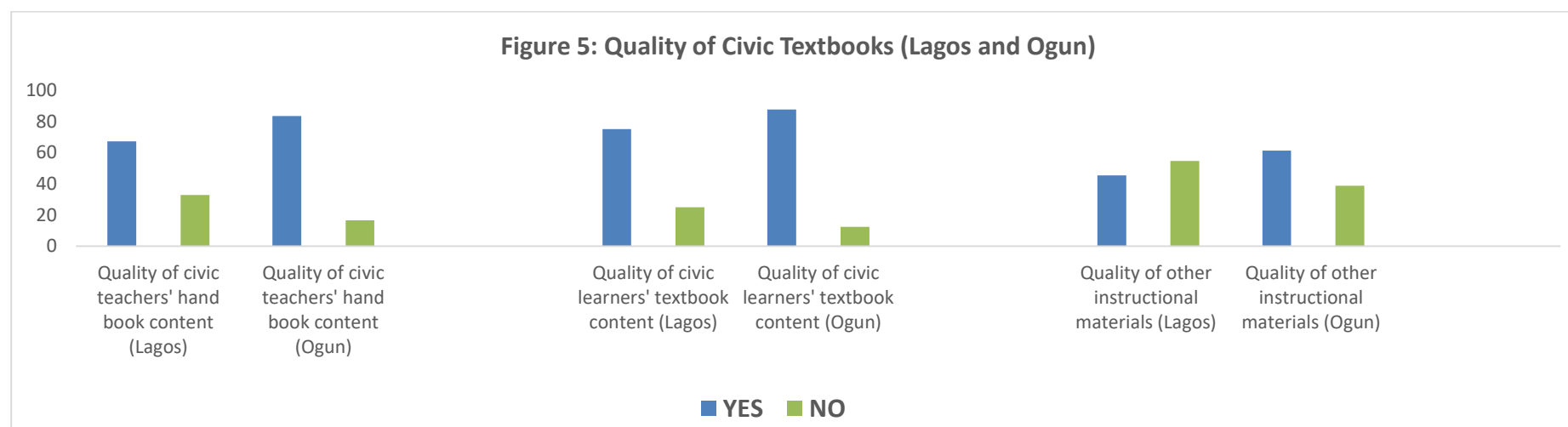
However, other teachers felt the impact of in-service training could be hindered by factors within and outside the school. One such factor was identified by a teacher who said in-service training *“...will help...only worry is the content of the training”* (Resp. 7 Lag). I believe that non-relevance of school civic curriculum content due to frequent review could have adverse effects on in-service training and poor in-depth quality delivery of content by civic teachers. Another factor which adversely affects knowledge and skills acquired in training involved the implementation context. A participant stated: *“Often times, they send us for training and when we return, we are the same. We find them difficult to implement because the classroom environment, most times, would not allow us to use them... We...should look at the environment... the content will be delivered”* (Resp. 7 Lag). This depicted Nigeria's school setting as hostile to learning thus increasing failure rates and casting aspersion on the entire educational reform. Such hostile settings include inadequate and congested classes with teacher-pupil ratios as high as 102 learners per class resulting in lessons taking place outside (Theobald et al, 2007; Ikoya & Onoyase, 2008; Hardman et al, 2008).

However, this is not to view the school as the only barrier to teacher training. A teacher said: *“The school environment is just a minute factor...contributing to the impact...on a child...”* (Resp. 1 Og). This identified other factors beyond the scope of this study could also have a negative impact. Yet, in-service training could impact on effective citizenship given a proper implementation process (discussed in Chapter 3), adequate insight and a conducive setting. Also, such teacher training could show its impact via a gradual process proposed thus: *“the training...will surely have a great impact...little by little, these things (training) will surely have impact...”* (Resp. 2 (Lag)). That is, education reform outcomes do not show instantly; but evolve gradually and with time. Thus a training could be a potent tool to acquire basic knowledge and skills to tackle certain issues recognised thus: *“I view...a national problem...civic education...is an approach to arrest the deterioration of...value of the society”* (Resp. 8 Lag). Another said: *“...a national problem... (to) be corrected. We need to start somewhere...government... (Nigeria) is not good. What of you as a Nigerian? Who are you? What have you been doing...?”* (Resp. 2 Lag). Yet another said: *“Civic education has to do with the total life ... design... to help children live their lives”* (Part.7 Lag). Teachers claimed that civic education could be a veritable tool to solve citizenship issues and via in-service training teachers could be guided on how to address them.

Overall, the school (classroom) is the most suitable means to improve civic learning via in-service training. Thus, such in-service training is initiated to help teachers examine their classroom practices so as to close the gap between theories and classroom practices. Through this, the teacher is able to guide learners to participate in constructive and creative classroom learning to induce and enhance meaning-making and knowledge creation (Anderson, 2002; Hardman, 2009; Lehesvuori, 2013). Such training underpins teachers’ understanding of the different ways of classroom community interaction regarding the training impact on providing opportunities for learners to participate in the learning process (Mercer & Littleton 2007; Gillies & Khan 2008).

Table 14 Quality of civic textbooks

		LAGOS STATE				OGUN STATE			
Items		Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
1	Quality of civic teachers' hand book content of (s)	86	67.2	42	32.8	142	83.5	28	16.5
2	Quality of civic learners' textbook content	96	75.0	32	25.0	149	87.6	21	12.4
3	Quality of other instructional materials	58	45.3	70	54.7	104	61.2	66	38.8



6.4 Mediating learning through Instructional Material:

6.4:1 Quality of civic textbooks

In line with the learning theories (2.5) above, young learners require an opportunity to construct knowledge and acquire skills for problem solving and decision making. Attaining this entails exploring, analysing and dialoguing using teaching aids which the social constructivist calls mediation tools. In line with the above, civic teachers in this study survey data revealed a near consensus that civic textbooks content was relevant and of suitable quality. Also, some focus group teachers agreed with the survey data saying the content of civic textbooks meets the needs and interest of young learners: “... *we were given textbooks...relevant to it*” (Resp. 8 (Og). The other said: “*it is true...contents...were...relevant to...civic education. The textbook...topics ...are fully relevant and correspond with...curriculum...*” (Resp. 10 Og). The social constructivist (2.5:1(a)) above, stated that, classroom civic learning is aided by teaching materials which make learning meaningful. Thus, civic textbooks are social constructivist mediation tools to boost classroom interactive processes. This transform thoughtless actions into higher cognitive engagement for effective civic actualisation.

Though not all the participating teachers supported the above view yet an activity/issue based civic curriculum needs quality textbooks as a mediation tool to induce interactive and participatory learning for quality content delivery. Moreover, this view from the data contradicts literature which showed that civic education textbooks were generally of poor quality, in disrepair, and lacking in relevance both in content and pedagogy (Theobald et al, 2007).

This perceived lack in quality of government recommended textbooks resulted in teachers patronising private authors’ textbooks which were also inconsistent with civic curriculum content. A teacher said: “*The one...government sent to my school... to develop...content is a problem*” (Resp. Resp. 3 Og). Another said: “*... government keep on changing its syllabus all the time. So the textbook is not relevant. Not all the topics are there*” (Resp. 11 Og). Yet a teacher noted: “*To some extent, the textbooks...on ground are not... relevant...not comprehensive. What... teachers... need...is not there*” (Resp. 14 Og). Both government recommended and private authors’ civic textbooks were generally of low quality.

This showed civic textbooks as lacking depth on citizenship issues to be discussed and could be due to frequent changes in the curriculum content as claimed by literature and teachers in this study. The poor quality of civic textbooks could result in low educational quality, poor knowledge construction and applicability. This could hinder learners' active learning and teachers' efficacy in the classroom which, in turn, could impede quality implementation of civic education in schools. The evidence shows, teachers' claim of low quality textbooks agrees with the literature (Garuba, 2003; Kadzera, 2006; Abdo & Semela, 2010; Jotia & Matlale, 2011).

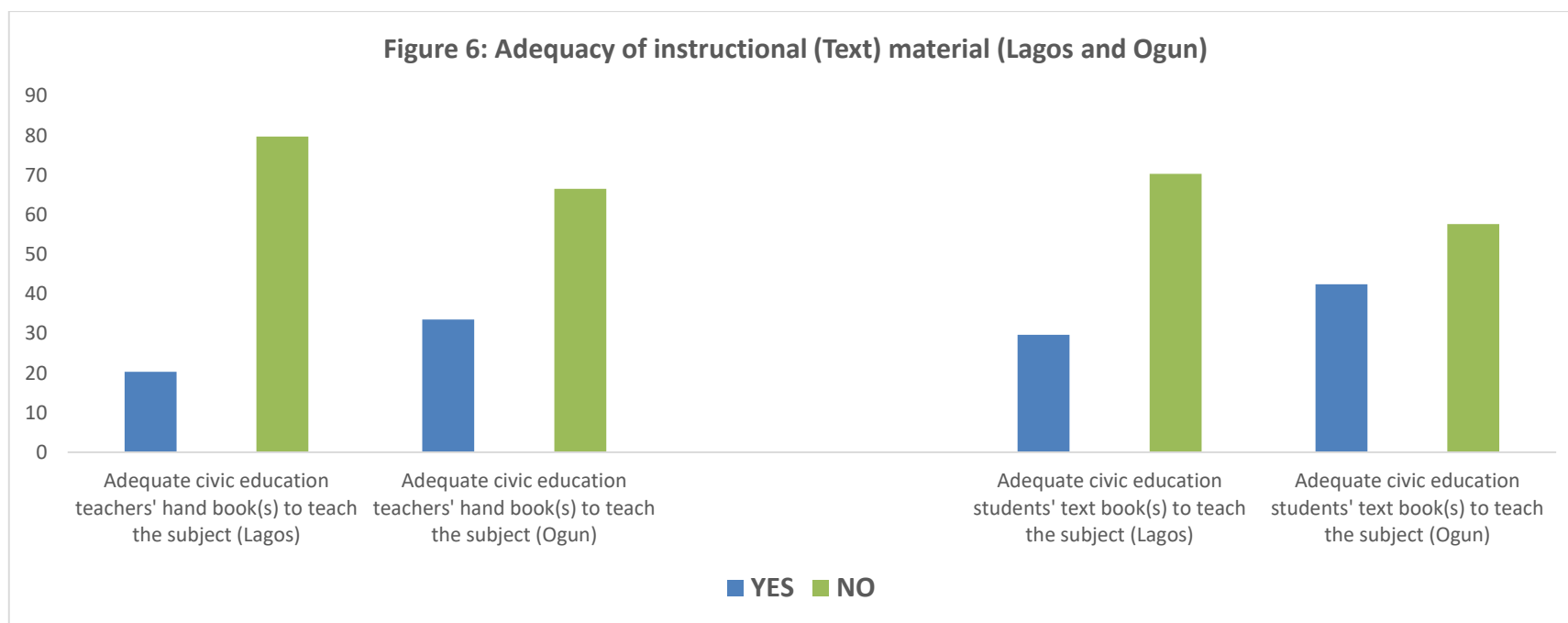
6.4:2 Adequate Civic Textbooks Provisions

Data from this study revealed inadequate textbook provision despite being the most easily available instructional material predominantly used in our schools. Also, the focus group responses revealed no civic handbooks were provided by either federal or state governments for civic teachers. A teacher noted: *"In my...school, there is no... handbook on civic education"* (Resp. 1 Lag.). Another said: *"Presently, there are no teachers' handbooks. And...if there are...I don't think that would be enough to create, impact positively on the teaching of civic education"* (Resp. 11 Ogun). The reflections of civic teachers portrayed the inefficiency of agencies accountable for the civic curriculum implementation. Civic teachers lacking handbooks implies inadequate preparation by teachers which could lead to ineffective teaching in terms of content delivery and pedagogical practices. However, the reason for a deficiency in civic handbooks and textbooks could be due to recurring revisions of approved text consequent on the new curriculum and a poor textbook distribution policy. This inadequacy exposes and questions the government's free text and handbooks supply and equitable distribution policy especially in core subjects which excluded civic education. Underpinning this study data, the World Bank revealed that less than 1% of basic schools have adequate textbooks with extreme disparities between urban schools with 80% of peri-urban schools lacking textbooks. Specifically, 77% of civic learners in both urban and peri-urban schools lack text books. Inadequacy of civic textbooks was further acerbated when the Federal Government initiated an Intervention Fund in 2005 to provide textbooks in 4 subjects but excluded civic education (USAID, 2001; UBEC, 2006; Theobald et al, 2007; Moja, 2008; Hardman et al, 2008; Okobiah, 2011).

Table 15 Adequacy of Civic textbooks

		Lagos State				Ogun State			
Items		Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
3	Adequate civic education teachers' hand book(s) to teach the subject.	26	20.3	102	79.7	57	33.5	113	66.5
4	Adequate civic education students' text book(s) to teach the subject.	38	29.7	90	70	72	42.4	98	57.6

Figure 6: Adequacy of instructional (Text) material (Lagos and Ogun)



The focus group responses reiterated the above as teachers said: “...*I heard it online, that...civic...teachers and...student’s handbook/textbooks have been provided. In fact, we discussed it in... school and...laughed...*” (Resp. 1 Lag). Another noted: “...*no provision of textbooks for students in my...school*” (Resp. 5 Og.). Yet, another said: “...*In my...school, they didn’t provide textbooks for...students*” (Resp. 6 Og). The inadequacy was further confirmed by other teachers saying: “*Yes, government provided textbook to...students. ...textbooks provided... did not go round*” (Resp. 2 Og). Again, a teacher said: “...*the textbooks didn’t go round. They have to share*” (Resp. 7 Og). Inadequate provision of civic teacher and student’s hand and text books, as depicted by teachers could mar the effective actualisation of civic teaching and learning. It is unfortunate that young learners could be starved of basic material like textbooks despite policy document (Chapter 3) articulation that successful implementation of the junior and secondary school civic programme hinges on instructional materials.

However, inadequate provision of books could be due to poor funding of education due to a low budgetary allocation to education. However, such inadequacy, as studies showed, could be a strong basis (among other factors) for undue focus on civic knowledge construction (Heyneman & Jamison, 1980) and subsequent patronisation of private authors by civic teachers.

6.4:3 Perceived alternative access to Civic Textbooks

Data revealed that most schools in this study experienced inadequate provision of civic education text and handbooks. This resulted in civic teachers utilising private authors as an alternative source of acquiring civic content knowledge. This was, in spite of substantial investment by the government on provision of books, which however, was still far below international benchmarks (UBEC, 2006; Theobald et al, 2007). More so that available government civic text and hand books were perceived as being of low quality in content. A teacher said: “⁷*The one... sent to my school... is a problem*” (Resp. 3 Og). Another teacher claimed: “...*the textbooks...are not...relevant*” (Resp. 14 Og). Since recommended textbooks were of low quality and inadequate, civic teachers were still searching for alternative sources of knowledge acquisition through textbooks due to the perception of literature indicating that young learners showed positive ability in subjects where textbooks are adequately provided in schools. Thus, textbook provision

⁷ Already cited

(with other indicators) could be a major cause of school achievement (Fuller & Clarke, 1993; Moulton, 1994). Underpinning the above evidence, a young learner said: “...we were being given...textbooks to study that is how I know that civic education has really helped me know more about the...system of... government. Not because I think so but because of what it has impacted in me, the knowledge...” (Part.6 Lag).

Realising the importance of textbooks expounded the growth of self-publishing authors of civic textbooks in Nigeria’s educational milieu. However, even, the self-published civic textbooks had defects with scanty and incomprehensive content and omission of vital issues and topics as noted by a teacher: “To some extent, the textbooks we have...are not all that...comprehensive” (Resp. 14 Og). Another teacher said: “the contents are relevant...There is no definition of civic education, introduction, there is none” (Resp. 9 Og). Another teacher claimed: “...the textbooks... content...very scanty and...are repetition (Resp. 12 Og). From the teachers’ responses, these textbooks have diverse deficiencies which could be due to regular revision of subject syllabus and curriculum content which invariably makes existing textbooks outdated thus hindering students’ learning and teachers’ effectiveness. Moreover, the unregulated nature of this industry in Nigeria allowed private authors to publish without proper supervision before getting to schools. Noncompliance to rules on the content quality of textbooks showed politics of interests on the part of government officials and the subject teachers. Apple (1993, 2000) perceived the politics of textbooks as involving those who determine school curriculum content as depicted in the text, however the politics and intrigues are peculiar to each country. In Nigeria, textbook politics involved those publishers lobbying and influencing government officials and subject teachers to promote textbooks despite irrelevant and low quality and standards of content, yet they were recommended for schools by government officials. Also, other self-publishing writers approach subject teachers to help promote books outside the approved list. A teacher said: “I have been able to lay my hands on his book ... But the man...has done a lot of books...am not promoting him... But his book is very, very ...” (Resp. 7 Lag). Another teacher said: “...I use to show... them that this is my own textbook. Most...teachers use to correct me, don’t... introduce any textbooks to them” (Resp. 5 Og). This showed that as publishers mount pressures on government officials such pressures were similarly mounted on subject teachers.

6.4:4 Perceived provision of other instructional Materials

Availability and utilisation of other relevant instructional materials for civic education teaching in schools, as revealed in this study, were trivial and inadequate. This inadequacy, especially in Lagos, might be due to the high cost of producing these materials in a metropolitan and cosmopolitan state with high living costs. Also, the focus group data confirmed the inadequate provision of other materials. A teacher said: “*There is ...not enough other...materials. ...the school bought some...we...don’t have enough...materials...*” (Resp.1 Og). Another teacher said: “*So, when I...asked for...materials, they asked me to...look for it myself...I should...provide some things...*” (Resp. 4 Lag). This could be due to an increase in school enrolment leading to converting hitherto available resource rooms into classrooms.

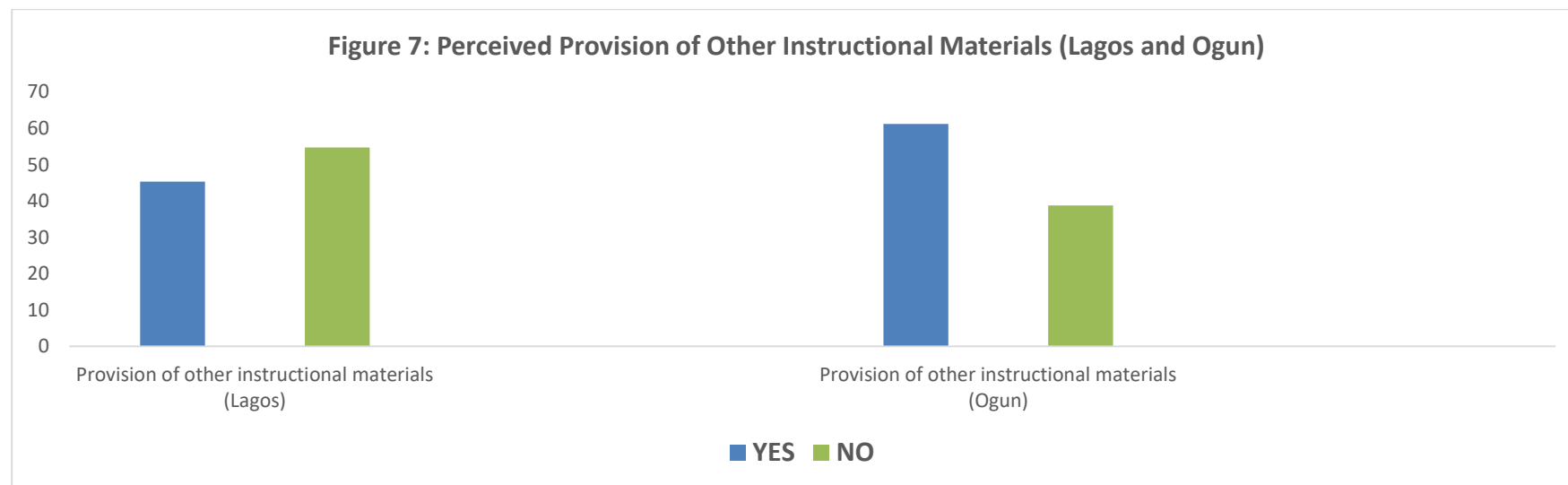
Though the curriculum encouraged each civic teacher to enrich teaching and learning with local materials, the lack of funding could hinder such improvisation. Despite this, civic teachers in this study attempted to improvise these resources. A teacher claimed: “*...I improvise sometimes; I go on Net print a diagram... (on) the topic*” (Resp. 5 Lag). Another said: “*when I...have to teach...voting...procedures so I lay my hands on these posters used by INEC during the voting processes I brought it...to class and showed...students*” (Resp. 6 Lag). The reflection of the teachers revealed that provision and utilisation of other instructional materials were deficient in the teaching of citizenship related issues in most schools in this study.

This means materials like charts, diagrams, posters, pictures, maps, audio/video tape recorders which could be used to practicalise civic content to enhance classroom interaction and active participation were absent (Garuba (2003; Ogbondah, 2008; Okobiah, 2011).

In view of this, civic teachers revealed their creativity and initiative through developing alternative materials within the immediate locality. Local materials were adapted to perform new roles depicting particular civic issue(s). These exposed learners to diverse learning experiences either individually or in groups to enhance civic content implementation. On improvisation a young learner said: “*Provide...coat of arm...map of Nigeria...national flag...identity cards*” (Part. 6 Lag). Another young learner noted: “*Our teachers...brought...materials. When we were taught constitution, he brought Nigeria... 1999 Constitution. In fact, I did not know what the constitution looked like but when he brought it, I know how it looked like*” (Part. 7 Og).

Table 16 Perceived provision of other instructional Materials

s/n	Items	Lagos State				Ogun State			
		Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
5	Provision of other instructional materials	58	45.3	70	54.7	104	61.2	66	38.8



Having these materials provided by the teachers helps to stimulate and reinforce classroom interactions, efficiency and enrich the quality of civic lessons. A civic teacher said: “...usage of instructional materials...complement the teaching and imparting of civic education... it made the learning of the subject relatively permanent. ...” (Part. 6 Og). However, I believe that a deficit in teaching aids to mediate civic content is a common experience in developing countries like Malawi and Pakistan (Bolick et al, 2003; Kadzera, 2006; Abdo & Semela, 2010; Jotia & Matlale, 2011). Absence of, or deficiency in instructional material as mediation tools to underpin civic learning implies that learners are denied opportunity to develop problem solving skills. Also, learners lack relevant tools to improve learning experiences, basic competence and dispositions for self-directed learning. Civic learning becomes unidirectional and has passive knowledge input, lacking interaction among learners to co-construct civic knowledge (Stetsenko & Arievitch, 1997; Kao, 2010). These tools rely on social interactions and joint activities like dialogue among civic learners (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

6.5 Conclusion

Implementation of the new civic reform within the school system had challenges involving inadequate recruitment of civic education teachers, lack of or irregular in-service training and inadequate provision of text and non-text instructional materials. However, various efforts to alleviate these problems resulted in personnel improvisation which involved drafting in teachers from either related or unrelated subjects to teach civic education which led to ineffective teaching. Also, civic teachers adopted individual or group initiated training development to renew their content knowledge and pedagogical skills. Inadequate civic hand and text books and poor content quality resulted in civic teachers patronising self-publishing authors who, due to frequent reviews of the civic curriculum, produced textbooks lacking in-depth information. Also, due to lack of funding, teachers were unable to adequately produce and use other instructional materials for classroom teaching of civic education. The issues of school resources articulated above makes it difficult to assume the development of effective citizenship in learners. Yet, it is vital to know whether pedagogical classroom practices discussed in the next chapter make up for inadequate school resources.

Chapter 7

Classroom Pedagogical Practices Impacts

7.0 Introduction

In Chapter 6, I found the implementation process regarding school resources inadequate resulting in improvising personnel, training and teaching aids. However, the civic mission of developing effective citizenship through an issue/activity based civic curriculum requires integrating school resources with hands-on (active) pedagogical practices to achieve programme (civic) intents. As posited in 2.5:1, 2.5:2 and 2.5:3, civic education pedagogy requires social constructivist, transformative and reflective inquiry (interactive/participatory) learning theories and practices to engage young learners in civic learning. But, these theories can manifest and/or be used to involve young learners via different pedagogical styles in the classroom civic implementation. Yet, classroom manifestation of these interactive learning theories is via pedagogical components like group discussion, open classroom discussion, dramatisation, role play and simulation. As a teacher educator and researcher, I know via research evidence that these (pedagogical) components of the above learning theories can help learners to experience democratic practices in the school system. Also, these components can mediate and enrich classroom civic content actualisation; inducing a constructive outlook towards future participation in the larger society (Osler & Starkey 2006; Covell et al, 2008; Ollas, 2013).

Despite the above submission, consensus among teacher development studies/literature alluded to a possible lacuna (gap) between classroom realities, interactive learning theories and development of social interaction. This can be due to predetermined and encumbered civic curriculum objectives and content which barred the scope of learners' freedom of classroom discussion. Also, teachers' illiberalism depicts their strong cultural and social perspective of knowledge as fixed, objective and detached from the learner. As such, teachers perceived their statutory role to be knowledge transmitters to learners via didactic pedagogies like rote-learning techniques (Sifuna & Kaime, 2007; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010). However, such illiberalism and the role of teachers as knowledge transmitters also relate to the wider political and cultural climate which restricts the activities and choices available to teachers. Thus, it is not a matter of choice by individual civic teachers as to whether or not they apply the pedagogies discussed in this study. Thus,

this study discusses the impacts of civic teachers' classroom implementation of these pedagogical indices on learners.

Though the use of some pedagogical indices discussed in sections 2.5 and 3.4 revealed positive impacts, others did not due to certain constraints which indeed, are a matter of perception. Thus, discussing the findings in relation to literature entails dividing the chapter into sections. Section 7.1 discusses, in relation to literature, whether an open classroom climate, leading discussions and dramatisation, (as components of active pedagogies in 2.5 above) were used and their impacts based on the survey and focus groups data. Section 7.2, indicates the inability of civic teachers to use (practice) these pedagogical indices (group classroom presentations, role play and simulations) due to certain constraints which involve large class sizes and unconducive classroom settings among others. This finding relates to literature (3.4:1) on the use of traditional (teacher) based pedagogies. In 7.3, data shows significant differences in the use of these active pedagogies in respect of participants' civic teachers and learners and school locations. However, gender and the teachers' years of teaching experience are insignificant determinants of the use of these active pedagogies.

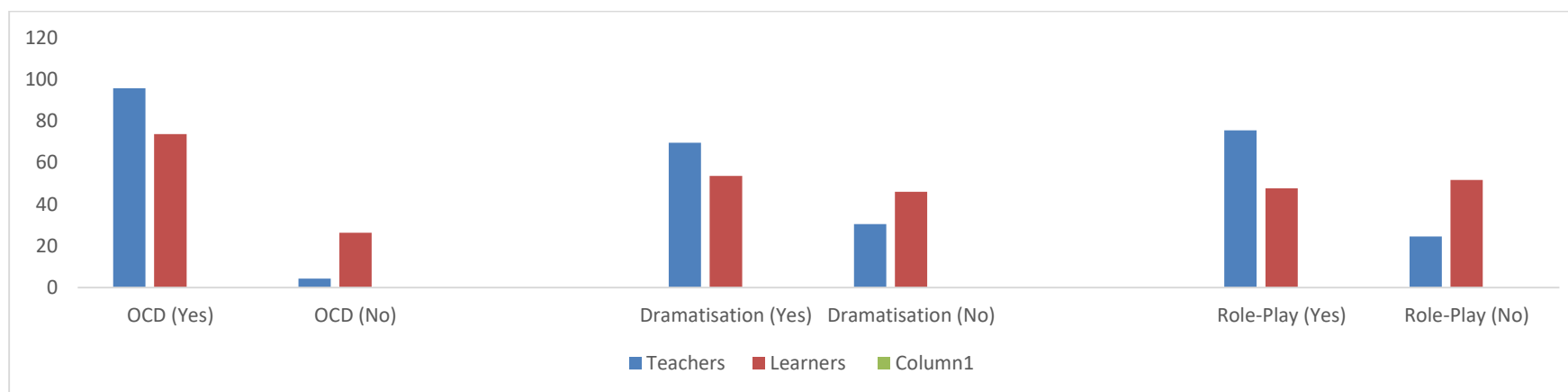
7.1. Perceived Civic Education Classroom Interactive Pedagogical Practices

Studies agree with policy documents (3.4:3) that an activity/issue based civic curriculum requires using interactive pedagogies (2.5) because learners construct knowledge by engaging in live classroom democratic experiential processes. This study favours using these civic pedagogical practices because it mediates discourse of resonant and complex citizenship issues by young learners. Consistent with this, data showed pedagogical components like open classroom, simulation, leading discussion and dramatisation are popular and acceptable pedagogies. Their classroom practice reveals constructive impacts in terms of collaboration among learners and teachers to dialogue on citizenship issues. As argued (2.5:3) above, such collaboration (team work) entails learners exploring, analysing and discussing citizenship issues with intent to solve problems and make decisions. Common to the active pedagogies mentioned (2.5) above is the civic teacher's roles as guidance and facilitator of citizenship knowledge construction instead of coercing a set of knowledge and skills into learners.

Table 17 Showing Acceptable and Popular Active Classroom Pedagogies

State		Lagos/Ogun States			
Response Indicators		Percent (%) (No)		Percent (%) (Yes)	
Participants		Teachers	Learners	Teachers	Learners
Items					
1	Operating open classroom discussion on citizenship issues during civic lessons	4.3	26.3	95.7	73.7
2	Adoption of dramatisation of citizenship issues during civic lesson	30.5	46.0	69.5	53.6
3	Adoption of role plays on citizenship issues during civic lesson	24.5	51.7	75.5	47.6

Figure 1 Acceptable and Popular Active Classroom Pedagogies



As stated in the literature, a constructive/transformational classroom perceived both teacher and learners as active participants in an open classroom climate in which discussion of content enhances their skills, knowledge and disposition as effective critical citizens (Barr, 1977; Giroux, 1980).

7.1:1 Perceived Impact of Open Classroom Discussion as a Pedagogical Tool

Effective citizenship developing requires open classroom discussion which embraces a free climate for young learners to participate in classroom discourse individually or via group presentation. In line with this, survey data alluded to civic classrooms open for dialogic interaction in the two states as depicted in Table 17 above. For this study, open classroom discussion entails young learners' active interactions through dialogue during civic classroom learning. Such dialogic interaction entails a free classroom talk for learners to state, observe, explain, analyse, explore, ask questions and also reflect on civic issues emerging in the lessons individually or collaboratively via group discourse (Alexander 2006; Mercer, Dawes & Staarman 2009).

As stated (2.5:1(a) i & ii) above, learners and teachers (as a more knowledgeable person) engage in collaborative classroom (interactive) discourse and express views on citizenship issues to foster an atmosphere via which learners construe their world. Learners derive creativity and initiative via participation leading to civic knowledge construction (Stetsenko & Arieviditch, 1997; Palincsar, 1998; Wells, 1999; Larson, 2000; Wendy, 2003)

The survey was underpinned by focus group data revealing the use of open classroom discourse as stated by a teacher: “...allow them to express their views... you hear more and you also learn from them”. He further said: ‘when...teaching electoral malpractices, there are certain things I do not know, but...allow(ing) them come and hear what they are saying’ (Resp. 1 Lagos). In support of this, a learner said: “the more you express your view, the more you learn more from others” (Resp. 4 Lag). From the participants' reflection, young learners had the opportunity to present, explore, explain and question ideas based on their prior experience of citizenship (electoral) issues within their milieu. In line with social constructivist and transformational learning (2.5) above, civic learners engage in constructive meaning-making based on the opportunity to participate. Engaging in classroom dialogic interaction to explore, analyse and question citizenship issues helps

learners transform their own thinking since participants are exposed to new learning experiences (Evans 2006b; Olla, 2013).

Giving young learners the opportunities to actively engage in classroom dialogues on current citizenship issues reinforces citizenship learning outcomes as asserted by a young learner saying open classroom discussion offers: *'the ability to freely talk without being ashamed or afraid'* (resp. 3 Lag). This participant reflects on the chance for learners to regulate and control their learning guided by the teacher. Learners need to initiate issues and contribute to shaping the discussion of such. This underlines the importance of social learning in which teacher-learner and learner-learner collaborative (dialogic) activities guide their co-construction of civic knowledge. This classroom interaction reflects the creativity given by transformative, social constructivist learning theories (2.5) to equip learners with skills to develop rational and reflective thinking. These learning theories are used to guide learners clarify knowledge constructed for effective application in order to develop effective citizenship (Biesta & Miedema, 2002; Olla, 2013). For Nigerian learners to construct knowledge, develop dispositions and acquire skills required to critically examine their own citizenship ideas in relation to that of others through reflective inquiry (2.5:3) (Hans 2006; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010; Olla, 2013).

From the above participants' reflections, learners exercise their right to explore their views and then, linked to citizenship issues, the teacher mediates the development of such citizenship concepts as a way of engaging in transformative and social constructivism pedagogies. This fosters critical deliberation of diverse citizenship issues confronting the democratic process as discussed in Chapter 5. This could guide them to develop their dispositions and skills to be active participants in the wider community. Thus the need to develop teachers' skills to intensify a transformative and social constructivist classroom climate in order to prepare and improve young learners' debating skills for future active engagement is imperative.

The data showed learners-teacher interactive engagement in classroom civic learning experience depicting an open classroom climate which enables young learners to gain first-hand experience of what democratic practice entails within the school setting. Young learners feel more engaged in school/classroom and are thus induced to learn as the findings depicted in Chapter 5. Consistent with the findings in Chapter 5, such open classrooms could possibly be responsible for young learners' high conceptual insights by

increasing civic knowledge construction and content recall. Also, it could raise their sense of civic duty which reinforces developing democratic dispositions and involvement in political citizenship activities in and out of school. It could enhance their ability to inquire, think freely and critically to make up their minds about citizenship issues (Kerr, 2005; Hahn, 1996; Aull, 1998). Evidently, this finding reflects the import of collaborative learning stressed by the social constructivist as well as applicable to transformative and reflective inquiry learning (2.5) above. These learning pedagogies, in which both the teacher and learners are active participants in the classroom learning, aid peer-to-peer interactions and collaborative inquiry which promote problem solving opportunities and the need for critical reflection when making decision (Ollas, 2013). Through these pedagogies, discussion of content enhances their competences as effective critical citizens (Barr, 1977; Giroux, 1980).

7.1:2 Perceived Impact of Dramatisation as a Pedagogical Tool

Apart from open classroom, this study showed dramatisation as another component of learning (theories) pedagogies, discussed (2.5) above, which impacted on civic content learning. Survey data showed most teachers engaged young learners actively in classroom teaching via dramatising. Also, focus group data revealed the impacts of dramatisation from the perspectives of the majority of young learners, typified by this response: “...*it’s not everybody that learns the same way. It depends on how you reason. If you reason slowly, dramatizing...will be better. ... I like people to dramatize...*” (Part. 10 Og). Another observed: “...*without dramatizing, we would not understand what they are trying to tell us. So they...dramatize it...so ...we... understand. They... bring it to our level so we can know...what they... teach us*” (Resp. 5 Lag). From the young learners’ reflections, dramatisation in the civic classroom learning induces transformative and reflective inquiry learning. This is due to emphasis and interest in individual differences of young learners hitherto isolated in civic classroom learning. Engaging in acting may nurture a better grasp of citizenship issues and develop confidence and self-esteem (Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Falade, 2007; Ogundare, 2010). Converting citizenship issues into acting thus makes learning more interactive, collaborative, practical, and promotes critical thinking. As stated above, young learners are empowered to take control of their own learning experience through interactions with peers and teachers, who are more knowledgeable thus acting as facilitators. This vitiates the power relations commonly experienced by learners since teachers and pupils work as a team to build on their own

and each other's knowledge and ideas to develop coherent thinking (Alexander, 2001; Lyle, 2008; Ollas, 2013). Therefore, dramatisation inbuilt in these learning theories induces interactive and participatory classroom activities which transform learners' imagination, creativity, and character to make learning permanent (Oyetade, 2003; Akinbote et al, 2004; Ogundare, 2010).

7.1:3 Perceived Impact of Game Simulation as a Pedagogical Tool

This section examines data on simulation game impacts in the implementation process of civic education. Also, the beneficial and adverse effects of this interactive learning component in the civic classroom, in this study's context, are discussed. However, survey data revealed the majority of young learners disagreed with most teachers on the practice of game simulation for civic classroom teaching and learning. However, focus group data revealed this interactive learning component has beneficial impacts on civic classroom learning.

For this study, game simulation involves classroom activities capable of reflecting and imitating real-life citizenship issues such as past events in a way that young learners learn and appreciate more about such issues. (Mansaray, 1996; Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Ogundare, 2010; Bodrova & Leong, 2012; Gauvain, 2008). Unlike in the developed countries where simulation games are mostly technological based using internet, some of the Nigerian simulation games are traditionally designed. Underpinning this, a teacher said: “...I believe... a game like “Ayo” wherein the rules of the game...can help in teaching students about election contest. How citizens...should...accept defeat in good faith for development of democracy in our society” (Resp. 5). The response shows that virtues of probity, honesty, integrity and fair play should be instilled in our young learners by the school to engage actively in diverse sectors of our socio-political lives as a nation. For instance, these virtues are much required in our electoral system which hardly reflects any fair play among political actors (Gboyega & Aliyu, 1989; Aroge, 2012).

Also, a teacher noted that “...games...like... scrabble. I think...will help the students... come across new words and definitely...know their meanings...” (Resp. 2). From this, game simulation like Scrabble could enhance inquiry skills through which young learners construct and have better insights of new knowledge for critical thinking, problem solving, decision-making and develop personal independence advocated by liberals in 3.4:2.

From the above reflections on both data, developing knowledge, dispositions (virtues of probity) and skills (inquiry skills) via simulation games entails activities that mediate dialogic interactions among learners in the civic classroom. In the course of the classroom lesson the game becomes an engaging tool to generate dialogue (talk) among learners about the citizenship issues the game was created for. When playing this game, learners engage in discourse and responses within the civic education classroom (Ollas, 2013).

From the social constructivist perspective (2.5:1), knowledge, dispositions and skills involving virtues stated above are constructed via social interactions and consensus. In the course of playing the game learners are offered the chance to express their views, thus creating common insights into the need for the above virtues and gradually transforming into dispositions (Doolittle & Hicks, 2003; Williams & Chinn, 2009). Such knowledge and the skills acquired induce discovery of new citizenship experiences via exploration, analysis and discussion of such game (see 2.5:3).

This study avowed that increasing learners' participation in game simulation requires new attitudes on the use of this interactive learning component as a pedagogical tool for learning. Thus, the need for educational (curriculum) reforms which focus more on game simulation among other interactive learning components. Also, learners should be involved in the games simulation tools preparation as a way of aiding learning experience and belief to develop their skills, knowledge and understanding within the civic classroom (Resnick 2002; Ollas, 2013).

However, a major adverse effect from Nigerian and international literature/studies on the use of game simulation showed that learners' focus on the competitiveness of this pedagogy often overshadows major traits of social constructivist and transformative learning theories which involve developing learners' critical thinking and social collaborative inquiry skills (Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Aroge, 2012; Ollas, 2013).

From the civic teachers' submissions, there are extant administrative setbacks which dissuade the teacher from integrating game simulation into their classroom pedagogy. Absence of resources such as materials and funding expected by the civic teachers to practise game simulation in the classroom constitutes a major issue. However, preliminary preparation to integrate the resources as a mediation tool involves substantial amount of time (Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Selwyn 2007; Ogundare, 2010; Ollas, 2013).

Also, games like Scrabble go with social status which could be complex for young learners, especially for those in rural locations to practise (Olanrewaju, 1999; Akintunde, 2004; Falade, 2007). Also, game simulation often omits participating learners' voice because the interaction taking place involves the teacher dictating with trivial learners' interaction. Also, 2.5:3 suggests that inadequate training of teachers on class organisation, management and arrangements consistent with social constructivist and transformative learning theories is a barrier to using this teaching style (Akinbote et al, 2004; Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Ogundare, 2010).

Overall, these active pedagogies could actualise classroom civic content learning as reiterated by a civic teacher: "*I... so much believe...these methods could go a long way in the achievement of the...educational content of civic education*" (Part.6 Og.). From both participants and literature (3.4:2) perspectives, teachers were convinced of the positive impacts of these active pedagogies, however, implementation barriers make these pedagogies, (discussed below), impracticable and so the easy practice involving knowledge transmission by rote learning to induce memorising civic concepts is adopted (Ango et al, 2003; Hardman et al, 2008; Akyeampong et al, 2009).

Integrating open classroom climate, dramatisation and game simulation pedagogies (inbuilt into the interactive learning theories) into the civic classroom implementation process was to engage young learners in the learning process. Employing these inbuilt pedagogies proved that the civic education curriculum is meant to be a transformative citizenship document to mediate life experience as earlier argued above. Based on these component pedagogies young learners acquired genuine citizenship experience due to the opportunity to participate in the classroom knowledge construction process. These component pedagogies reflect active participation of learners via the open classroom, dramatisation and simulation as stated by the participant teachers and their learners also, in the focus groups discussions to collect their views as study participants (Veale 2005; Gauntlett & Holzworth 2006; Ollas, 2013). A key tenet behind reflective inquiry, social constructivist and transformative learning as interactive/participatory teachings entails giving learners the chance to engage in collaborative inquiry, critical reflection and dialogic interaction to stimulate learners' knowledge construction.

7.2 Perceived impracticability of interactive classroom pedagogical tools

Findings from this study (7.1) above reveal that using certain active pedagogies could have positive impacts on civic content classroom teaching. However, the introduction section of this chapter alludes to the consensus among teacher development studies/literature on the gap between classroom learning experiences, interactive learning theories and development of social interaction. I argued that this is due to predetermined and encumbered civic curriculum objectives and content which barred the scope of learners' freedom of classroom collaborative inquiry, critical reflection and dialogic interaction. This is why literature (2.5:3) finds it difficult to ascertain the extent of using these learning pedagogies in the Nigerian civic classroom context. In other words, can one ascertain whether all the learning theories (2.5) are applicable in the Nigerian civic classroom context.

Accordingly, data in this section shows that pedagogical (components) tools like leading discussion, role-play and group (presentations) discussion are impracticable for civic teachers due to the teacher's dominance of classroom discussions along with other classroom constraints which I argue are more cultural instead of a practical issue.

7.2:1 Civic Teachers directed (Leading) classroom discussion

Contrary to claims of an open classroom climate involving teacher-learners exchange of ideas above, data showed the direction of such classroom discourse, as shown by participants, is teacher-directed learning. A teacher said: "*We treated poverty, I used my...academic knowledge to analyse...poverty rate in Nigeria and I also, told them how they can come out of poverty... I gave them some statistics*" (Resp. 6). Another teacher noted: "*I discussed... the issue of insecurity. I allowed students to respond before I now made corrections*" (7 Og). This finding reflects civic teachers firmly in control of the classroom teaching and learning activities which exclude genuine or authentic dialogic exchanges. There is no effort or concern for collaborative meaning construction from the learners' perspectives. In other words, civic teachers engaged in monologic pedagogy in which young learners are hardly afforded the chance to engage in substantial conversation on the facts in issues among themselves since the classroom teaching is geared towards achieving the teacher's goal (Bakhtin, 1981; Skidmore, 2000).

As stated in literature (3.4) above findings depict a pedagogy which focuses on the domain of qualification-whereby young learners acquired knowledge, skills, values and

dispositions. Also, the teachers' dominance through lecturing advances the socialisation (domain) of learners, that is, education which makes learners part of the existing ethno-nationalistic citizenship traditions and ways of doing things. Also, it helps inculcate and reinforce docility and passivity in relation to authoritarianism (Biesta, 2013).

Young learners' free expression was restricted thus encumbering critical analysis of the issues to help them make up their minds. This finding is consistent with literature (3.4) showing that monologic/didactic pedagogy is a common classroom instructional practice in the pre and post education reforms (including civic education) in Nigeria. For this study, it entails discourse centred on the civic teachers initiating questions and also explanation while young learners' reply is based on factual transmitted knowledge. In this pedagogy, young learners lacked the chance to participate in practical conversation regarding citizenship issues (Hardman et al, 2008; Akyeampong et al, 2009; Hardman & Abd-kadir, 2010). However, evidence of teacher centred pedagogy is further explored through indices like leading discussion and classroom group presentation and discussions.

7.2:1(a) Who leads Classroom Discussion (LCD)?

There is often a misconception on open classroom (discussions) climate and teacher-led recitation. In this study, data from the survey and focus group reveal civic teachers initiated discussion on citizenship issues in civic classroom teaching and learning. When the teacher expressed views, young learners were hardly afforded the chance to engage in probing such issues or discussions from diverse perceptions.

Most (8) focus group participants/teachers reiterated leading discussions while just one (1) disagreed with the approach. A teacher narrated: "...I was in...class taking integrity. ...I asked them to start naming people of integrity (Resp. 2 (Lag.)). Another participant said:" ...I do.... on population ...when I was handling this topic, based on my practical experience...I was able to educate the students... (Resp. 5 (Og)). This depicts a classroom teaching focusing on the teacher suppressing dialogic interactions involving the learners' perceptions on integrity and population. This lacks space for collaborative inquiry and critical reflection (as the hallmark of social constructivist, transformative and reflective inquiry) between learners which challenges the uneven and distorted power relations constructed by teacher-led teaching.

In line with literature (3.4:1) civic teachers regularly engage in recitation teaching pattern which provides the basis for transmission of pre-packaged knowledge through direct instruction to regulate and control classroom activities. This stresses the imbalance between teachers and the taught as well as the epistemological dominance of the teacher. The goal is to promote recall of citizenship issues or prompt learners to provide answers from hints in the question due to the accumulation of knowledge arising from the teacher questions. Teachers engaged in initiating issues which required succinct responses from young learners and follow-up involving civic teacher's feedback. The reflection of data in this study confirmed extant literature (3.4) which showed teacher-led discussion was most popular in social studies and civic education classes (Lyle, 2008; Hardman et al, 2008; Akyeampong et al, 2009; Hardman & Abd-kadir, 2010).

According to Ogundare, (2010) teacher led discussion, in an issue/activity-based civic curriculum only leads to young learners recalling facts earlier memorised instead of expressing their own perceptions of the issues (3.4:1). This hinders higher-order intellectual interactions since learning to recall based on questions only focuses on low cognitive growth. As the study literature (2.5:3) pointed out, learners are denied the chance to explore, analyse and discuss citizenship issues with intent to solve problems and make decisions. In consonance with the above literature a participant/teacher says that: *"...a good number of them (young learners) are not smart enough to key into where you are leading them to". The participant went further: "we hardly get students.....do it... it's almost a problem. They won't be able to do it well" (Part. 1 Lag)*. This response reflected the views of most teachers on young learners to justify their classroom monologic teaching via leading questions. This is due to young learners' lacking the opportunity to engage in classroom interactive activities entailing examining and questioning issues for constructive meaning-making. Classroom emphasis has been on factual recall of civic issues instead of promoting higher order interactions involving reasoning. Even the civic curriculum activities component prompt teachers to ask leading questions. This could hinder learners' thinking skills which require collective discourse via speaking and listening. Therefore, civic teachers need to assume their mediation responsibility of helping young learners attain a higher cognitive development (Corson, 1988; Myhill & Fisher, 2005).

According to literature (3.4:2), the teacher could be leading discussions due to a lack of requisite skills (relevant training, teaching aids or teachers' handbooks inter alia), by sizable number of teachers, to teach an issue/activity-based civic curriculum for effective

classroom implementation process. This reflects literature (3.2:3b) above, which argued that teachers hardly participated in any training which would acquaint them with the new civic curriculum despite being sole implementers of the civic content (Thaman, 1988; Schnidt & Pramwat, 2006; Oloruntegbe, 2011). As literature (3.2:3b) stated above, the Nigerian government has done little to sensitise the citizens about diverse curricula programmes. Lack of awareness and non-involvement of stakeholders in civic curriculum planning and design means denying stakeholders the use of active civic pedagogy which aligns knowledge transmission with acquiring discussion skills by learners to develop effective citizenship (Eminue, 2005).

Also, the teacher leading discussions underlines more curriculum content instead of engaging in participatory or interactive learning. A participant teacher said: *"I don't ...do that and my reason is...we have...syllabus... scheme of work. ...And...deviating from what...to treat for that week and...discussing about...political issues in the country and...left out the topic...to teach... All they want...is writing of...note...in the class and so on* (Resp. 5 (Og)). The civic teacher's reflection on paucity of interactive learning depicts the influence of a National Civic Curriculum on civic teachers' statutory duties. Nigerian teachers are mandated to prioritise civic curriculum coverage at the expense of hands-on classroom engagement. Consequently, this participant and others are driven by pre-determined and overloaded curriculum objectives, content and limited periods on the timetables. Civic teachers are under obligation to implement the civic curriculum based on predefined goals and content which involve curriculum content coverage via knowledge transmission. That is, teachers struggle with how interactive learning can become a regular aspect of classroom teaching practice. In this instance, the civic teacher's unilateral control of the classroom implementation process makes learning a passive activity requiring feeding young learners with facts. This leads to civic classroom teaching and learning becoming a boring process as well as denying creativity, higher perceptions of citizenship issues and preparation to function effectively in the larger society. Rigid adherence to curriculum coverage could be due to the intense environmental impacts of didactic teaching methods on classroom teaching/learning objectives (Cheng-man Lau, 2001; Kerr et al, 2002; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010). This rigidity denies learners opportunities to identify their goals, interests, abilities, and resources to inquire into citizenship issues. I inferred from the literature (2.5) that learners will be unable to acquire the ability to explore, analyse, solve problems and make decisions as active constructors (instead of mere recipients) of knowledge. Apart from

leading discussions, a civic teacher could evolve other discussion formats like classroom group discussions. As expressly stated in the curriculum that civic teachers are to lead classroom activities means learners are to engage in restricted classroom learning. Limited discourse and task assignment are the yardstick to measure quality of classroom civic learning. Evidently, civic teaching entails more pre-determined, narrow, precise and academic descriptions of issues in the school/classroom. The above problem is compounded considering the disparity in resource distributions (discussed in Chapter 6) and the exercise of power in schools. Teachers are required to determine the quality of learner's classroom interactive activities due to being vested with epistemological authority. From this perspective, it seems these learning theories are too idealistic and thus the need for a more realistic classroom teaching style in the schools (Lefstein, 2006; Lyle, 2008; Lehesvuori, 2013). Alas, these attitudes can, in due course, lead to dislike towards civic/citizenship education as a school subject (Lefstein, 2006; Lyle, 2008; Matusov 2011).

7.2:1(b) Classroom Group Discussion (CGD)

In this study, another interactive learning component involves using classroom group discussions. However, data from this study showed that engaging young learners in classroom group discussions was not a popular teaching style. That is, most civic teachers in this study did not encourage collaborative (team) inquiry using small or large groups among young learners. For this study, classroom group discussions entails engaging young learners in collaborative inquiry on civic/citizenship issues and discussing the outcome via class round table talk or debate, inter alia. This involves dialogic interactions which stimulates cooperative activities resulting in higher-order articulation of citizenship issues through reflective inquiry (2.5:3). It engages young learners (collectively) in scholarly activities to develop their communication skills and broaden their knowledge and skills for logical presentation of issues (Tharp & Dalton, 2007; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010). This is in line with collaborative learning of the social constructivist theory (2.5:1(a)i) which entails classroom interactive activities through which learners create, initiate and construe activities which lead to civic knowledge construction via consensus (Stetsenko & Arievitch, 1997; Palincsar, 1998).

Although young learners refuted most civic teachers' claims of using this pedagogy, focus group evidence revealed that this pedagogy was actually practised by teachers who noted: "...We were on this topic "HIV/AIDs" So I ...divide them into groups and...itemized their

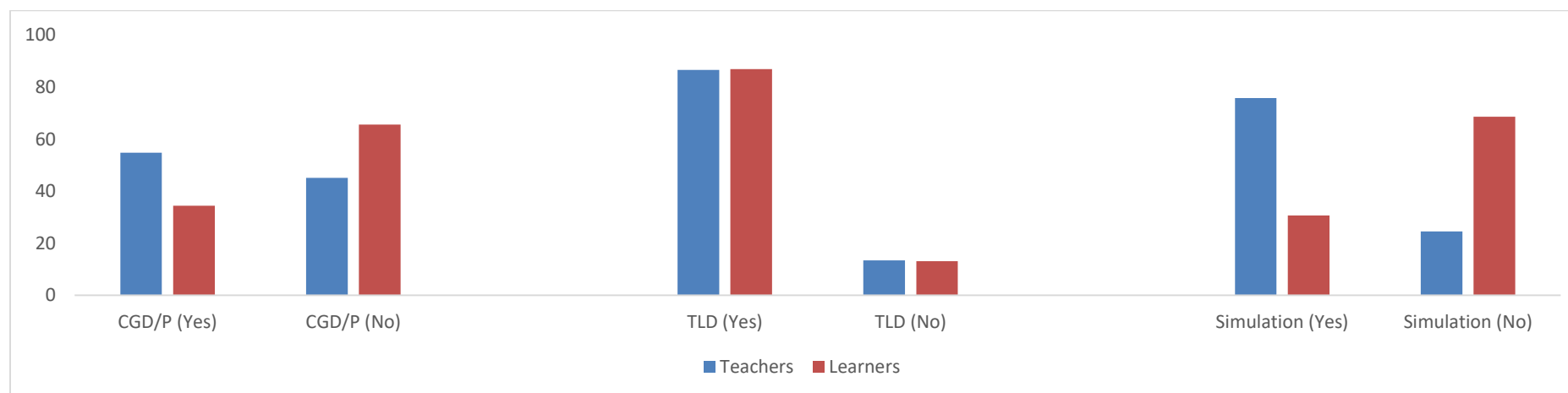
points...like HIV causes, symptoms, and mode of transmission... I was calling...group by group to be discussing each point. And they were saying something I never expected them to say which is only making sense to the topic we are discussing. And I even though forget to mention this mother-child transmission like breast feeding...so they really perform beyond my expectation which I myself, learn one or two things...” (Part. 2 Lag). Another participant said this style is “*very good...the students would know...the content...study it and prepare to present*” (Resp. 1 (Lag)). Applying group discussions offers opportunity to engage in a social constructivism teaching and learning process which entails young learners sharing their perspectives of citizenship issues leading to constructing knowledge and understanding within their social context together. Making meaning of the civic issue at stake is due to interactions among learners within their socio-cultural milieu. Here, civic teachers engaged in peer collaboration inquiry pedagogy (2.5:1(a)i) which underlines team/group interactive activities among learners. Young learners develop reflective thinking abilities through interaction with other learners and teachers alike. Teacher’s admission of learning from the group activities reflects how learners’ backgrounds influence the creation and discovery of civic knowledge and understanding attained during the learning process.

From the responses, I argued that group discussions could mediate more awareness of the civic curriculum content and particular citizenship issue(s) for better problem solving and decision making. This data was consistent with literature (2.5:3) suggesting that group members could engage in concerted efforts through reflective inquiry to explore, analyse and discuss citizenship problems with intent to acquire decision making competence (Hahn, 1996; Hess & Posselt, 2001; Zaman, 2006; Ogundare, 2010). This position was reiterated by a young learner saying: “*the teacher divided them into groups to discuss issues in form of debates*” (Resp. 10 Lag).

Table 18 Impracticable Active Classroom Pedagogies

State		Lagos/Ogun States			
Response Indicators		Percent (%) (No)		Percent (%) (Yes)	
Participants		Teachers	Learners	Teachers	Learners
Items					
1	Operating classroom group discussions (CGD/P) on civic/citizenship issues during civic lessons	45.2	65.6	54.8	34.4
2	Teachers leading classroom discussion (TLD) on current citizenship issues during civic lessons	13.4	13.1	86.6	86.9
3	Adoption of simulation of citizenship issues during civic lesson	24.6	68.6	75.8	30.7

Figure 2 Impracticable Active Classroom Pedagogies



Linked with peer collaboration above, the learner reflects on the import of dialogical interactions as another trait of the social constructivist and other learning theories (2.5) above. They stressed that dialogical meaning-making admits the learners' active role in developing an individual construction of knowledge and understanding of the civic curriculum via dialogic interchange. Such dialogic talk occurs among learners in collaborative settings which underpin the co-construction of meaning. The above responses in group discussions are in line with the social constructivist perspective which perceives that knowledge construction emanates from the social context whereby young learners are able to relate with each other and their sociocultural setting. In fact, individually constructed knowledge originates from interactive activities with peers and their milieu prior to such knowledge being assimilated and applied (Vygotsky, 1978; Roth, 2000; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Meter & Stevens, 2000; Eggan & Kauchak, 2004)

But, data from learners' survey averring non-practice of role-play, inter alia, could be due to learners lacking opportunities to explore, analyse, discuss and solve civic/citizenship issues collaboratively (as a team) (2.5:1(a)i) during the civic class (Wendy, 2003; Ogundare, 2010).

Also, such impracticability of role-play and other active pedagogies could not just be because pre-service teacher education does not equip civic teachers with adequate pedagogical knowledge and skills but more importantly, could be due to civic teachers' inability to make effective use of their mother-tongue, as prescribed by the National Policy document (stated in the preamble of 3.4) to communicate and practice these pedagogies. A teacher noted: "*I think there is no teacher that passed through College of Education or Education (faculty) in the University that will not know...role-playing or dramatization method... I speak Yoruba ('language of the environment') to them... so... they... understand*" (Resp. 3 (Og). The teacher reflects on a major determinant of effective citizenship development in the context of civic curriculum implementation. The policy of using former colonial languages as medium of classroom communication (dialogic teaching), which in Nigeria, revolves round the use of English has serious adverse effect on the learners. Unarguably, these interactive pedagogies require local adaptations to allow teachers to implement the civic curriculum using materials and content from the immediate milieu (NPE, 2004, p9; NERDC, 2007pv). Literature alludes to the constructive impacts on the dialectical patterns existing in many of the civic classrooms in Nigeria and other developing countries. Mother tongue (language of the environment) as a mediational tool boosts whole class teaching as a more secure choice

since, dialectally, it is less challenging. Moreover, dialogic exchange based on the mother tongue makes learners active partners with teachers in classroom implementation of civic curriculum (Arthur & Martin, 2007; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010).

Evidently, the teacher education curriculum could be repackaged to offer more practical experience and exposure instead of its abstract and theoretical nature. This could justify lack of relevant innovative teaching styles and new modes of delivery particular to civic curriculum (Moja, 2000; Ango et al, 2003; Theobald et al, 2007).

Employing the mother-tongue as a matter of policy requirement could enhance the ability of young learners to grasp citizenship issues effectively as stated by the civic teacher (Resp. 3 (Og) above. Inducing teachers to adopt ‘language of the environment’ was based on the 1968 Mombasa declaration which unequivocally rejected teaching through the medium of foreign language (English). Such content was viewed as a legacy of the colonial past which impedes civic learners’ classroom dialogue. Nigeria’s civic learners lacked adequate grasp of citizenship issues due to stressing imported foreign languages (2.4:3(b)). So, teachers’ arbitrary use of ‘language of the environs’ does inspire entire class engagement to better appreciate and discuss citizenship issues. (NPE, 2004, p9; Fafunwa, 2004; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010).

As I explain in the next section, the impracticability of interactive learning components explored in this study by some participants was due to some problems. This insight conforms with literature which avowed that dialogic and other forms of teaching/learning theories lack impact and relevance in the civic education classrooms of developing countries like Nigeria due to limited mediational tools such as teaching/learning resources, large classes and teachers lacking and/or inadequate training (Lyle, 2008; Lehesvuori, 2013; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010). Other factors discovered in this study are hostile classroom settings (discussed in Chapter 6), inadequate space on the timetable, rowdy and disorderly classes and politicisation of the civic classroom.

7.3 Constraints on the non-usage of active participatory/interactive pedagogies

In sections 7.1 and 7.2 above, I discussed active participatory teaching and learning styles, practicable and otherwise in the course of the civic curriculum classroom implementation process. However, focus group data revealed that impracticable active pedagogies were due to some constraints regarding large class sizes, unconducive classroom settings as discussed in Chapter 6.2:4, deficient timetable space, rowdy and disorderly lessons and lack of interest.

7.3:1 Problem of School Timetable

A major challenge to the use of active pedagogies involved inadequate periods on the school time-table. This was underpinned by teachers' focus group data suggesting that time on the school time table was utterly inadequate. "... *as much as it is very good...But... if we consider ... the number of period per week...*" (Resp. 1 (Lag)). Another participant reiterated that: "...*I have not been grouping my student...based on the time duration, the time given to periods and if I should say I want ... my students... to present or discuss... I have 100 students per class of 8 arms. So, I don't know how that would be possible unless I want to deceive myself. ...*" (Part. 7 (Og)). This response reflected the views of most teachers and participants on time allocation as a major barrier to the implementation process. This data affirmed literature which opined that an issue and activity-oriented civic curriculum requires substantial time allocation for civic teachers to put in extra efforts on pre-lesson and actual classroom activities (Kerr et al, 2002; Ogunyemi, 2010, 2011). A nonchalant attitude to civic curriculum time and periods on the school time table could distance cynical young learners from having an interest in civic education. Thus more periods and time for civic education is paramount to successful classroom actualisation (Andrews & Mycock, 2007). Inadequate periods depicted civic education as an elective subject whereas, officially, it should be a core subject and therefore requires more time in the national curricula. Inevitably, this could impair young learners' intellectual and participatory skills development. (Vontz and Nixon, 1999; Ogunyemi, 2006, 2011; NERDC, 2007, p.v).

Inadequate curriculum (period) time in schools was a common trend among countries implementing civic and citizenship education. That is why dedicated curriculum time was emphasised by the Citizenship Advisory Group in England and other countries (Po, 2004; Crick, 2002; Miles, 2006). Curriculum planners should be emphatic by providing, preferably, double periods on the school timetable for civic teaching and learning because an activity and issue-based civic curriculum requires adequate time to apply active pedagogies (Akinbote et al, 2004; Ogundare, 2010).

7.3:2 Rowdy/Disorderly Civic Classroom

Teachers found active pedagogies difficult to implement in the classroom due to the rowdiness and disorder resulting from excitement created by the interaction and participation of young learners. Such excitement could result from being lost in laughing and clapping without realising the class has become rowdy and disorderly thus becoming

a nuisance to nearby classes. For instance, the competitive nature of game simulation could induce hostilities and conflicts which can, in the process, openly hurt feelings of a sensitive learner due to losing a game. Since we have congested civic classes, lessons could be noisy, especially where teachers lack the requisite classroom organisational skills.

A teacher said: "...a situation whereby you have a large class and...students are learning under an environment that is not conducive. ...some classes...in my own school...are not floored at all. They are...using a shed. ...exactly at 12 o' clock...experience sun. ... Because every nook and cranny of your body will be wet before you leave the class" (Resp. 8 (Og)). Obviously, a teacher managing a classroom of 102 young learners could experience rowdy and disorderly (noisy) civic lessons, especially when such teachers lacks requisite classroom planning, management and organisational skills. Civic teachers require management and organisational skills in the classroom civic learning implementation process. Inability to use interactive and participatory learning pedagogies could raise the failure rates among young learners. This shows the depth of the realistic issues facing Nigeria's education which has swallowed huge investment and still the present condition is far from the expected international minimum standards (Nkwanga & Canagarajah, 1999; Moja, 2000; Akinbote et al, 2004; Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Theobald et al, 2007; Hardman et al, 2008). In fact, civic resource rooms which could have been the most suitable place for such interaction are lacking in virtually all schools. *A teacher said: "...But when they are now being divide intentionally...will be...rowdy. They might...be disturbing the next class ...unless I...take them out...under the tree... or...place...secluded"* (Resp. 9 (Og)).

7.3:3 Learners Lacking Interest in Active Pedagogical Classroom Participation

When preparing for a lesson, a major factor civic teachers need to consider involves stimulating young learners' interests in civic lessons. Being unmindful of this could result in their lacking interest in civic learning. A teacher said: *"...when we want to...we hardly get students...do this... They don't want to participate. And those who...want to participate... they don't have the...materials...relevant to the content of what you want to pass to them. ...it means taking time...to...plan...and deliver it. ...disinterest...of the students is a problem facing role playing as a method in...classes... And... then basically.....there is not enough space in... the classrooms to be able to do some of these things. So think that is why they are gradually dying off from use in the school system"*

(Resp. 1 (Og). This reflects a civic teacher perceiving civic education as a work-based package lacking creativity and initiatives in the implementation (of active pedagogies) process. Implementing classroom pedagogies needs a guiding ethos involving resources and a conducive setting to foster participation. Young learners become tools to be manipulated in ‘the factory’ (civic classroom) to memorise concepts in order to mould them into a predefined image. This showed teachers’ conservatism, rigidity and lacking requisite skills to actualise an activity and issue-based curriculum using active pedagogies to stimulate interest in civic learning. As discussed in 7.1.1 above, some teachers could not change their usual teaching styles due to the strong socio-cultural impact which views civic implementation as a one-way knowledge transmission via recalled learning for examination purposes (Cheng-man Lau, 2001; Ogundare, 2010; Hardman & Abd-Kadir, 2010).

Also, teachers identified the huge pre-lesson planning efforts required to use these pedagogies. A teacher said: “*it means taking time off to really plan it and deliver it*” (Part. 1 Og). Another teacher noted: “*...I do not use role-playing...the main reason is...in the lesson plan, teacher has activities*” (Part. 4 Og). The curriculum was perceived as an objectivist product based on which the teacher follows activities specified to achieve learning outcomes and lacking autonomy on how to achieve desired civic goals. However, these pre-lesson activities failed to incorporate young learners, the actual implementers, at every stage of these pedagogical practices. Teachers should see the classroom as a workshop for young learners’ active engagement in the lesson by contributing to the format of classroom activities and interactions which commenced prior to classroom teaching and learning. The misconceptions that active pedagogies (role-play, simulation, etc) require elaborate activities like memorising scripts, rehearsals and acting real life situations could create apathy in young learners. These delusions could be due to a lack of requisite knowledge and skills of classroom pedagogical practices.

7.4 Developing Effective Citizenship through the Interactive Learning Theories

As stated in the introduction to this chapter, civic education classroom pedagogy requires social constructivist, transformative and reflective inquiry (interactive/participatory) learning theories. These theories manifest via different inbuilt pedagogical styles like open classroom, dramatisation, simulation, role play and group discussion to engage young learners in civic learning. Conversely, consensus among teacher development studies/literature alluded to the gap between classroom learning experiences, interactive

learning theories and development of social interaction. This, in effect, makes it difficult to ascertain whether these learning pedagogies were used in the Nigerian civic classroom context. Effectively, this study showed that the inbuilt components of the learning theories were practicable in certain scenario and impracticable under other circumstances. However, this study views these interactive learning components as creating opportunity for learners' (dialogical) meaning-making via active engagement in developing individually constructed understanding of civic facts in issue via the classroom. They are vital to exploring the impacts of interaction which occur within collaborative settings as a basis for co-construction of meaning. Multiplicity of learners' voices in the classroom has impact on social interaction which leads to learners' knowledge construction (Lyle, 2008). Moreover, social constructivist, transformative and reflective inquiry classrooms enables civic teachers, (as more knowledgeable person/facilitator) and learners collaborate to construct individual ideas which are collectively reflected on. Knowledge is constructed through dialogic interaction involving exploring and analysing citizenship issues, instead of unquestioningly adopting teachers' perspectives of issues. Learners are induced to examine their thought processes, contributions and responses to reflect their cognitive development as a way of contesting teachers' epistemological dominance. This fosters in young learners the confidence, independence and sense of responsibility to engage in classroom collaborative inquiry, reflective thinking and dialogic interaction (Alexander, 2006). Young learners lack the opportunity to engage in classroom interactive activities entailing examining and questioning issues for constructive meaning-making. Classroom emphasis has been on factual recall of civic issues instead of promoting higher order interactions involving reasoning.

7.5 Active Pedagogical Practices and Test of Significant Difference

As a teacher educator, I focus on school and classroom factors impacting on young learners' effective citizenship development. However, studies show that individual traits as well could mediate or intervene in effective citizenship (Wendy, 2003; Tor, 2009). Considering this, I examined data on likely significant differences among specific traits like gender, states, school locations and years of teaching experience in relation to the use of active pedagogies. The data showed participants (civic teachers and learners) and school locations showed significant differences while gender and teachers' experience were insignificant.

7.5:1 Participants (Civic Teachers/ Learners) and Active Pedagogical Practices

Table 19 shows the Test of Significant on participants' perceptions of active pedagogical practices

States/Participants	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df.	t	Sig.
Civic Teachers	299	4.8294	1.61512	876	-14.669	.000
Civic Young Learners	579	3.2763	1.19885			

The data for this study found significant differences between civic teachers and young learners (in the two states) on perceived usage of active pedagogical practices explored in this study. Table 7.4:1above reveals that teachers agreed more on their use of these pedagogical practices than young learners. As stated above, young learners' perceived non-usage could be due to their non-involvement in both pre-lesson planning and actual lesson participation (Ogundare, 2010). Civic teachers could have misconceptions on what active pedagogical (learner-centred) practices entail due to inadequate skills consequent upon lack of training (Chapter 6). The focus group responses above showed most teachers were imperious in their civic classroom teaching and learning through engaging more in didactic and recitation instead of teacher and students or student and student classroom interactions.

7.5:2 Participants' School Location and Active Pedagogical Practices

Table 20 Test of Significant on school locations and active pedagogical practices

School Locations	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df.	t	Sig.
Teachers/Urban	203	11.0443	1.0041	295	4.796	.004
Teachers/Rural	94	10.3511	1.27598			
Young Learners/Urban	551	3.2668	1.63473	576	-631	.020
Young Learners/Rural	28	3.4643	1.17006			

Table 7.4:2 above revealed a significant difference in perceived usage of active pedagogical practices among the participating young learners in rural and urban schools in the two states. Although the mean values showed young learners in rural schools agreed more on their teachers' using active pedagogies than counterparts in urban schools this could be due to an inability to differentiate between the teacher and the learner based teaching and learning activities. This was contrary to urban young learners who opposed their teachers' perceived usage of active pedagogical practices due to non-involvement in classroom activities. Lack of exposure and experience by learners on active involvement in classroom teaching could result from using unqualified teachers and lack of instructional materials.

Also, the table indicated a significant difference in perceived usage of active pedagogies among participating civic teachers from rural and urban school locations in the two states. The mean values in Table 7.4:2 discloses that civic teachers in urban schools agreed more on the use of these pedagogies than counterparts in rural schools. Since, research evidence above showed dramatisation was the only active participatory method used, it implies that urban civic teachers could possibly have adopted just dramatisation in contrast to their counterparts in rural schools. In the Nigerian context, rural location is synonymous to rejected or neglected locations as regards the provision or availability of educational facilities including school resources (Olanrewaju, 1999). Schools in rural locations were hardly provided with learning resources thus deterring more qualified teachers from going there (Akintunde, 2004). Because of this, young learners in rural schools lacked requisite socio-political and media interactions and exposure through school civic clubs, radio, television, videos and other sources of interaction which could foster effective citizenship development. Due to lack of school resources, young learners in rural locations could not face the same civic and citizenship challenges as their counterparts in urban schools (Falade, 2007).

7.5:3 Participants' Gender and Active Pedagogical Practices

Females used to perceive anything about socio-political issues as the exclusive domain of males and this seems to have degenerated to the school level. However, females are now showing a moderate interest in participating in Nigeria's political process and this was reflected in the classroom teaching of civic issues using diverse pedagogical styles.

Table 21 Test of significant on gender's perceptions of active pedagogies

States/Participants	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df.	t	Sig.
Male Teachers	82	10.8537	1.24843	296	249	.331
Female Teachers	216	10.8148	1.18241			
Male Young Learners	227	3.2555	1.56734	576	-318	.103
Female Young Learners	351	3.2991	1.64020			

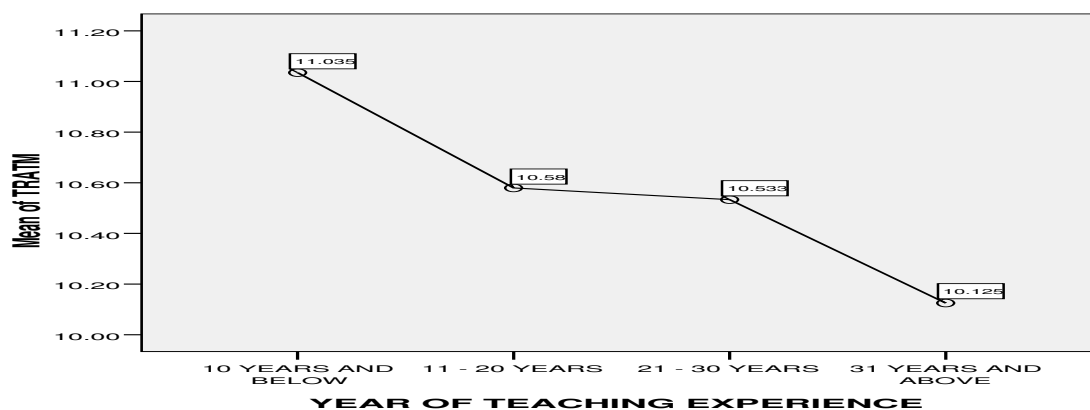
In contrast to the other two variables above, data reveals in Table 7.4:3a lack of significant difference regarding gender. Both male civic teachers and learners and female civic teachers and learners (in the two states) claimed that active pedagogical practices were applied in the civic classrooms. The table (mean) above revealed that male teachers agreed more while male learners agreed less on the use of these pedagogical practices than female teachers and learners. Thus, the mean values for female civic teachers and their learners depicted their desires for more usage of active pedagogical practices. In Nigeria, various women's NGOs were championing more female interest and participation through diverse advocacy and literacy programmes to attract females into civic and political activities. This advocacy and literacy campaign led to (as stated in Chapter 5), the relative involvement of more women in the Nigeria's political process could inspire the need for more knowledge and requisite dispositions and participatory skills through school and classroom pedagogical practices (Mansaray, 1999; Ajiboye, 2002; Falade, 2007). This study perceived that appropriate and relevant active teaching styles could induce male and female young learners to exhibit citizenship and civic traits.

7.5:4 Teachers' Years of Teaching Experience and Active Pedagogical Practices

Table 22 Teachers' Years of Teaching Experience and Active Pedagogies

Year of Teaching Experience	N	Subset for alpha = .05
31 YEARS AND ABOVE	8	10.1250
21 - 30 YEARS	30	10.5333
11 - 20 YEARS	88	10.5795
10 YEARS AND BELOW	17	11.0349
Sig.	2	.081

Figure 3 Teaching Experience and Active Pedagogies



Similar to Table 22 above, Table and Chart 10 shows lack of significant difference among the groups. However, the mean value of teachers with the least teaching experience (10 years and below) revealed their claims to more usage of active pedagogical practices. This could be due to the new education reforms which commenced in the last 16 years. This reform has witnessed rapid curriculum review involving an activity/issue/value-oriented civic curriculum at the basic and senior levels in accordance with current global realities (NPE, 2004). As a teacher educator, I am aware of curriculum innovations regarding teaching our pre-service teachers' knowledge and skills about new pedagogies. Evidently, these sets of teachers (10 years and below) could have received such knowledge and skills on these active pedagogies and possibly implemented them in the civic classroom. However, it still remains to be seen whether such pedagogies are effectively practised in the civic classroom. It should be noted that pre-service knowledge and skills could be outdated, thus, the need for regular in-service training for civic teachers irrespective of school locations, experience and gender, is a necessity.

7.6 Conclusion

This study revealed an eclectic classroom implementation process regarding active pedagogies. While pedagogies like open classroom discussions, dramatisation and simulation showed positive impacts, others such as classroom group discussions, role-play and leading discussions resulting in recitation were impracticable. Such impracticability was not just due to classroom implementation constraints but also teachers' curriculum implementation perspectives involving either objectivist or interactive and participatory perspectives. The objectivists rigidly focused more on curriculum coverage which entails tight control of the classroom teaching and learning process and the interactive and participatory engage learners in more creative activities. These constraints could be due to lack of hands-on continuous teacher education

(preservice and in-service trainings) which induce cooperative (both teacher and learner) classroom activities and higher-order perceptions of civic issues via active pedagogies. Effective practice of these pedagogies in the civic classroom enhances young learners' inquiry skills since discovery leads to retention. Also, to guide young learners to define issue(s) within the context of their experiences and relate citizenship issues to their daily activities with the intent to find solutions to problems is vital. Moreover, it induces easy and permanent recall of facts learnt which is consistent with the maxim 'What I hear, I forget; what I see, I recall and what I do, I know.'

Chapter 8:

Strengths, Limitations, Recommendations and Conclusions

8.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I discuss the findings and outcomes of this study on whether civic curriculum objectives are attainable through classroom civic curriculum implementation. Also, I examine whether implementing this curriculum content is underpinned by adequate school resource provision and which classroom pedagogies are practiced. Doing this involves giving a synopsis of the study regarding the goals, research questions and major findings. I highlight implications of the study, contributions to knowledge, recommendations from the findings, strengths and limitation, areas of further study and conclusions.

8.1 Synopsis (Overview) of the Study

This study was to discover how civic curriculum content was implemented in the classroom to develop learners' knowledge, dispositions and skills. I started with exploring whether civic curriculum objectives were appropriate for knowledge construction, developing skills and dispositions. Also, I examined school resource provision and which pedagogies were used to teach civic (issues) content. I recognised that disparity in civic teachers' academic and professional training could lead to diverse teaching practices in the classroom. This makes it expedient to grasp how these affected their classroom activities to mediate learners' civic concepts constructions and its internalisation to develop skills and dispositions. From these a pertinent question to answer is: 'whether classroom teaching of civic content was supported by adequate school resources and relevant pedagogies to achieve civic objectives?' These issues were translated into the following research questions to guide my investigation:

1a. Do civic experts perceive civic curriculum intents (objectives) as appropriate to construct civic knowledge, and develop dispositions and skills in young learners? (open and closed questionnaire)

1b. Do young learners perceive civic curriculum content impacts on their civic knowledge, dispositions and skills development? (questionnaire and focus group) (Chapter 5)

2. Do civic teachers perceive school resources as adequate to develop civic knowledge, dispositions and skills in young learners? (questionnaire and focus group) (Chapter 6)

3. Which classroom pedagogies do civic teachers employ to develop civic knowledge, dispositions and skills in young learners? (questionnaire and focus group) (Chapter 7)

In answering the research questions, I used mixed methods research involving open and closed questionnaire surveys and focus group discussions to collect data from which I deduced my findings. I collected data from civic teachers (curriculum implementers) and young learners (curriculum consumers) in Lagos and Ogun States, a southwest geopolitical zone in Nigeria and citizenship (experts) lecturers who participate in curriculum planning, design and teachers' training. I should state that the qualitative (open-questionnaire and focus groups) responses were distinct from the quantitative (closed questionnaire survey) findings. The findings were meant to give an in depth account of participants perceived multiple realities of the survey questionnaire.

8.2 Summary of the Findings

From each research question, I deduced the following key findings:

1(a) Do civic experts perceive civic curriculum intents (objectives) as appropriate to construct civic knowledge, develop dispositions and skills in young learners?

I found that civic objectives were designed to transmit political citizenship knowledge which is a common practice in our schools. Most civic experts claimed the objectives were designed to guide learners to construct knowledge on politically-based issues like the constitution, governmental roles, rights, inter alia. These experts underlined political knowledge because functional citizenship was imperative after prolonged military rule which has turned many Nigerians into political illiterates. Political literacy could develop positive dispositions which nurture national consciousness for effective political participation. Apart from political literacy, civic experts claimed that the objectives could trivially develop skills and dispositions required for democratic practice and sustenance. Overall, this study found a symbiotic link among knowledge, dispositions and skills which signified that developing effective citizenship requires guiding learners to imbibe the three citizenship components. This entails holistic development which involved gradually internalising knowledge via experiential learning in schools to acquire skills and dispositions.

1b Do young learners perceive that civic content actually develops those components regarding political and/or nongovernmental citizenship?

This study, also showed that civic content transmitted political citizenship knowledge as evident in learners' display of (cognitive) ability to define citizenship concepts. However, defining concepts like nationalism, patriotism, apathy, inter alia, is the lowest level of cognition in the teaching and learning process. Interestingly, learners showed the capability to engage in practical citizenship by expressing views on political issues, thereby showing confidence to discuss with their representatives on issues like governance, human rights, corruption and if required partake in peaceful protests instead of showing apathy. Also, this study proved that civic content had a trivial impact on learners' dispositions and skills to nongovernmental citizenship activities. Such impact was due to the use of the civic extracurricular programme to practice knowledge constructed, especially in Ogun as against Lagos schools. Also, the schools' extracurricular activities integrated the community into classroom civic learning.

Findings on demographic variables showed significant difference in the civic content impact on conventional knowledge of learners from Ogun as opposed to learners in Lagos. Similarly, civic content revealed more impact on civic knowledge of senior secondary in contrast to junior learners. Senior learners constructed more complex concepts and connected such concepts to develop higher order thinking. Conversely, there is a lack of significant difference regarding civic content impact on the gender and school locations of participants. Civic content had equal positive impacts on both boys and girls as well as between urban and peri-urban schools. But focus on knowledge was more evident in urban schools than rural counterparts because urban learners were more exposed to better school resources and pedagogies.

2 Do civic teachers perceive school resources were adequate for classroom implementation of civic content? (questionnaire and focus group)

The study revealed that though teachers were recruited the recruitment of qualified teachers was inadequate. Thus, a stopgap used for inadequate teachers' recruitment was personnel improvisation which entails seconding related and unrelated subject teachers to teach civic education. The government's improvisation plan was to use subject teachers sharing similar content with civic education but actual practice showed schools improvising with unrelated subject content teachers like agricultural science, commerce, accounting, business studies and religious studies. Also, this study showed that personnel improvisation made civic curriculum classroom teaching ineffective because teachers

displayed poor civic content knowledge and teaching skills though contending with excess teaching loads and large class size.

I found an overwhelming presence of civic teachers without in-service training or retraining to renew content knowledge and teaching skills. Teachers felt neglected, alienated and superfluous to the civic curriculum implementation process. However, exhibiting commitment led to initiating individual or group empowerment training within their deprived professional setting to renew content knowledge and pedagogical skills. Teachers used their personal resources to research information on identified citizenship issues via the internet to ensure functionality, professional survival and career development. Albeit, the study indicated that in-service training attendance lacked impact on civic classroom teaching because it only offered teachers general knowledge and also the school setting is hostile to learning due to congested classes.

There was lack of consensus among teachers on the quality of civic textbook content. While some teachers see the textbooks as relevant and suitable, others viewed these textbooks as lacking in quality to teach civic content. Also, the study revealed that available civic hand/textbooks were inadequate to make a positive impact in teaching core subjects like the civic curriculum. Thus, civic teachers lacking handbooks could not make adequate pre-lesson preparation which led to poor pedagogical practices and content delivery. Therefore, lack of quality and inadequate provision of civic textbooks led to civic teachers patronising private authors of civic textbooks. Also, availability and utilisation of other relevant instructional materials like charts, diagrams and maps to implement civic education in schools were trivial and inadequate. Thus, teachers had to improvise these materials since schools lacked instructional resource rooms. This led civic teachers to develop alternative materials within their immediate locality to show their creativity and initiative.

3) Did civic teachers apply active or didactic pedagogies during classroom teaching of civic content? (questionnaire and focus group)

This study showed eclectic classroom pedagogical practices among participating civic teachers. They applied diverse pedagogical styles like open classroom discussion, dramatisation, simulation and didactic (recitation). These pedagogies mediated active dialogues high content recall, sense of civic duties and possible involvement in citizenship activities. However, open classroom discussion was dominated by civic

teachers through recitation which barely afforded learners a chance to probe or discuss citizenship issues from diverse perspectives during classroom teaching and learning.

Conversely, civic teachers found methods like role-play and classroom group discussion impracticable in the classroom because pre-service teacher education was more theoretical and abstract. More so, teachers could not use their mother-tongue to practice these pedagogies. Also, these pedagogies were impracticable due to large class sizes, unsuitable and hostile classroom setting, inadequate timetable periods, rowdy and disorderly lessons and learners lacking interest.

On the test of significance, I found a significant difference between civic teachers and learners perceived use of active pedagogical practices. Civic teachers agreed more on their use of these pedagogical styles in contrast to learners. Also, I found a significant difference in perceived usage of active pedagogical practices regarding school locations (rural and urban). However, learners in rural schools agreed more on their teachers' use of active pedagogies than urban schools. My findings showed a lack of significant difference regarding gender. Both male civic teachers and learners and female civic teachers and learners claimed that active teaching styles were applied in the civic classrooms. The male teachers agreed more while the male learners agreed less on the use of these pedagogical practices than female teachers and female learners. This result reflected that female civic teachers and their learners desired more usage of active pedagogical practices. I found a lack of significant difference among teachers regarding their years of teaching experience. Young teachers claimed more usage of active pedagogical practices. This could be due to the self-empowerment programme of young civic teachers to cope with the challenges that an activity and issue-based civic curriculum at basic and senior levels posed to these teachers. Evidently, these young teachers received such knowledge and skills on these active pedagogies and used them in the civic classroom.

8.3 Implications of Research Findings

This study revealed that actualising the civic curriculum was difficult due to the exclusion and non-sensitisation of teachers and learners as main stakeholders and actors in Nigeria's education sector. This led to the misconception of aspects of the civic education objectives as imposing foreign citizenship norms despite claiming that the curriculum is designed to mediate Nigeria's socio-political values. The civic experts viewed the objectives on MDGs and emergent contemporary issues as post-colonial citizenship

legacy inbuilt to dissociate learners from their historical, geographical and political milieu. Most civic experts in this study found these imported foreign ideas as lacking relevance to the immediate socio-political milieu. Arguably, these participants perceived civic curriculum from a narrow (traditional) perspective of mediating political citizenship issues. However, the lesson learnt is when policy and programme actors and stakeholders like teachers and learners lack adequate insight and awareness on civic curriculum goals, methods and expected outcomes, then ignorance and indifference to such programmes could lead to poor implementation.

As stated in the findings above, civic experts and learners' data showed that civic curriculum objectives and content focused more on guiding learners to construct knowledge. This depicts that civic curriculum implementation focused on impacting 'education about citizenship' in our learners. This is a traditional school driven civic programme which guides learners to memorise information and facts about Nigeria's political and constitutional development, governmental structures and functions, rights and duties, inter alia. This denied learners the chance to develop 'education through citizenship' and 'education for citizenship' traits which underpins the practice of knowledge constructed through experiential learning. Evidently, learners lacked exposure to community-based socio-political activities which could have enabled them develop other citizenship components such as skills and dispositions due to a lack of school extracurricular programmes.

This study revealed as part of its findings personnel improvisation which involved drafting in of teachers of unrelated and related subjects to teach civic curriculum. These teachers' lack of relevant content knowledge and pedagogical skills resulted in the failure of the curriculum to attain its objectives. The study showed that some unqualified civic teachers used general knowledge of political happenings within their milieu to teach citizenship issues. At best, such teachers focus more on knowledge inculcation applying didactic pedagogies to induce learning by recall or memorisation. Also, using unqualified teachers induces over-reliance on textbooks content learning whether relevant or not.

Moreover, unavailability of the relevant and appropriate instructional materials like teachers' and learners' hand/textbooks, charts, inter alia, leads to ineffective teaching in a country where textbooks are viewed as the most readily available instructional material

(Okobia, 2012). Obviously, teachers lacking content knowledge will depend on hand/textbooks as the main learning resources (Idowu & Hassan, 2005; Mezieobi, 2008; Sofadekan, 2012). To such teachers a lack of civic textbooks is a barrier to effective content delivery which leads to non-realisation of civic goals. This explains why some teachers patronised private authors for textbooks not approved by government. Though it has been shown that relevant subject textbooks could aid learners effective citizenship, yet promoting inapt textbooks could undermine effective implementation of the civic curriculum. Even more so studies have shown that current civic education textbooks are not from reputable specialists/authors, (DuBey (1980) cited in Sofadekan, (2013)). Personnel improvisation could make it possible for unrelated subject teachers to author civic textbooks based on general knowledge. Undue reliance on civic textbooks makes civic classroom implementation one-way traffic that is developing a restricted style of imparting civic content to learners.

My findings showed that related and unrelated subject teachers used for classroom implementation of civic education lacked adequate government-sponsored training. These teachers were ill-prepared to teach the subject due to poor pre/in-service teacher training. Nigerian civic classrooms are filled mostly with 'curriculum illiterates' who are inexpert and unqualified civic curriculum implementers and guides (Kosemanin, 1984; Mkpa, 2005; Ogunyemi, 2010, p5). This makes ineffective various civic curriculum developments and creativity initiated towards achieving civic education objectives. Without doubt a teacher lacking continuous professional development will be textbook obsessed, didactic-driven and knowledge-oriented. This (see 3.4:2 (ii) (b)) triggers teachers' lack of commitment, passion and enthusiasm required during classroom implementation to effectively impact positive change in learners' citizenship development.

Though this study found eclectic pedagogical practices, yet civic teachers' classroom practices focused more on didactic and recitation methods. These methods expose and/or transmit civic information for memorisation and thus make it impossible to develop effective citizenship. An issue and activity based civic curriculum requires interactive and participatory classroom teaching and learning which makes learners appreciate themselves as the major instructional resources during a civic classroom lesson. Civic teachers need to create a classroom setting where civic learners could simulate

community socio-political activities in the school through participatory, interactive and activity based civic curriculum.

8.4 Implication for policy and practice

From my data analyses, I discovered a lacuna between civic education programme intent and school and classroom implementation and practice in Nigeria. This requires connecting the findings of this study to actual practice by outlining specific areas for better implementation.

In this study, there are civic issues in the objectives which require more clarification through curriculum review and enrichments. Objectives on MDGs and contemporary emergent issues look too abstract and theoretical to show relevance to our immediate realities and thus requires further simplification for curriculum implementers to appreciate. Though these issues reflect Nigeria's subscribing to global citizenship realities, however, these realities should be made relevant to our immediate milieu so that key curriculum stakeholders and implementers can imbibe and implement with zeal and commitment. Such appreciation could be fostered through adequate training which provides knowledge, resources and pedagogies appropriate for classroom learning and practice through extracurricular learning.

Also, this study revealed an overemphasis on conventional (political) citizenship at the expense of social and community citizenship. This overemphasis on political issues depicts effective citizenship development from a narrow (traditional) outlook of coercing young learners to be initiated into the political sphere. Current global civic learning and practice is inducing participation in nongovernmental activities and Nigerian learners should be induced to engage in such programmes since not everybody will become politicians. Thus, civic objectives echoing political issues while giving marginal space to nongovernmental issues require a review. Stressing multiculturalism, global social cohesion and ecological activism, which depicted nongovernmental citizenship, in the civic curriculum can help learners acquire dispositions and skills to induce national and global peace, conflict resolution, integration, tolerance, cooperation and collaboration.

Overall, improving civic education implementation in schools requires continuous professional development which adequately equip our teachers with current information

on the content and pedagogies. This study revealed that most of our teachers are stale, even those that are engaged in self-development are restricted by resources available for empowerment. Notwithstanding such self-development, government should rise up to its statutory responsibility of organising in-service training on a regular basis for related and unrelated teachers participating in the classroom implementation of civic education.

8.5 Research contributions

This research adds to existing studies on civic curriculum programme implementation in Nigeria and globally. It explores whether civic objectives are appropriate to mediate knowledge, dispositions and skills as well as the school resources provided and classroom pedagogies used to teach civic content.

This study for the first time presents civic content implementation which viewed effective citizenship to involve learners' participation in both nongovernmental (apolitical) and political citizenship. This is evident in the proposed civic curriculum content which integrates the two citizenship traits for learners' balanced participation. This study has given a broader definition of what effective citizenship development entails as against extant citizenship studies in Nigeria and globally. This is an improvement from the prior narrow political view which initiated learners into the existing political setting by instilling national identity, unity, loyalty, government roles, rights and duties, inter alia.

Also, the result of this study, for the first time, showed that holistic development of citizenship traits needs experiential learning overlooked by prior studies. This allows future research on civic content implementation to consider the imperative of school extracurricular programmes impact to induce the practice of classroom knowledge constructed.

Since civic education was reintroduced in Nigeria and in all my years as teacher educator and researcher, this is possibly the first academic study which covers in one study key stakeholders at every facet of the curriculum process in Nigeria. In this study, I used a college of education/university lecturers who partake in curriculum planning, development and teachers (curriculum implementers) training. Also, I used secondary school teachers who are civic curriculum implementers and actors in the citizenship socialisation process as well as learners who utilize the curriculum. These stakeholders

gave their perceptions regarding the diverse components of the civic curriculum which hardly attracts the attention of previous studies. Also, this study developed an effective citizenship scale which can now be included to the limited measurement scales existing for further studies (Finkel & Enst, 2005; IEA, 2002).

Relatively few extant studies explored curriculum objectives due to its misconception as abstract and its influence on other aspects of the curriculum. This makes it unattractive for teacher education researchers to explore in contrast to other curriculum components. Still, this study examined almost all curriculum components aside from evaluation which I perceived as a well-researched area in Nigeria. Assessing these vital components using key stakeholders in the education sector puts me in a proper position to advise policy makers on the ways of developing sound and effective citizenship in Nigeria.

This study provides evidence that civic education, as presently implemented, focuses more on mediating learners' knowledge construction. That is, most of the objectives stressed knowledge construction than other citizenship components. Also, the study data showed the objectives, marginally, touch on developing dispositions and skills. Stressing these citizenship components revealed the symbiotic links among these citizenship components making it possible for civic objectives to develop knowledge, dispositions and skills holistically. Knowledge constructed could be internalised and practiced to develop dispositions and skills. However, most extant Nigerian studies showed that the curriculum objectives induce knowledge construction independent of other citizenship components (Ogunyemi & Mansaray, 1994; Ifegbesan, 2008; Ahmad, 2011).

Prior extant studies only posit that most classroom teachers are unqualified to teach civic education and other subjects. However, this study went further to evolve the concept of 'personnel improvisation' to explain teachers' role substitution process. This concept entail drafting related and unrelated subject teachers lacking content knowledge and pedagogical skills peculiar to teaching civic and citizenship content.

This study revealed civic teachers' academic diligence and inquiry skills by using personal resources to engage in self and group directed empowerment programmes to renew their content knowledge and pedagogical skills. This is despite the teachers operating in a professionally deprived context whereby government refused to provide in-service training and other resources required to effectively implement civic curriculum. This

finding differs from prior studies depicting teachers as academically indolent, lacking passion, commitment, zeal and enthusiasm and engaging in unethical practices like absenteeism, improper and inadequate planning and preparation for civic lessons (Nacino–Brown et al, 1982; Abari, 2004).

Also, most international (ICCS/IEA and other) studies on civic and citizenship education explored external(sociological/demographic) variables rather than school and classroom factors to expound the disparity in learners' civic learning. However, Peterson (2010) and Kerry (2010) posited that teacher educators should explore how classroom pedagogies affect learners' civic learning. In response, this study deviated from the popular research area to explore the relatively rare area regarding how classroom implementation of civic curriculum is mediated by school resources and classroom pedagogies to achieve curriculum objectives.

This study discovered a different dimension to classroom pedagogical practices by revealing that classroom implementation of civic content was eclectic. That is, civic teachers integrated open classroom discussions, simulation and dramatisation with didactic methods. This is distinct from extant local and international studies with a general consensus that pedagogy in Nigerian secondary education classrooms lacks modern pedagogical practices by depending more on didactic methods like lecturing, memorising and reciting teaching styles (Ango et al, 2003; Theobald et al, 2007; Hardman et al, 2008; Sofadekan, 2012).

8.6 Theoretical Contribution

This study affirmed the role of schools in using the civic curriculum to mediate social-political initiation and reformation as suggested in different theories. Thus, the study reveals the relevance of MCowan's (2006) and Winton's (2007) postulations regarding civic curriculum implementation by our schools to initiate learners into the existing socio-political sphere. This study showed that Nigerian schools use civic content to teach citizenship issues to infuse national unity, identity, loyalty and obedience to rules, as an effective citizenship trait (Kerr, 1999; Lott, Jr, 1999; Schugurensky & Myers, 2003; Husam, 2006; Cantoni, et., al 2014).

Also, the modernisation theory subsumed into citizenship theories (2.3:2 and 2.3:2(b)) is relevant to this study because findings from focus group response (5.4:1) showed that

some teachers implemented/engaged civic curriculum to develop learners' critical citizenship skills to resist extant citizenship vices to depict citizenship transformation. This was evident in the participating learners exhibiting their critical citizenship skills by articulating issues of national interests (Benavot, 1996; Schugurensky & Myers, 2003; Winton, 2007; Zaman, 2006). Learners' active engagement in citizenship initiation and reformation classroom activities (see 7.2:1b) reflects the use of social constructivist, transformative, inter alia, pedagogies (2.5 above) to teach civic issues. These learning pedagogies depict learners' engaging in dialogic interaction (5.4:1) to construct knowledge as active meaning makers. So, using these learning pedagogies makes learners active knowledge constructors instead of mere consumers. Their participation in focus groups (5.4:2) showed that collaborative discussions create common insights into civic issues during classroom activities. From the above, I argued that civic curriculum pedagogy needs learning pedagogies mentioned above in order to engage learners in dialogic interaction as a hallmark of active engagement which mediates knowledge construction rather than as mere consumers.

8.7 Limitations and Strengths

8.7:1 Limitations

It should be noted that the limitation faced while conducting this study could possibly impact on the results and findings. The study could not be generalised due to the limited states (Lagos and Ogun) sampled. Sampling two states out of the six in the south-western geo-political zone as well as using purposive sampling for focus group participants might not adequately reflect a representation of the entire population to generalise the findings. However, restricting the study to these two states was due to funding, logistic and insurgencies in other geo-political zones directly or indirectly. Also, I restricted the study to those directly involved in curriculum planning, design and more importantly implementation. Thus the study lacked any contribution or input whatsoever from bureaucrats and policy makers, school heads and parents. Their contributions to effective civic implementation could be a subject of another study. Thus, the data represents the perceptions of stakeholders directly involved in curriculum implementations in the two states. Similarly, the study was restricted to school knowing that this is just an agency of civic and citizenship socialisation and culture as stated in Chapter 2. However, I am not unaware that other agents such as the family, religious and peer groups could impact on

these learners' citizenship knowledge, dispositions and skills and thus could limit the degree to which this study could be generalised.

Also, the number of participants for each of the focus group discussions could be perceived as too large. As noted by qualitative researchers, sample size is not governed by any rules but depends on intents and expected study outcomes, benefits derivable and prudence regarding available time and resources (Patton 1990; Mclafferty, 2004). They (researchers) argued that participants' numbers may vary from 4 to 20. Focus groups should not be so large as to be unwieldy to exclude adequate participation by most members nor should it be so small that it fails to provide substantially greater coverage than that of an interview with one individual' (Merton et al, 1990, p. 137; Powell et al, 1996).

Still on the focus groups this study adopted, it is noteworthy that the dynamics of this type of method raised particular limitations and corresponding strengths discussed below. Some participants refused to offer detailed accounts of their experiences and feelings due to collective (group) effect. That is, some participants did not reveal their personal experiences and feelings adequately since their views conformed with those already expressed. Thus, consensus of opinions could have been a major limitation to openness to discuss some issues further in this study. Also, such lack of openness by some participants or refusal of some participants to express their views could be due to possible domination of the group discussions by some participants. Moreover, this setting restricted some participants from expressing their feelings and experiences due to fear of possible reprisal from their employers, since participants were mostly unknown to one another (Merton et al, (1956); Catterall & Maclaren, 1997).

Not much relevant literature and studies were available on classroom implementation of civic education objectives. This could be because civic education is a relatively new subject in the school curricula and so not much research has been conducted on this aspect. Consequently, I had to rely on few studies and literature in some cases to make deductions, though the context might be different. Notwithstanding the above limitations, the findings from this study should offer the elements required for future research (proposed below) due to the strengths of the study as discussed below.

8.7:2 Strengths

In this study, a mixed methods research was applied to collect data used to examine the research questions. The survey questionnaire was used to sample participants on the civic objectives, school resources provisions and pedagogical practices. In other words, a strength of this study is using focus group discussions involving civic teachers and learners to provide in-depth explanations to justify or otherwise quantitative data. Therefore, the data results from the focus group discussions were used to underpin survey questionnaire data results. This attests to the claim that most qualitative methods could validate and vice versa other methods. Since this research involved the success or failure of civic curriculum programme implementation in the two states, I used focus group discussions to unearth reasons for school resource inadequacy and pedagogical practices from teachers' and learners' perceptions in the survey questionnaire. Thus, I used focus groups and open questions to generate in-depth explanations for survey questionnaire findings. Judiciously integrating these methods in this research has improved and validated my findings.

Also, using focus groups in this study offers an interactive setting for some participants to reveal their experiences and feelings on the school and classroom civic curriculum implementations as feedback to policy makers in a secured, conducive and permissive milieu. Focus groups helped me to obtain the true and sincere collective dispositions of the participants showing the synergistic group (teachers and learners) effects. These expressions were underpinned by participants' sense of security and openness through the interactions which ensued among group members. Of course, there could be (as stated above) a feeling of fear of reprisal, yet most participants were outspoken due to the assurance given to them that their feelings and experiences would be of the group instead of individuals. They realised that expressions are not attributed to a particular participant (Hess, 1990; Gibbs, 1997; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). These focus groups close the gap between curriculum planners and developers, policy makers, bureaucrat and curriculum implementers (teachers) and consumers (young learners). These participants offered clear perspectives regarding the realities of school resources provisions, practicable pedagogies and otherwise as well as the impact of civic contents in achieving civic curriculum objectives.

Another strength of this study is being able to involve so many civic education teachers and learners partaking in civic curriculum classroom implementation in Lagos and Ogun

states, and lecturers from various universities and colleges of education across Nigeria. Their responses gave diverse realities on the various aspects of civic education curriculum explored to determine the extent to which effective citizenship was developed in learners. Another strength of this study is the newly developed perception scale which can be an addition to measurement scales (if any) on civic education classroom implementation.

8.8 Recommendations

This study revealed that effective civic education implementation in schools can achieve stated objectives if policy makers and bureaucrats take the following drastic actions: -

Introduce mandatory curriculum content enrichment which emphasises an extracurricular programme. Teachers and learners need to practice knowledge constructed in the classroom through excursions, student (voices) debates, parliamentary simulations, service learning and other programmes which can bring classroom knowledge alive.

Also, curriculum planning and design should be done by a body independent of government control and influence. Such a body should include stakeholders like teachers and learners who practice the curriculum daily. Also, monitoring and supervision should be handled outside of government control. This is because the fear of victimisation and intimidation prevents teachers from engaging in teaching issues that go against the government in power.

Successful curriculum implementation requires adequate prior planning for teacher recruitment and training based on accurate data. Such planning should include shifting the teacher education programme from its abstract and theoretical orientation to engaging trainees in practical pedagogies involving social constructivists, transformative and reflective inquiry learning. Improvising with teachers from other subjects such as religious studies, accounting, business studies, agricultural science, geography, sociology, economics, political science without prior retraining is not the best for effective citizenship development. Such planning should make regular in-service training a priority for civic education teachers. Teachers need to be acquainted with new civic and citizenship developments and how these can be incorporated into diverse aspects of classroom civic curriculum implementation.

Schools should have resource rooms where instructional materials could be developed, utilised and stored. Teachers' creativity and initiatives can be enhanced when induced to develop instructional materials which will meet immediate local needs of young learners.

Effective performance of schools' citizenship (socio-political) reformation through developing critical citizenship in learners requires teachers enjoying immunity from all forms of reprisal leading to loss of job (except for unethical practices) while performing their statutory classroom duties of imparting curriculum content. If judges and legislators enjoy immunities while performing their statutory judicial and parliamentary duties, then teachers should be protected by relevant legislation from any form of persecution by government and private school owners. If schools' effective citizenship development is to shift from mere socio-political initiation and inequalities, then teachers should be free to guide learners, as future leaders, to imbibe basic relevant critical and global perspectives of citizenship issues.

8.9 Suggestions for further research

Considering the findings and limitations of this study, it is necessary to conduct further studies to examine specific areas of civic education curriculum. Thus, issues like:

- 1) Exploring the perceptions of civic teachers on social and community citizenship in the civic education curriculum objectives.
- 2) The impact of civic education content on developing the critical thinking of Nigeria's learners;
- 3) The impact of civic content and experiential learning through a school extracurricular programme

8.10 Conclusion

Poor implementation of Social Studies led to disarticulating citizenship issues from the content to form civic education. The intent was to focus solely on developing Nigerian learners' effective citizenship. However, the findings of this study showed that civic curriculum classroom implementation mainly emphasised learners' knowledge construction and trivially developed dispositions and skills. Knowledge construction alone is inadequate to develop effective citizenship, and requires practice to develop other citizenship components. Consequently, this study proposes that the civic curriculum is unable to achieve the stated objectives due to its overemphasis on learners' knowledge.

Also, curriculum implementation in the classroom, though eclectic however depends more on didactic/recitation which lacks community-based experiential learning. Thus, I argue that civic and citizenship content learning can be stimulated if qualified teachers are provided with adequate regular training and retraining on current active pedagogical skills and practice to enhance classroom teaching and learning and extracurricular activities in the school.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Civic Experts Questionnaire (PCEQ) (1)

Specimen of Questionnaires

This questionnaire is part of the study to explore the impact of civic education curriculum towards developing in learners' effective citizenship as required by the national education policy. Therefore, this questionnaire requires your assessment of the appropriateness, strengths and weaknesses of civic education objectives, presently implemented, towards achieving this goal (sound and effective citizenship) in young learners.

Section A

Please tick the correct option

Gender: Male [] Female []

Institutions: University [] College Of Education [] Polytechnic []

Area of Specialization: Social Studies [] Political Science [] Sociology [] others (please Specify).....

Designation: Lecturer 1 [] Senior Lecturer [] Principal Lecturer [] Reader/Associate Professor [] Chief Lecturer [] Professor []

Years of Service: 6-10 years [] 11-20 years [] 21 years and above []

Qualifications: PhD [] Post Doctoral []

Section B

This study uses the following effective citizenship development definitions: Developing effective citizenship involves:

1. Constructing Conventional and Social/Community Knowledge: Young learners need to know about subject-matter involving the political system- structure of the federal system of government, constitutional issues, organs of government and the duties of government, the political processes (roles of the government and citizens' rights).
2. Developing Civic Dispositions: Young learners need to develop essential traits which will promote citizenship values. These are traits of character and commitments such as respect for the worth and dignity of each person, civility, integrity, self-discipline, tolerance, compassion, and patriotism. Commitments include a dedication to human rights, community participation for the common good,. Also traits such as social/community obligation, self-discipline and respect for the worth and dignity of every individual; public spiritedness, civility, respect for the rule of law, critical mindedness and willingness to listen, negotiate and compromise are indispensable to democracy's success.
3. Acquiring Civic Skills: For the young learners to participate in public socio-political life requires the acquisition of civic skills such as giving meaning to socio-political statements; communication (ability to write effectively and to deliver speeches or make statements in a public forum); collaborative (group discussions) activities, community

participation skills (understand issues from social/political perspectives, collective decisions making) and news monitoring skills (to be aware of public events and issues, know about current issues).

The questionnaire is asking you about your views on the objectives by indicating whether the objectives stated below are appropriate to develop the three components of effective citizenship development and to know what you think are the strengths and weaknesses of these objectives.

Objectives of civic education

According to the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (2007), the objectives of civic education at the junior secondary education level are to:

1. acquire and learn to use the skills, attitudes, knowledge and values that will prepare the young learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives;
2. create an awareness of the provisions of the Nigerian constitution and the need for democracy;
3. create adequate and functional political literates among Nigerians and the technological knowledge to meet societal needs;
4. sensitize Nigerians on the functions and obligations of government;
5. inculcate in the child the spirit of self-discipline, hard work, cooperation and respect for authority;
6. attain the Millennium Development Goals and implement the critical element of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies.

The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (2009), stated the objectives of civic education at the senior secondary education level as to:

1. promote the understanding of the inter-relationship between man/woman, the government and the society;
2. highlight the structure of government, its functions and the responsibilities of government to the people and vice-versa;
3. enhance the teaching and learning of emerging issues.
4. Inculcate in students their duties and obligations to the society.

Section C:

Please indicate whether you agree (A)/not agree (NA)/not sure (NS) that the objectives listed in Section B are appropriate to construct knowledge by young learners at both

the junior and senior secondary levels. Such knowledge in this study involved those stated in section B above.

Agree (A), Not agree (NA), Not sure (NS)

(1)	STATEMENTS ON THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC EDUCATION	A	NA	NS
A	Acquire and learn to use the skill, attitudes, knowledge and values that will prepare young learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives.	√		
B	Attain the Millennium Development Goals and the need to implement the critical element of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies.	√		
C	Create awareness on the provisions of the Nigerian constitution and the need for democracy.	√		
D	Create adequate and functional political literates among Nigerians.	√		
E	Sensitize Nigerians on the functions and obligations of government.	√		
F	Inculcate in the child the spirit of self-discipline, hard work, cooperation and respect for authority.	√		
G	promote the understanding of the inter-relationship between man/woman, the government and the society;	√		
H	highlight the structure of government, its functions and the responsibilities of government to the people and vice-versa;	√		
I	enhance the teaching and learning of emerging issues.	√		
J	Inculcate in students their duties and obligations to the society.	√		

(2a) Specify the objective(s), if any, which you think is/are most appropriate and relevant to improve civic and political knowledge in the students from the list of the objectives above. (It is acceptable to give the number of the objective.)

A, B, C and D

(2b) Please explain the reasons for your choice.

Learners acquire requisite knowledge, attitudes and skills in order to be competent, responsible citizens.

Section D

Please indicate whether you agree (A)/not agree (NA)/not sure (NS) that the objectives listed in Section B are appropriate and relevant to develop civic dispositions by learners at both the junior and senior secondary levels. Such civic dispositions in this study involved those stated in section B above.

Agree (A), Not agree (NA), Not sure (NS)

(1)	STATEMENTS ON THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC EDUCATION	A	NA	NS
A	Acquire and learn to use the skill, attitudes, knowledge and values that will prepare the young learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives.	√		
B	Attain the Millennium Development Goals and the need to implement the critical element of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies.	√		
C	Create awareness on the provisions of the Nigerian constitution and the need for democracy.	√		

D	Create adequate and functional political literates among Nigerians.	√		
E	Sensitize Nigerians on the functions and obligations of government.	√		
F	Inculcate in the child the spirit of self-discipline, hard work, cooperation and respect for authority.	√		
G	promote the understanding of the inter-relationship between man/woman, the government and the society;			
H	highlight the structure of government, its functions and the responsibilities of government to the people and vice-versa;			
I	enhance the teaching and learning of emerging issues.			
J	Inculcate in students their duties and obligations to the society.			

(4a) Specify the objective(s), if any, which you think is/are most appropriate and relevant to develop civic attitudes, values (reorientations), social and moral responsibility in the students from the list of the objectives above. (It is acceptable to give the number of the objective.)

E

(4b) Please explain the reasons for your choice.

It spells out the right attitudes that civic education teach

Section E

Please indicate whether you agree (A)/not agree (NA)/not sure (NS) that the objectives listed in Section B are appropriate for learners to acquire civic skills at both the Junior and senior secondary levels. Such civic skills in this study involved those stated in section B above.

Agree (A), Not agree (NA), Not sure (NS)

(1)	STATEMENTS ON THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC EDUCATION	A	NA	NS
a	Acquire and learn to use the skill, attitudes, knowledge and values that will prepare the young learners to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives.	√		
B	Attain the Millennium Development Goals and the need to implement the critical element of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies.		√	
c	Create awareness on the provisions of the Nigerian constitution and the need for		√	
d	Create adequate and functional political literates among Nigerians.		√	
e	Sensitize Nigerians on the functions and obligations of government.		√	
f	Inculcate in the child the spirit of self-discipline, hard work, cooperation and respect for authority.		√	
G	promote the understanding of the inter-relationship between man/woman, the government and the society;			
H	highlight the structure of government, its functions and the responsibilities of government to the people and vice-versa;			
I	enhance the teaching and learning of emerging issues.			
J	Inculcate in students their duties and obligations to the society.			

(5a) Specify the objective(s), if any, which you think is/are most appropriate and relevant to develop civic skills in the students from the list of the objectives above. (It is acceptable to give the number of the objective.)

A, B and D

(5b) Please explain the reasons for your choice.

They explain what is expected of the citizens, what they should do to uphold democracy.

Section F

(Please tick)

6a Statement	Yes	No
Overall, do you think all these objectives are appropriate and relevant to achieve the three citizenship development (as explained above) in the learners?	√	

6b) Please explain your reasons.

They all address knowledge, attitudes, behaviours, skills and practices

(Please tick)

7a Statement	Yes	No
Do you think that any of these objectives should be reviewed in order to achieve citizenship development (as explained above) in the learners?		

b) If yes, please explain your reasons.

None

8) What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of the objectives of the civic education curriculum in achieving citizenship orientations (as explained above) in the students?

Appendix 2

Perceived Civic Teacher's Questionnaire (PCTQ)

Civic Teachers Specimen Questionnaire

Brunel
UNIVERSITY
WEST LONDON

Perceptions and Attitudes of Key Stakeholders on the Impact of the Nigerian Civic Education Curriculum on Citizenship Orientations
Teachers' Information Sheet and Consent Form

Dear Teacher,

I am conducting a research project about the impact of Civic Education Curriculum on the citizenship orientations of students in both junior and senior secondary education in Nigeria.

In view of this, you are invited to be involved in this research by exploring your perceptions and attitudes about the Civic Curriculum. If you agree to take part in the research, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your thoughts, views and dispositions on whether Civic Education Curriculum has developed your citizenship orientations. You will also be asked to participate in a focus group discussion on similar topics.

All information from the questionnaire and focus group interviews will be completely confidential. The focus groups will be carried out by me and my assistants. We will ask for your permission to audio-record the discussion sessions. Your real names will not be used in any reports, making it impossible for anyone to identify you.

You can withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the group.

If you are happy to take part in this research we would be grateful if you would sign and return the consent form below. If you have any questions at any point you can contact my research supervisor, Dr Heather Mendick. By email at: heather.mendick@brunel.ac.uk.

Yours faithfully

Samuel Olayinka Idowu

.....

I have read the information about the study and give my consent to participate.

Name _____ AKINSANYA A-O (MRS)

Signed _____ 08058300116

School of Sport and Education, Brunel University

1

CIVIC TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

A study is being conducted to explore the impact of curriculum and school related factors on the teaching of civic education to bring about changes in students' citizenship orientations. Consequently, this questionnaire is designed to examine your beliefs about the influence of human and instructional resources on the teaching and learning of civic education.

Section A

Please tick the correct option

STATE: Lagos [] Ogun [] Oyo []

Location of School: Urban [] Peri Urban []

Educational District/Zone:

(1) Lagos State: Lagos Island [] Epe [] Ikorodu [] Kosofe [] Ikeja [] Ojo [] Badagry []

(2) Ogun state: Ijebu [] Remo [] Egba []

(3) Oyo state: Ibadan [] others

Years of Teaching Experience: Ten years & below [] 11 - 20 years [] 21 - 30 years []
31 years & above []

School: KOSOFE COLLEGE MILE 12, LAGOS

Gender: (i) Male [] (ii) Female []

Qualifications: (i) NCE [] (ii) B.Sc (Ed) [] (iii) B. Ed [] (iv) Master's degree [] (v) PhD []

Area of Specialization: Social Studies [] Political Science [] Sociology [] Other specify.....

Year of Commencement of Civic education in your School 2006 [] 2007 [] 2008 [] 2009 []
2010 [] 2011 []

Section B

Recruitment

	Question	Sufficient	Insufficient	Not sure
1a)	To what extent are there sufficient number of qualified teachers to teach civic education in your school?		✓	
1b)	To what extent is the preparation of teachers sufficient to teach civic education in your school?		✓	

Training

	Question	Regularly	Rarely	Never	Not sure
2a)	How regularly have in-service training programmes been provided for civic education teachers in your school?			✓	
	Question			Yes	No
2b)	Was the training you received suitable for the development of your knowledge of the content of civic education?				✓
2c)	Was the training you received suitable for the development of your 'teaching skills in civic education'?				✓
2d)	Was the training you received allowed you to achieve citizenship orientations among your students?				✓

Instructional/Teaching Materials

	Question	Yes	No	Never
3a)	Is the content of the civic education in teachers' hand book(s) of suitable quality to achieve citizenship orientations in your students?		✓	
3b)	Is the content of the civic education students' text book(s) of suitable quality to achieve citizenship orientations in your students?		✓	
3c)	Are the other instructional materials of suitable quality to achieve citizenship orientations in your students?		✓	
3d)	Are there enough civic education textbooks in your school for the teaching of the subject?		✓	
3e)	Are there enough civic education teacher's hand book(s) in your school for the teaching of the subject?		✓	

Section C

This section is designed to explore your views on whether classroom related factors such as active teaching methods, open classroom, frequency of civic instructions, group project/presentations and the teacher's qualities can bring about changes in young people's civic orientations.

Open classroom Discussion

1a)	Yes	No
Questions		
1a) As a civic education teacher do you encourage students to express their views and opinions during lessons on political and public affairs?	✓	
1b)	Yes	No
1b) As a civic education teacher do you lead discussions on current political events like the removal of oil subsidy and other issues and problems facing the country?		✓

Group project/presentations

2a)	Yes	No
Question		
As a civic education teacher do you sometimes divide the students into small groups to discuss civic issues and problems?		✓

Teacher's qualities

3a)	Yes	No
Question		
As a civic education teacher, do you believe that your beliefs and values on certain civic and political issues are likely to influence your students' orientations and perceptions on similar issues?	✓	
3b) Question	Yes	No
As a civic education teacher do you occasionally express your views and dispositions on current civic events and issues in Nigeria?	✓	

External Influence

Questions	Yes	No
(4a) As a civic education teacher, do you bring real life situations into the civic class by inviting people from the community like government officials, journalists, or human rights workers to talk to your class?		✓
(4b) As a civic education teacher, do you organize excursions/field trips to visit places like the local government offices, prisons, police stations, or hospitals?		✓
4c) As a civic education teacher, do you invite experts to visit your school to contribute to talk about civic and political issues?		✓

Appendix 3

Civic Learners' Questionnaire (PCLQ)

Civic Learner Specimen Questionnaire

Kosofe

Brunel UNIVERSITY WEST LONDON *Ena Adelata Civi*

Perceptions and Attitudes of Key Stakeholders on the Impact of the Nigerian Civic Education Curriculum on Citizenship Orientations
Students' Information Sheet and Consent Form

Dear Student,

I am conducting a research project about the impact of Civic Education Curriculum on the citizenship orientations of students in both junior and senior secondary education in Nigeria.

In view of this, you are invited to be involved in this research by exploring your perceptions and attitudes about the Civic Curriculum. If you agree to take part in the research, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your thoughts, views and dispositions on whether Civic Education Curriculum has developed your citizenship orientations. You will also be asked to participate in a focus group discussion on similar topics.

All information from the questionnaire and focus group interviews will be completely confidential. The focus groups will be carried out by me and my assistants. We will ask for your permission to audio-record the discussion sessions. Your real names will not be used in any reports, making it impossible for anyone to identify you.

You can withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the group.

If you are happy to take part in this research we would be grateful if you would sign and return the consent form below. If you have any questions at any point you can contact my research supervisor, Dr Heather Mendick. By email at: heather.mendick@brunel.ac.uk.

Yours faithfully

Samuel Olayinka Idowu

.....

I have read the information about the study and give my consent to participate.

Name Ojo Deborah

Signed [Signature]

School of Sport and Education, Brunel University

1

(10)

CIVIC EDUCATION STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Civic education was recently introduced by the federal government under the Universal Basic Education programme to improve citizenship (values) reorientations (as explained below) in young people. This study is intended to examine your knowledge and attitudes about the influence of civic education on your citizenship orientations. That is, whether you think you have acquired any knowledge, attitudes and skills from the subject which have brought about changes in your beliefs and feelings on citizenship-related issues and problems.

The questionnaire is divided into three (3) sections (i) demographic data, (ii) impact of the subject on your citizenship orientations and (iii) determinants of these impacts such as curriculum inputs and classroom related factors.

I wish to solicit your honest and sincere responses to the items and answers to the open questions. This will help me to collect adequate data for this study. Please feel free to express your opinion as your responses will be kept strictly confidential.

Section A

Please tick the correct option

Gender: Male [] Female []

State: Lagos [] Ogun [] Oyo []

Location of School: Urban [] Peri Urban []

(1) Lagos State: Lagos Island [] Epe [] Ikorodu [] Kosofe [] Ikeja [] Ojo [] Badagry [] Shomolu []

(2) Ogun state: Ijebu Ode [] Remo [] Egba []

(3) Oyo state: Ibadan [] Oyo [] others []

(4) Osun state: Ile Ifen [] Osogbo [] others []

Class: Upper Basic 8 (JSS 2) and Upper Basic 9 (JSS 3) [] others []

Age: 13 Years [] 14 Years [] 15 years and above []

School: EVA ABELATA JUNIOR GIRLS MODEL SCHOOL

Ethnic Background: (please specify)..... Toruba.....

Section B

This study uses the following definition of citizenship orientations (Finkel, et al, 2005). Developing citizenship orientations involves:

Civic education involves learning about the duties of the government, rights of the citizens, organs of government, structure of government, democracy and human rights. It is also about you getting the skills, such as making speeches, and imbibing attitudes and values, such as self-discipline, tolerance, compassion, patriotism, respect for others, all of which will make you to become an active citizen

- 1) **Inculcating political knowledge:** Young learners need to know about subject-matter such as names of key political office holders, constitutional issues (such as the length of term for the President), the various organs of government and their duties, the purpose of government and citizens' perception of rights as enshrined and protected by the constitution.

- 2) **Developing civic attitudes and values:** Young learners need to develop essential traits which will promote citizenship values. These include traits such as respect for each person, civility, integrity, self-discipline, tolerance, compassion, and patriotism; commitments and dedication to human rights, the common good, equality, and a rule of law; social and moral responsibility, public spiritedness.
- 3) **Acquiring civic skills:** For the young learners to participate in public life requires the acquisition of civic skills such as political interpretation (give meaning to political statements); communication (ability to write effectively and to deliver speeches or make statements in a public forum); group discussion skills (understand issues from different points, making collective decisions) and news monitoring skills (to be aware of public events and issues, know about current issues).

Section C

Please specify your responses to these statements by ticking only one box per statement.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, UD- Undecided, D-Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

	Statement: Civic education lessons...	SA	A	UD	D	SD
1	Improved my knowledge of: a) Nigeria's political history	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
	b) Current political issues and events	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
2	Have not really changed my knowledge of current political issues happening in Nigerian because I already knew about them before I started taking civic education.					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
3	Helped my knowledge of topics such as: a) Obedience to the law				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	b) Voting during elections				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	c) Membership of political party					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	d) Participating in peaceful protest against unjust and retrogressive laws					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
4	Is a waste of time because it has not bring about any good noticeable change in my thinking, behaviours and values since I started taking the subject.					<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
5	Have helped me to develop good noticeable change which helps me to carry out my civic duties as a citizen.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
6	Will not change my bad feelings towards our public office holders in the political system.		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			
7	Have made me to learn and remember the need to love, respect and be proud of the Nigerian national anthem, flag and to show my patriotism at all times.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
8	Have not developed my abilities to be involved in activities that will promote human rights and other activities that will benefit the community. These have been developed from other sources.				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
9	Have developed in me the willingness and ability to participate in community service.		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			
10	Have given me power to be involved in debates and discussions on civic and citizenship related issues.		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			
11	Have developed my ability to cooperate with others in solving civic and citizenship related problems in the community.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				

Section D:

For each question, please tick the appropriate box, or write in the space provided.

	Statement	Yes	No
12	During your civics lesson, have you taken part in:		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	I role-playing		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	ii dramatize different topics in the curriculum.		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	iii games to explain civic education topic?		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	Statements	Yes	No
13a	Have the civic education textbooks help your knowledge of civic and political issues and problems?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
b	Have other instructional materials aided your knowledge of civic and political issues problems?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Statements		
14	Has your teacher invited any experts in a particular profession relating to political and civic issues to speak to you on current political issues and problems?		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	Statements	Yes	No
15	Has your teacher organized any visit to places relevant to civic lessons?		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	Statements	Yes	No
16	Does your civic teacher express his/her opinions on civic and political issues?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
	Statements	Yes	No
17	Have you taken part in open classroom discussions during civic lessons?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
	Statements	Yes	No
18	Does your civic teacher divide the class into 'small discussion groups' during civics classes?		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	Statements	Yes	No
19a	Are there other factors within the school such as social studies lesson, membership of clubs like the literary and debating society which have influenced your knowledge and dispositions on civic and political issues?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
19b	Are there other factors outside the school such as your parents, news on television and radio, which have influenced your knowledge and dispositions on civic and political issues?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

Appendix 4a-f

Local Education Districts Approval Letters

Appendix 8A


LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT
EDUCATION DISTRICT III
EPE, ETI-OSA, IBEJU/LEKKI & LAGOS ISLAND LGAs .

123, Awolowo Road,
Falomo, Ikoyi,
Lagos, Nigeria. Telephone: 01-7733746
E-mail: edu_district3@yahoo.com
P.M.B.

Ref. No:..... EDIII/TG/PS/RACR/070 Date: 14th March, 2012

BARRISTER SAMUEL OLAYINKA IDOWU,
Michael Otedola College of Primary Education,
Department Of Social Studies,
Noforija, Epe,
Lagos State.

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am directed to refer to your letter on the above stated subject matter dated 24th February, 2012.

I am also to convey approval of the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary for you to use the State Government Junior Secondary Schools located in Epe and Lagos Island zones under the Education District for your research.

I am finally to wish you success in the conduct of the research.


G.O. Sopeyin Ph.D
For: Tutor General/Permanent Secretary

Vision: To increase productivity in schools by promoting proficiency, dedication and quality service delivery.
Mission: To develop and sustain excellence in education.

Appendix 8B


LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT
EDUCATION DISTRICT II
IKORODU, SHOMOLU & KOSOFE LGAS

Maryland Schools Complex,
Maryland - Ikeja,
Lagos, Nigeria. Fax:
Telephone:
P.M.B.

Ref. No: Date: 14th MARCH 2012

THE CHAIRMAN,
RESEARCH AND ETHICS COMMITTEE,
SCHOOL OF SPORT AND EDUCATION,
BRUNEL UNIVERSITY,
LONDON.

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A PH.D RESEARCH STUDY

I refer to your letter dated 24th February, 2012

- I wish to convey the approval of the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary for you to use the State Government Junior Secondary Schools located within the district for your Ph.D research.
- Thank you.


BADEJO, T.A. (MR)
For: Tutor General/Permanent Secretary

TO ATTAIN AN ALL-ROUND QUALITATIVE EDUCATION AND LITERACY FOR SUSTAINABLE SELF-DEVELOPMENT

TELEGRAMS.....

Appendix 2c



TELEPHONE:.....

**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION,
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
ZONAL EDUCATION OFFICE
SAGAMU, OGUN STATE OF NIGERIA.**

Your Ref. No.....
All communications should be addressed
to the Zonal Education Officer

Our Ref. No. **ZEOSGM/A.325/217**

29th February, 2012
Date:.....

**A RESEARCH PROGRAM ON JUNIOR SECONDARY
SCHOOLS IN SAGAMU**

The above subject refers;

The bearer is a PhD student of Social Studies in the School of Sport and Education, Brunel University, London.

Kindly accord him all necessary assistance he may require in connection with his research topic titled: "Perceptions and Attitudes of key Stakeholders on the Impacts of the Nigeria Civic Education Curriculum on Citizenship Orientations".

Thanking you in anticipation.

**O.A. Ogunleye Mrs.
Zonal Education Officer
Sagamu**

Appendix 2d



TEACHING SERVICE COMMISSION

**OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL GENERAL
REMO DIVISION
Sagamu, Ogun State.**

All communications should be addressed
to the Principal General, Remo Division

TSC/PGR/ADM/VOL.1/060

06th March, 2012

Your Ref:.....

Our Ref:.....

Date:.....

**The Chairman,
Ethics Committee,
School of Sport & Education,
Brunel University, London.**

Dear Sir,

**Ref: Request to Conduct Research Using Selected Basic
Secondary Schools in your District as Participants.**

I write to confirm *Mr. Samuel Olayinka Idowu's* request in respect of his Research Work titled "Perceptions and Attitudes of Key Stakeholders on the impacts of the Nigeria Civic Education Curriculum on Citizenship Orientations".

I have the directive of the Principal General to inform you of his approval and the support of the teaching and non-teaching staff towards the successful completion of the project.

Yours faithfully,

OSHO FEMI
HEAD, ADMIN. & SUPPLIES

Appendix 8E



TELEPHONE NO
08039788276

TEACHING SERVICE COMMISSION
OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL GENERAL
IJEBU DIVISION, IJEBU ODE, OGUN STATE

Your Ref.....
Our Ref.....

Date February, 2012

Samuel Olayinka Idowu,
Micheal Otedola College of Primary Education,
Noforija, Epe,
Lagos State.

RE - REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

1. We acknowledge receipt of your letter dated 24th February, 2012 in which you requested for approval to Conduct Research.
2. You are hereby permitted to go ahead with your research using any teacher of Civic Education in the Public Secondary Schools, willing to participate.
3. You will however need to seek the consent of the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST) to obtain:
(i) The list of Basic Junior Secondary Schools in Ijebu - Ode;
(ii) Permission to interact with students from the schools.
4. Wishing you a fruitful research.

Mrs. M. O. Adeniji
For: Principal General

TELEGRAMS COMMEDUCAT
PRIVATE MAIL BAG NO. 2060

Appendix 8F

Telephone.....

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY,
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
ABEOKUTA, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

Your Ref. No.....
All Communications should be addressed
to the Commissioner quoting:
Our Ref. No. SEC.14/IV/206v^{II}

Date 1st May, 2012

The Chairman,
Research and Ethic Committee,
School of Sport and Education,
Brunel University,
London.

ufs: **Mr. Samuel Idowu**
PHD (Education) Student,
School of Sport and Education,
Brunel University

**CONDUCT OF RESEARCH USING SELECTED BASIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN SAGAMU AND IJEBU-ODE AS PARTICIPANTS**

In furtherance to your letter dated 7th March, 2012 requesting the Ministry's approval of your intention to carryout field work (research) using some selected Basic Secondary School Teachers and Students in Sagamu and Ijebu-Ode as participants, I am glad to apprise you that the Ministry has graciously grant you approval to commence the research exercise.

2. Consequent upon this, you are to commence the research using only Public Basic Secondary School Teachers and Students in Sagamu and Ijebu-Ode Local Government as stated in your request (see attached the list of all Basic (Junior) Secondary School).
3. Thank you.

S. O. Sokeye
Director of Education,
(Secondary Education Department)



APPENDIX 9

**LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT
EDUCATION DISTRICT III**

EPE, ETI-OSA, IBEJU/LEKKI & LAGOS ISLAND LGAS

123, Awolowo Road,
Falomo, Ikeja,
Lagos, Nigeria.

Telephone: 01-7733746
E-mail: edu_district3@yahoo.com
P.M.B.....

EDIII/PERS/ESTAB/02/12
Ref. No:.....

11th October, 2012.....
Date.....

Barrister Samuel Olayinka Idowu
Department of Social Science,
Michael Otedola College of Primary Education,
Epe,
Lagos.

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

I am directed to refer to your letter dated 16th September, 2012 on the above stated subject matter.

I am to convey the approval of the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary for you to use the services of a willing teacher and a willing student per school from ten schools of your choice in our Epe, Eti-Osa and Lagos Island zones for the purpose of your research.

Finally, you are to send the names of the selected teachers and students with their location to this office for record purposes.

Thank you.


Odunuga, A.L.O
For Tutor General/Permanent Secretary

Vision: To increase productivity in schools by promoting proficiency, dedication and quality service delivery.
Mission: To develop and sustain excellence in education.



APPENDIX 1B

**LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT
EDUCATION DISTRICT II**

IKORODU, SHOMOLU & KOSOFE LGAS

123 Schools Complex,
123 - Ikeja,
Lagos, Nigeria.

Fax:.....
Telephone:.....
P.M.B.....

EDII/DIST.II/PM/101
Ref. No:.....

8TH OCTOBER, 2012
Date.....

Barrister Samuel Olayinka Idowu
Department of Social Studies,
School of Arts and Social Studies,
Michael Otedola College of Primary Education,
Ikorodu, Lagos State.

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION/INTERACTIVE SESSION FOR CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

I am directed to refer to your letter on the above stated subject matter dated 16th September, 2012.

I am also to convey approval of the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary for you to use selected Civic Education Secondary School teachers and students located within the District who participated in the initial phase of the research.

Finally, I am to wish you success in the conduct of the research.


.....
EHIHAMEN, M. O. (MR)
FOR: TUTOR GENERAL/PERMANENT SECRETARY

TO ATTAIN AN ALL ROUND QUALITATIVE EDUCATION AND LITERACY FOR SUSTAINABLE SELF-DEVELOPMENT

Appendix



LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

EDUCATION DISTRICT III

EPE, ETI-OSA, IBEJU/LEKKI & LAGOS ISLAND LGAs .

123, Awolowo Road,
Falomo, Ikoyi,
Lagos, Nigeria.

Telephone: 01-7733746
E-mail: edu_district3@yahoo.com
P.M.B.

Ref. No:.....EDIII/FG/PS/RACR/070

15th March, 2012.....

BARRISTER SAMUEL OLAYINKA IDOWU,
Michael Otedola College of Primary Education,
Department Of Social Studies,
Noforija, Epe,
Lagos State.

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am directed to refer to your letter on the above stated subject matter dated 24th February, 2012.

I am also to convey approval of the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary for you to use the State Government Junior Secondary Schools located in Epe and Lagos Island zones under the Education District for your research.

I am finally to wish you success in the conduct of the research.

G.O. Sopeyin Ph.D
For: Tutor General/Permanent Secretary

cc: The Principal
.....
.....

Please, find above for your information and necessary action.

Thank you.

G.O. Sopeyin Ph.D
For: Tutor General/Permanent Secretary

Vision: To increase productivity in schools by promoting proficiency, dedication and quality service delivery.
Mission: To develop and sustain excellence in education.

Appendix 5

Brunel University, School of Education Ethics approval letters

Research Letters of Approval

Head of School of Sport and Education
Professor Susan Capel



Samuel Idowu
PhD Student
School of Sport and Education

Halsbury Building,
Brunel University, Uxbridge,
Middlesex, UB8 3PH, UK
Tel +44 (0)1895 267156
Fax +44 (0)1895 269805
www.brunel.ac.uk

BY E-MAIL AND HARD COPY TO COLLECT

10th May 2012

Dear Samuel

RE14-11 – Perceptions and Attitudes of Key Stakeholders on the Impacts of the Nigerian Civic Education Curriculum on Citizenship Orientations

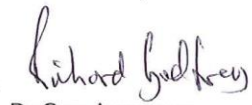
I am writing to confirm the Research Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Education received your application connected to the above mentioned research study. Your application has been independently reviewed to ensure it complies with the University/School Research Ethics requirements and guidelines.

The Chair, acting under delegated authority, is satisfied with the decision reached by the independent reviewers and is pleased to confirm there is no objection on ethical grounds to grant ethics approval to the proposed study.

Any changes to the protocol contained within your application and any unforeseen ethical issues which arise during the conduct of your study must be notified to the Research Ethics Committee.

On behalf of the Research Ethics Committee for the School of Sport and Education, I wish you every success with your study.

Yours sincerely

ff. 

Dr Gary Armstrong
Chair of Research Ethics Committee
School Of Sport and Education

Appendix 6a
Focus Group Discussions questions

Civic Learners' Focus Group Discussion Questions

1. Civic Knowledge Constructions:

(a) Has civic education classroom teaching helped your knowledge construction on Nigeria past and present political system, obedience to law, voting, political party membership and peaceful protest? (b) Has it taught you about patriotism and loyalty to Nigeria?

2. Civic Dispositions Development:

(a) Since you have started taking civic education, will you say that it is a waste of time because it has not brought out about any good change in your thinking? (b) Is civic education classroom teaching a waste of time because it has not changed your dispositions and behaviour towards our political officeholders (politicians)? (c) Whatever feelings you are having about them, has civic education teaching/learning changed it?

3. Civic Skills Acquisitions

(a) Has civic education helped you to know your rights? to be conscious of human right activities and to exercise/apply your right? (b) Has civic education taught you how to engage in activities that would benefit your community? Such activities like environmental sanitation or maybe you just feel like let me go to the front of my house and clean it along with other people? (c) Do you agree that civic education has develop in you the ability to participate in community service? (d) Did civic education help you to discuss (debate) as you are doing because I am overwhelmed? Has civic education helped to develop spirit of cooperation and collaboration in you?

4. Methods of teaching civic education

When your teachers are teaching you civic education, do they use dramatisation, role-play or simulation games method or all of them? Do you think, all these methods, if they use them can have impact in you and you want them to be using it?

5. Instructional Materials:

Do they give civic education textbooks in the schools? How many of you say you were not given? Does civic education textbooks have any impact on your life? Does it change your citizenship development? Or it is what your teacher teaches you without it in the classroom?

External Factors:

(a) Does your teacher invite people from outside to talk on civic or political issues? (b) Does your teacher take you out on excursion? Why do you think they do not do these?

Open classroom Discussion

(a) Does your teacher allow you to express your views on political or civic issues during civic class? Does expressing yourself, (your opinion) during civic education class has any impact in changing your citizenship development?

Other factors within and outside the school

Apart from civic education, are there other factors within and outside the school which helped you to learn about civic issues. Or is it only through civic education you have learnt?

Appendix 6b

Civic Teacher's Focus Group Discussion Issues/Questions

1. Recruitment:

The need for adequate recruitment of qualified teachers to teach civic education. (a) Were qualified civic education teachers recruited when civic education was reintroduced? (b) What were the possible impact of such recruitment on the teaching/learning of civic education.

2. Teachers' Continuous Professional Development

(a) How regularly do you (civic teachers) attend in-service training/retraining? (b) What are the possible impact of such training/retraining (if any) on you to achieve civic objectives?.

3. Instructional Materials:

(a) What is the quality and relevance of teachers/learners' text/hand books?. (b) How adequate were the civic education hand/textbooks provided in your schools? (c) Are there other instructional materials which you think can be used but were not provided? (d) Do you think these materials have any impact on civic education curriculum teaching/learning?

4. Open Classroom Discussion:

(a) As civic education teachers, do you operate open classroom discussion? (b) Who lead discussions on citizenship issue being taught? (c) Do you think that when you lead these discussion, it changes your young learners citizenship development? (d) Do you practice group project presentation during civic classroom learning?

5. Teacher's Qualities/Attributes:

(a) As a civic education teacher, do your citizenship views influence your learners perceptions of citizenship development?

6. External influence:

(a) Do you bring real life situation into your classroom by inviting people from the community or take your learners on excursion?

7. Methods of teaching civic education

(a) As a civic education teacher, do you practice active participatory/interactive teaching method like role play, simulation, Games, inter alia?

8. Other factors within and/or outside the school

Apart from classroom civic education, are there other factors within and/or outside the school which can impact (change) your young learners' citizenship development?

Appendix 7a

Young Learners' Information Sheet and Consent Form

Dear Learner,

I am conducting a research project about the impact of Civic Education Curriculum on effective citizenship development of learners in both junior and senior secondary education in Nigeria.

In view of this, you are invited to be involved in this research by exploring your perceptions about the Civic Curriculum. If you agree to take part in the research, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire on your views on whether Civic Education Curriculum has developed effective citizenship in you. You will also be asked to participate in a focus group discussion on similar topics.

All information from the questionnaire and focus group interviews will be completely confidential. The focus groups will be carried out by me and my assistants. We will ask for your permission to audio-record the discussion sessions. Your real names will not be used in any reports, making it impossible for anyone to identify you.

You can withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the group.

If you are happy to take part in this research we would be grateful if you would sign and return the consent form below. If you have any questions at any point you can contact [my](#) research supervisor, Dr Heather Mendick. By email at: heather.mendick@brunel.ac.uk.

Yours faithfully

Samuel Olayinka Idowu

I have read the information about the study and **give** my consent to participate.

Name _____

Signed _____

School of Sport and Education, Brunel University



Perceptions and Attitudes of Key Stakeholders on the Impact of the Nigerian Civic Education Curriculum on Citizenship Orientations Teachers' Information Sheet and Consent Form

Dear Teacher,

I am conducting a research project about the impact of Civic Education Curriculum on the citizenship orientations of students in both junior and senior secondary education in Nigeria.

In view of this, you are invited to be involved in this research by exploring your perceptions and attitudes about the Civic Curriculum. If you agree to take part in the research, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your thoughts, views and dispositions on whether Civic Education Curriculum has developed your citizenship orientations. You will also be asked to participate in a focus group discussion on similar topics.

All information from the questionnaire and focus group interviews will be completely confidential. The focus groups will be carried out by me and my assistants. We will ask for your permission to audio-record the discussion sessions. Your real names will not be used in any reports, making it impossible for anyone to identify you.

You can withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the group.

If you are happy to take part in this research we would be grateful if you would sign and return the consent form below. If you have any questions at any point you can contact [my](#) research supervisor, Dr Heather Mendick. By email at: heather.mendick@brunel.ac.uk.

Yours faithfully

Samuel Olayinka Idowu

.....
.....

I have read the information about the study and **give** my consent to participate.

Name _____

Signed _____

School of Sport and Education, Brunel University