CIVIC EDUCATION AND ENGAGEMENT AS GOALS OF SOCIAL STUDIES: KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES, AND PERCEPTIONS OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

by

PAMELA SUSAN ROACH

(Under the Direction of John Douglas Hoge)

ABSTRACT

Promoting civic competence is the central purpose of social studies education (National Council for the Social Studies, 2001). But, the success of civic education has been in question. Young voters participate at low levels but also have low levels of political knowledge (Horwitt, 1999; Putnam, 2000). Research has shown that teachers can impact students' political socialization (Horwitt, 1999). This study raised the question: how will younger pre-service teachers impact their students? A mixed methods design was used to examine secondary pre-service teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs about civic engagement and whether they perceived their role as one of promoting or developing civic engagement. Stratified, random sampling based on average voting rates by state was used to select the secondary social studies methods class at 13 large research universities (n=208).

Most participants indicated that they would prefer to teach U.S. or world history classes than teach civics/U.S. government classes. Participants' preferences for teaching history were matched by their content area coursework. Participants had taken an average of 7.81 history courses but only half as many political science courses. As expected, additional coursework in political science resulted in participants feeling more comfortable and prepared to teach civics and government topics. However, a considerable number seemed

unsure how they would teach civics. Others indicated simulation/role-play, lecture/discussion, or active learning strategies. Some participants did not feel comfortable encouraging their students to be active citizens while a few thought it was inappropriate for teachers or beyond their job description. Personal political experiences or having experiences requiring debate, negotiation, or compromise appeared to positively affect pre-service teachers' intentions to influence young peoples' civic engagement.

The policy implications of this study include advising pre-service teachers to take political science courses primarily in American politics or political theory, and supplemented by international relations and comparative politics. Teacher education programs should focus on providing opportunities for students to learn about and participate in activities requiring debate, negotiation, and compromise as well as in community government and politics. Professors, including teacher educators, should clarify for pre-service teachers the need to encourage their students to participate as citizens in a democracy.

INDEX WORDS: Civic Education, Social Studies Education, Civic Engagement, Social Studies Pre-service Teachers, Political Participation, Political Socialization, Teacher Education, Secondary Education, Political Experiences, Civic Experiences, Teaching Methods, Teaching Intentions.

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PAMELA SUSAN ROACH

B.A., Arkansas State University, 1995

M.A., University of Arkansas, 1997

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PAMELA SUSAN ROACH

Major Professor:	John D. Hoge
Committee:	Mary A. Hepburn Ronald VanSickle Paul Schutz John Maltese

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
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Dedication

To my husband, Bill, my parents, Dean and Barbara, and my in-laws, Dub and Myrna for your continued love, encouragement, and support in all my endeavors.

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Chapter I

Introduction

A democracy's lifeblood is an informed citizenry. According to John Locke (1690/1966), government is legitimate when the people consent to its rule. For meaningful consent, the people must be informed, and education is the means of informing and preparing citizens for democracy. In American society, the schools assume the main obligation for equipping the people for public and civic life (Dewey, 1916). Social studies education is the subject with the greatest obligation for civic education as it has the stated purpose of teaching young people to be citizen participants in a democratic society (National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), 1994; NCSS, 2000). Social studies teachers, therefore, have the major responsibility for achieving those civic education objectives whether they teach history, government, economics, or some other social studies subject. They are the formal agents of political learning and civic or political socialization. Social studies teachers have a civic education obligation whether the teacher consciously attends to civics or neglects its objectives.

Consequently, the attitudes of teachers toward civics, including government, politics, and citizen participation, have ramifications for the educational process. Of similar importance are the perceptions that social studies teachers have of their own skills and the role they should play in the development of student civic engagement. Accordingly, this researcher has sought to examine the attitudes of pre-service social studies teachers toward civics and how they perceive their professional obligations to the civic education of students.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to examine secondary pre-service teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs about civic engagement and whether they perceived their role as one of promoting and/or developing civic engagement. Specifically, the research questions are as follows:

(a) To what extent do secondary pre-service teachers perceive that they have a responsibility to develop and promote civic efficacy and engagement among their students?

(b) To what extent do these teachers feel well prepared and competent to achieve this goal?

(c) What experiences, both academic and non-academic, have these teachers had with government and politics; are these experiences viewed positively or negatively; and how do they perceive these experiences to influence their teaching?

(d) What instructional methods, strategies, and programs do these secondary pre-service teachers intend to use in teaching toward civic knowledge, efficacy, and engagement?

(e) Do they believe that they can positively influence high school students to become politically engaged?

These questions will be examined with a parallel, mixed-model design that mixes qualitative and quantitative approaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Why is civic education important?

Research has documented the influence that teachers can have on young people's civic learning and political socialization (Hart, 1989; Harwood Group, 1993; Horwitt, 1999; Rigdin, 1996). Likewise, the effects of civic experiences during the adolescence and adult years have been shown to contribute to civic learning (Easton & Dennis, 1967; Hahn, 1996;

Niemi & Hepburn, 1995; Parker & Jarolimek, 1984). In general, recent research suggests that social studies teachers through classroom instruction and other educational experiences can contribute considerably to the civic education and the civic engagement of young people. However, current studies reveal that the results of civic education among young people are problematic.

In reporting the results of the National Association of Secretaries of State (NASS) New Millennium study, Horwitt (1999) concluded that young people feel unprepared by schools and parents to enter the world of elections and voting; and not surprisingly, he found that a majority of young people are apolitical. Furthermore, though young people understand that government can affect their lives, they do not view government as addressing or even attempting to address their problems. Finally, Hart (1989), Horwitt (1999), and Hepburn (2000) found that young people identify with the "rights" portion of life in a democracy without having a complete understanding of the "responsibilities" that go along with these rights.

On a more positive note, Horwitt (1999) finds that young people are volunteering. However, their volunteer work is often individualistic and non-political and teaches little or nothing about community and public issues. For example, they may assist in soup kitchens for the homeless or in other locations without studying relationships to the community. Horwitt calls on schools, parents, media, politicians, and parties to get involved and attempt to improve young people's attitudes and knowledge. Notably, the NASS study found that young people feel that teacher encouragement would make a difference in their voting rates.

Political sociologist, Robert Putnam (2000) has further researched the problem of declining political engagement in the United States and specifically analyzed the relationship to education in *Bowling Alone*. Putnam (2000) noted that although young people today do

volunteer at higher rates than previous generations, they are actually alienated from the political process, disengaged, and politically illiterate. Putnam attributed the disengagement to this younger generation's materialism and concern for the good of the individual as opposed to the public good. He also attributed the disengagement to a lack of any widespread concern for the common good or collective success stories during their lifetimes such as living through a depression or widespread war. The events of September 11 have likely changed Putnam's characterization of the current generation as they live through the "war" on terrorism. Putnam called for schools to increase both subject and process knowledge through teacher questioning of students, service learning projects anchored in civics, and increased opportunities for community oriented extracurricular activities.

The Critical Role of High School Instruction

Over several decades, studies of civic participation have shown more education is clearly associated with more participation (Putnam, 2000; Teixiera, 1987; Verba, Scholzman, and Brady, 1995). According to the 1990 U.S. Census, 55% of American youth did not attend college and as a result were less likely to participate in civic life than youth who did attend college. A decade later, the Current Population Survey for 2000 indicated that 51% of American youth did not attend college (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). However, this slight increase in the number of young people going to college has not been accompanied by any increases in the voting rate of young people in mid-term or presidential election years since 1990 (Putnam, 2000; U.S. Census Bureau, 2002; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). As Horwitt stated, "Schools have a critical role to play in political socialization" (1999, p. 44). Civic education in high school is the last chance for a majority of young people to receive formal instruction and practice being citizens.

However, researchers have found that the high school years may show a downward trend in conventional forms of political participation. Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz (2001) report that 85% of American ninth graders were willing to vote. Although voting intentions reported at age 14 are "not necessarily predictive of future voting behavior" (Torney-Purta, et al., 2001, p. 123), it is interesting that such a large percentage consider voting while only a few actually vote when they are eligible (Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995).

Other research has documented the importance of political experiences during the teenage and young adult years (Easton & Dennis, 1967; Hahn, 1996; Niemi & Hepburn, 1995; Parker & Jarolimek, 1984). Therefore, this four-year period that closely corresponds to high school is a pivotal period in young political lives that can be impacted by teachers. Thus, an examination of secondary pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the social studies goal of developing active, engaged citizens can inform the advancement of social studies teacher education.

Teachers, Pre-service Teachers, and Civic Education

Hart (1989) and Rigdin (1996) surveyed and interviewed classroom teachers regarding their opinions on civic education and teacher education. Based on the results, Hart (1989) advocated that schools take a more active role in civic education by promoting voter registration, teaching civics relevantly, and by implementing service learning. Rigdin (1996) found that pre-service teachers need assistance especially with process knowledge and content.

Research by Kickbusch (1987), Stanton (1987), Strassburger and Ekman (1984), and Torney-Purta (1983) all support the need for better preparation of pre-service teachers for

civic education although each takes a different approach as to how this should be accomplished. For example, Kickbusch (1987) called for pre-service teachers to be given more choice in teaching styles through greater experience with different teaching models. Others propose improving the subject knowledge of pre-service teachers. Stanton (1987) for example, found that many pre-service teachers do not have adequate knowledge of our government, and Strassburger and Ekman (1984) found the need for teachers to study a type of traditional liberal arts curriculum with a global focus. Additional research pointed to a democratic classroom climate in schools to generate participation and decision-making as one key to improving civic education (Hepburn, 1983; Torney-Purta, 1983; Torney-Purta, Oppenheim, & Farnen, 1975). The implications for teacher education are significant because developing a democratic classroom climate depends on a teachers' behavior in the classroom as well as his or her content knowledge. The outcomes of several political science studies dealing with political ignorance or a debilitating lack of political knowledge (Bennett, 1991; Junn, 1991; Putnam, 2000) tend to indicate that teacher education is critical.

Investigations of pre-service teachers' attitudes towards civic education are needed because little is known about these teachers. Most pre-service teachers are in their early twenties. Research has documented that younger generational cohorts have less participation, knowledge, and efficacy levels than older generations (Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Young people have an incomplete understanding of the political process (Bennett, 1991; Finkel, 1985; Hart, 1989; Hibbing & Theiss-Morse, 1996; Horwitt, 1999; Junn, 1991; National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). Although there is specific research that has shown that teachers can impact students' civic learning (Hart, 1989; Harwood Group, 1993; Horwitt, 1999; Rigdin, 1996), other research into age cohorts implies that the current group of pre-service teacher candidates are likely to be less politically

aware than previous generations (Nie & Hillygus, 2001; Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Consequently, more study of the civic attitudes and competence of today's social studies pre-service teachers is needed. Such research is in keeping with Armento's (1991) plea for research that investigates the question of "What knowledge, skills, and attitudes do social studies teachers need in order to effectively address social studies goals?" (p. 192-193).

This study takes into account suggestions by Patrick and Hoge (1991) who described the need for future research in the field of civic education. They called for improving research by grounding it in conceptual frameworks, using multiple data collection methods, and using precise definitions of concepts with a concern for aiding practitioners. This study attempts to address these suggestions by using both survey and interview strategies to collect data from future teachers. The definitions used in this study are commonly accepted definitions in the field of civic education rather than re-operationalizing terms just for this study. The sources of the definitions are discussed in Chapter 3. Conceptually, this research is situated in the literature of the fields of democratic education, teacher education, and political socialization.

Significance

This research will inform those concerned with civic education about the capacity and intent of a sample of pre-service teachers to achieve civic education goals. To improve civic education, it is crucial to understand the status quo in social studies teacher education. Without knowing the current situation, it would be very difficult to recommend solutions to young people's apathy and lack of political knowledge. In addition, gaining an understanding of how pre-service teachers decide which methods to use in teaching civics

concepts is important. Finally, understanding pre-service teachers' political attitudes, knowledge, and teaching intentions will aid policymakers, college administrators, and teacher educators in reforming and improving social studies teacher education programs.

Delimitations

Although an examination of pre-service teachers at all K-12 grade levels could be justified, this study examines only those preparing for careers in secondary education. The rationale behind this choice is twofold. First, researchers find that high school is often a period when students' attitudes about political participation decline (Nie & Hillygus, 2001; Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995) while the formal civic coursework is greater than in lower grades. Second, high school provides the last formal opportunity for many children to gain the necessary knowledge they need to interact with their governments. Also, there is little opportunity for learning these skills in such non-college post-secondary settings as technical schools and little engagement of this population in typical civic education opportunities for citizens (Horwitt, 1999).

This study focuses on pre-service teachers rather than in-service teachers. As mentioned before, most pre-service teachers are in their early to mid twenties. As such, their generation is noted for having low civic knowledge and efficacy (Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). This researcher considers it important to examine how this population plans to teach civic concepts as well as how prepared they are to undertake this instructional task.

This study will examine a broad spectrum of pre-service social studies teachers because civics concepts and the overarching goal of preparing students for citizenship fits in all sub-disciplines of the social studies curriculum. For example, political attitudes and

knowledge could be influenced during a United States history lesson on the founding of our nation. Therefore, all students preparing to teach secondary social studies will be sampled, not just those who intend to teach civics or government classes.

Limitations

The sample characteristics and the descriptive nature of this study are limitations. Since pre-service teachers may undergo many changes after their internships during their first years of teaching, this research cannot reflect this later maturation because of its limited duration. In addition, this research makes no attempt to measure actual teacher behaviors or the effects of instruction on students' attitudes and behavior. Therefore, no conclusions can be drawn concerning teacher effectiveness or the effects teachers have on students' attitudes. Further details regarding limitations are discussed in Chapter 3.

Summary

This study examines whether secondary pre-service social studies teachers feel they should teach their subjects primarily to promote civic competence and whether they feel equipped to do so. It also examines how they plan to achieve this goal. This research will help to identify pre-service teachers' attitudes about citizenship transmission as well as how they plan to develop active citizens. Further, it will illustrate what skills the pre-service teachers possess that will help them achieve these social studies goals and how prepared they feel they are to achieve them. Finally, this research should aid decision makers who are concerned about civic education in improving social studies teacher education programs. The answers to the research questions may contribute to discussions centering on the concern that political attitudes of students decline while in high school. Additionally, the

potential relationship between this decline and the fact that pre-service teachers graduating in 2002 represent a generation known for its low levels of political knowledge and efficacy should be explored.

Researcher Qualifications

I have ten years of experience as an enumerator for the Arkansas Agricultural Statistics Service conducting interviews in person and by telephone and keeping field notes. Also, I completed the coursework for the University of Georgia's qualitative research certificate program in May 2001. Other coursework in the quantitative area assisted me in developing the survey instrument.

Researcher Biases

I was the principal instrument for the interview data collection in this study. As such, my perspective may have affected my findings (Ratcliffe in Merriam, 1998). Therefore, it is essential that I identify any possible biases and assumptions that I bring to the research and allow the reader to be the final judge.

I have a varied background that includes teaching, Model United Nations and Model Arab League participation, and graduate work in political science. I have a Master's degree in political science with emphasis areas in American politics, international relations, and public administration. I taught American National Government at a large state university for one academic year and was mentored for one semester before I began teaching. Also, I conducted an informal in-service program that prepared students to participate in Model United Nations (MUN) simulations. I also assisted with the organization of the Model Arab League program at the University of Arkansas-Fayetteville.

As a result of these experiences, I brought my own assumptions to this research. One assumption is that teachers serve a key role in preparing students to be active citizens in a democracy. I believe that many teachers may need assistance, either in the form of additional training or preparation time, to fulfill this role because they may not have a strong background in political science coursework. While student teaching, I was the only pre-service teacher who had a background (B.A., B.S., or M.A.) in political science while enrolled at two universities[1]

My background of teaching and contacts with MUN faculty advisors predisposes me towards simulation methods. I believe these types of methods are more effective for many students in gaining greater understanding of complex subjects. Another assumption is that I believe effective simulations present realistic issues of conflict and negotiation. Therefore, I was cautious about making assumptions based on my own predisposition toward the use of simulation methods. In particular, I made a conscious effort when hearing a participant describe the use of a simulation method to not assume that their rationale for simulations was the same as my own. Instead, I probed and questioned carefully to determine their intentions in using this method.

Another area of concern deals with my beliefs regarding effective teaching. Since I am predisposed towards active methods of teaching, I also attempted to exercise caution when hearing participants discuss the use of traditional methods because either method or a combination of the two can result in success or learning. These are areas where I watched for the "hot and cold sensations" as I searched out my subjectivities (Peshkin, 1988).

As a way of compensating my participants for their time, I offered to provide them with copies of resources detailing civic education activities and simulations as well as web

[1] I took some of my education hours at another university and transferred them to the institution where I did

sites that are particularly useful and to share technology skills with them. In return, I expected their honesty and voluntary cooperation in this research unless they decided to stop their participation. Withdrawal from participation was an option throughout this study. This research was conducted under the auspices of the University of Georgia's Institutional Review Board and the IRBs of the participating institutions. Although participants might be identified from their surveys, all information reported to me was kept confidential. I accomplished this by using pseudonyms in all interview tapes, transcripts, and narratives which were stored in a locked file box.

Researcher Assumptions

In this section, I identify my assumptions about political attitudes, political knowledge, and political participation. I also identify my beliefs regarding teachers' academic preparation. I believe that pre-service teachers' ideas about how to teach civics or government are influenced by internal (personal) and external (social or community) factors including their own political attitudes and beliefs, political knowledge and participation, and academic preparation.

Political attitude and belief formation. I believe that an individual's political attitudes and beliefs are influenced by his or her political background, political knowledge, and the social capital level[2] in his or her community. In my opinion, several internal factors make up political backgrounds such as an individual's contacts with government, contacts with political leaders and officials, party affiliation, and media influences as well as external factors

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my student teaching.

[2] Putnam (2000) defines social capital as "connections among individuals—social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them" (p. 19).

such as parents' and peers' political activity and party affiliation. Political attitudes are strongly influenced by activities such as discussing politics at the dinner table or accompanying a parent to the voting booth. I clearly remember the grating noise that the lever in the voting machine would make as my Mom pulled it to cast her vote!

Personal contacts with local, state, and federal bureaucracies as well as city council officials help shape individuals' perceptions of government. Previous political experiences and political backgrounds influence political attitudes towards future contacts with government both positively and negatively. My experiences with local government have been mostly negative. During the spring semester of my junior year of high school, our school board went into executive session at a board meeting and fired three teachers without notice. The next day, the majority of our high school (grades 7-12) walked out for most of the morning classes in protest. Later that week, the teachers were reinstated. I learned that not all governments follow the rules of procedure and due process. The next experience I had was with my hometown's city council in 1993. In one meeting, three readings were waived and a measure passed that created an improvement district for the purpose of paving a gravel road. According to the terms of the district, landowners would pay for the cost of paving according to the amount of land they owned that fronted the road. One landowner was a staunch supporter of this measure. He owned very little road frontage but planned to develop his 160-acre lot into a subdivision. Our neighborhood joined forces, signed petitions, and presented our appeal to the city council just as another neighborhood had done about three months earlier. We used their petitions word for word since we knew the city council had previously accepted them. One petition indicated opposition to the improvement district. The other petition indicated that the signee had previously supported the district, but had now changed his or her opinion and was in opposition. When our night

came, the council threw out our "changed our minds" petitions, and we lost our appeal. Our neighborhood then sued the city, the city council members, and the city attorney. Before the suit came to trial, the city passed a sales tax measure to pave all county roads that had been annexed (this included ours so the suit was moot).

Individuals may view officials from the federal level differently than local or state officials (Ainsworth, Deitz, & Harward, 2000). Also, people tend to view their own member of Congress more positively than Congress as an institution (Rosenthal, Kurtz, Hibbing, & Loomis, 2001). Even though a person may have negative feelings about local government, he or she may be very optimistic in terms of their local leaders. This phenomenon is common in several arenas including public schools. Someone may feel that public schools are generally failing, but that his or her local school is doing a good job (Rose & Gallup, 2002). Similar beliefs are common when evaluating political leaders. Active participation in political parties shapes citizens' attitudes and beliefs for future involvement. Media coverage of scandal and lawmaking will also influence political attitudes and beliefs. Political attitudes and beliefs may affect the likelihood of whether an individual participates in politics or not.

Political knowledge and participation. By no means does this researcher intend to imply that voting is the only means of viable participation or that voting is superior to other forms of participation. When compared to other activities such as petitioning, campaigning, and working in one's community, I believe that voting is a short-term commitment with low costs aside from registration and becoming informed. I believe that it is a reasonable expectation for social studies teachers to encourage their students to participate by voting. According to Jankowski and Strate (1995), there are "four basic modes of conventional participation: campaigning, voting, communal action, and personalized contacting" (p. 90).

According to Verba and Nie's seminal work (1972), voting rates are linked primarily to civic attitudes and socioeconomic status (SES). However, Jankowski and Strate (1995) utilized a time series analysis of political participation data and concluded that age also affects rates of political participation. Jankowski and Strate found that young people are most likely to engage in voting and trying to influence others' vote choices. But, young people are much less likely to engage in other forms of participation because "they are distracted by a host of concerns such as getting an education, finding a mate, raising young children, and establishing strong roots in a local community" (p. 91). Therefore, I utilize voting as a measure of participation since young people are over represented in my sample. Using other modes of participation would exaggerate the lack of participation due to age effects.

But, acquiring political information and then participating in political life tend to reinforce each other as political backgrounds positively correlate with political knowledge. The more political knowledge a person has, the more likely that individual is to participate politically because the costs of collecting information are reduced. Some examples of activities that increase political knowledge include joining a political party or interest group, petitioning, writing letters, voting, campaigning, or doing church and or community work (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995) as well as becoming politically informed by watching CSPAN or listening to talk radio. Each act of political participation by an individual increases that individual's level of political knowledge. In turn, increases in political knowledge make future acts of political participation more likely. Junn (1991) details this spiraling reciprocal relationship. I believe that political knowledge and participation shape an individual's level of political efficacy. Efficacy may not correlate positively with knowledge (high levels in one may be paired with low levels in the other), but is influenced by it and in turn affects other political attitudes. For example, as our neighborhood campaigned against

the improvement district, people who were involved in the process became more knowledgeable about local law and attended city council meetings. These experiences with protest taught me that change could only be successful through grassroots activism coupled with some luck.

Academic preparation. I think that the way pre-service teachers are taught in their secondary, undergraduate, and graduate programs influences their teaching styles. I believe that arts and sciences professors, particularly the attitudes of political science faculty, affect pre-service teachers' later attitudes and practices when teaching civics and government classes and civics concepts. I agree with Hibbing and Theiss-Morse (1996) that an active approach is best when it comes to teaching government classes. I attempted to model my teaching on the activities that had made political science come alive for me. Then, I tried to develop those types of activities/lessons for other subjects in political science in order to increase my students' understanding of government and its relevance to their lives.

However, many college introductory government classes are not taught actively. They tend to emphasize facts rather than processes. Further, textbooks are not helpful when it comes to enhancing political attitudes because they too emphasize facts over process (Hibbing & Theiss-Morse, 1996), and authors tend to exhibit negative attitudes towards bureaucracies (Cigler & Neiswender, 1991). Thus, pre-service teachers are frequently exposed to a different approach from that promoted in many methods classes. But, a minor or at least four courses in political science is needed for a knowledge foundation in content along with teacher education courses.

According to the American Political Science Association's Education Committee (APSA, 1994), students preparing to teach civics, government, and social studies courses should take at least 12 semester hours of primary political science courses in order to be prepared to teach civics and government classes. APSA recommends that they take an additional 15 - 21 semester hours of advanced political science courses. The course distribution should be spread among the sub-fields. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 2000) has developed thematic program standards to evaluate institutions' preparation of social studies teachers. In my opinion, a student would need to take 15 hours of political science courses in order to meet the thematic standards. Further, the 15 hours must be spread across the sub-fields of political science to include courses in political theory, international relations or foreign policy, comparative politics, American politics, and the introductory course in American government. However, few pre-service teachers preparing to teach social studies devote this much of their coursework to political science.

Chapter II

Literature Review

The purpose of this study is to examine secondary pre-service teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs about civic engagement and whether they perceived their role as one of promoting and/or developing civic engagement. The review of literature for this study is organized into five categories: the importance of civic education, adult civic efficacy and knowledge, adolescent civic efficacy and knowledge, teacher preparation, and recommendations for increasing participation by students and adults.

The Importance of Civic Education

Over the centuries, philosophers and political leaders have agreed that democracy depends upon the education of citizens. Cotton (1996) states it this way, "Nearly all writers on the subject of citizenship education agree that it is essential for preserving America's democratic way of life" (p. 1). For example, in 1916, Dewey clarified the importance of education to a democracy:

> The devotion of democracy to education is a familiar fact. The superficial explanation is that a government resting upon popular suffrage cannot be successful unless those who elect and who obey their governors are educated. Since a democratic society repudiates the principle of external authority, it

> must find a substitute in voluntary disposition and interest; these can be created only by education (p. 87).

Dewey, in a fuller explanation wrote, "A democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience" (p. 478). Citizens, therefore, must know how to interact with other people, including their representatives, and be willing to do so. Education is the tool that can achieve these goals. Dewey and Locke both stress that democracy depends on educated or informed citizens consenting to their government.

More recently, Barber (1992) countered Plato's ideas that the common man (or woman) was unable to be a citizen of their government, as they could not achieve "reasonableness." Wrote Barber (1992):

> Public education is democracy's answer to Plato. It enables individuals to become citizens capable of discovering common ground and rendering sound political judgments. The point of democracy is not to empower the ignorant and the unreasonable, but to educate them so that, when empowered, they can govern reasonably and live well (p. 266).

Today, civic education is a high priority of many national organizations and leaders. Civic education was one of the national education goals of the Goals 2000: Educate America Act. It stated in section 102 of the legislation:

(3) STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND CITIZENSHIP.--

(A) By the year 2000, all students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, *foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts,* history, and geography, and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our Nation's modern economy.

(B) The objectives for this goal are that--

(iii) all students will be involved in activities that promote and demonstrate good citizenship, *good health*, community service, and personal responsibility;

(U.S. Department of Education, 1991; GOALS 2000, 1994).

Please note that the italicized phrases "*foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts,"* and *"good health"* which appear on the website (http://www.ed.gov/legislation/GOALS2000/TheAct/sec102.html) were added at a later date to GOALS 2000 after protests from National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), the American Political Science Association (APSA), and other concerned organizations. However, "demonstrate good citizenship" was in the original GOALS 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 1991, p. 49).

The NCSS places a priority on civic education. It is clearly part of the organization's purpose statements and is evident in the NCSS position statement for character education. The statement on character education includes an emphasis on presentation of relevant

subject matter to form a "conceptual framework for an understanding and appreciation of the democratic way of life" (NCSS, 1997, p. 226). Further, in May 2001, the NCSS Board of Directors approved a position statement written by the Task Force on Revitalizing Citizenship Education. In that statement, the emphasis and priority on civic education is evident from two sentences:

> NCSS believes that the core mission of social studies education is to help students develop the knowledge, skills, and values that will enable them to become effective citizens. …. NCSS further believes that preparation for democratic citizenship should be part of the education of every student at every level. (NCSS, 2001, p. 319)

According to the NCSS, teachers assume responsibility for modeling democratic ideals and practices (NCSS, 1997, p. 226).

Another large academic organization, the APSA, has advocated quality civic education in the schools since its formation in the early 1900's. In 1996, the APSA appointed a task force on civic education to encourage research and communication about civic trust and education, develop materials dealing with civic trust and participation, and organize workshops for the exchange of ideas. The mission of the APSA task force included the following objectives:

- Providing clear and analytic descriptions of the current trend toward "civic disengagement" from the political process,

- Providing evidence regarding the failure to politically educate students in the craft and practices of the "political machine," and
- Articulating strategies for educators to utilize in teaching the craft and practices of politics (APSA, 1996).

All of these goals and guidelines illustrate the importance placed on teaching students about civic participation in the United States. Further, all emphasize the duty of educators to prepare students to be active or "engaged" citizens.

However, what if teachers do not teach the importance of political participation to their students, and apathy levels continue to remain high? What if young people do not become voters? How will a politically uninformed, inactive citizenry influence the future government? Bennett and Resnick (1990) integrated theory and empirical work to answer these questions. They used three different national surveys[3] and evaluated the data through differences of means tests and by constructing indexes.

Though Bennett and Resnick (1990) concluded that "nonvoters do not pose a palpable threat to democracy or to unpopular political groups' civil liberties" (p. 799), they pointed out two serious consequences of nonvoting. One is that nonvoters make predicting election outcomes more difficult. Since nonvoters do not have a history of supporting established parties, their voting decisions are more difficult to predict if and when they do vote. The second is more basic to democracy: "Nonvoters are much more likely to be without a voice when it comes to many of today's important political issues" (Bennett & Resnick, p. 799). Hence, their representation is more like being "subject" than "citizen."

[3] Data sources include the CPS's National Election Studies, NORC's 1985 General Social Survey, and Gallup's 1987 "The People, Press, and Politics" poll.

Although voters' and nonvoters' policy preferences are not that different, the number of nonvoters allows small numbers of intense activists to have greater power. The policy views of intense activists are not only different from nonvoters but they differ from the majority of voters as well. Nonvoters tend to be more moderate in their views. This situation can cause political officials to be overly responsive to issue activists. Bennett and Resnick state it best:

> If voting makes elites attend to citizens' opinions, its fundamental value to democracy is firmly established. A ballot may be, as some contend, a very blunt instrument for tying elites' behavior to ordinary people's wishes. But, just as the proverbial Missouri mule's attention could be captured by applying a two-by-four to his forehead, so also have elections occasionally been successful in refocusing public officials' attention to the electorate's desires (p. 800).

The act of voting is one sure way of transmitting policy preferences from the constituency to the elected official. Consequently, civic educators are obliged to prepare students to be voting citizens. That preparation should include the political knowledge necessary to cast an educated vote as well as how to register and find the correct polling place.

Current Research on Adult's Civic Efficacy and Knowledge

Since democracy depends on informed people giving their consent to the rule of government, it is problematic that the political participation and political knowledge levels of both adults and young citizens in the United States are low (Bennett, 1991; Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Stephen Bennett (1991), in a study of adult political

knowledge, compared the percentage of adults who lacked political knowledge[4] in the United States in 1944 with 1984. In 1944, there were items sampling knowledge of social groups' ideologies, differences in the ideology of the two main political parties, and political figures such as Harry Truman. In 1984, there were items sampling recognition of political figures, knowledge of Congressional candidates from an individual's district and their political parties, recognition of the balance of power between the parties in Congress, knowledge of Presidential candidates and their political parties, awareness of national problems, and awareness of the political parties strengths and weaknesses. Bennett defined "know-nothings" or those lacking in political knowledge as those who scored less than 60%. He found that those lacking in political knowledge still make up a large percentage of our population (36% in 1944 & 29% in 1984). To identify the primary causes, Bennett used multiple Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression after factor analyzing many variables. The results yielded seven predictors: education, political interest, gender, mass media usage, internal political efficacy, income, and age. Internal political efficacy is the feeling that one can influence government or that one's vote counts. Bennett found that there was no change in the social or economic factors of the population among those who lack political knowledge. The citizenship theory of democracy posits that people can improve their political competence through education (Bennett, 1991, p. 477). Yet, he determined that as education levels increased over time, levels of political ignorance remained approximately the same. Although this study focused on adults, it indicates the general lack of political knowledge by a large segment of the United States' population that is arguably traceable to limited and ineffective education. Bennett's findings are particularly disturbing to many researchers because it has long been held that as the number of years spent in school

[4] Data sources include the National Opinion Research Center's 1944 Election Study, Center for Political

increased, political knowledge would increase. However, since the 1940's, this has not occurred. Though there are more opportunities today for gaining knowledge, the channels of information are more difficult to interpret because of increased fragmentation, brevity, and sensationalism present in news reporting (Hepburn, 1998a, 1998b).

The full explanation of exactly how political knowledge relates to participation remains, but a relationship is evident. Jane Junn (1991) examined the type of relationship that exists between political participation and political knowledge. She found that the relationship is reciprocal in nature. Each time an individual participates; his or her political knowledge is increased. In turn, this increased knowledge thereby boosts the probability that the individual will participate in the future. Junn posited that political knowledge and participation build upon and influence one another. Junn developed a "nonrecusive simultaneous equation model" of this relationship that allows for influences by socioeconomic factors on both variables (p. 194) using data sets from the National Election Study (1980) and the General Social Survey (1987). These exogenous variables include "knowledge about politics, strong affiliation with a political party, and involvement in labor unions, church, and other organized groups" (p. 195) as influences on participatory behavior; and "experience in political activity, exposure to political information through the mass media, and the level of individuals' cognitive verbal skills" (p. 195) as influences on political knowledge. Junn's work further developed the reciprocal model reported by Finkel (1985) showing that "engaging in political action does influence certain political attitudes" (Finkel, 1985, p. 891). Junn found that as knowledge increases, the likelihood of participation increases and vice versa. Junn's model is important for citizenship education because it provides a new way of conceptualizing the forces that influence future political participation

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Studies 1984 National Election Study, & 1986 National Election Study.

and knowledge over time. Junn's work is particularly important for educators because it confirms the need for practice in social studies and political science classes. In other words, memorization is not enough. According to Junn, opportunities for participation would reinforce knowledge and enhance future knowledge as well.

Current Research on Adolescent's Civic Efficacy and Knowledge

Information about adults' political efficacy and knowledge is relevant to this study because pre-service teachers are adults and also because most American adults were once public school students in the United States. However, pre-service teachers will be teaching adolescents. Thus, this study examines the literature on both adults and adolescents' political efficacy and knowledge. Since most pre-service teachers are in their early twenties, several studies of youth in the last twelve years that may have tapped the civic knowledge and attitudes of their generation are examined.

Democracy's Next Generation (Hart, 1989), the National Commission on Civic Renewal (NCCR, 1998), and the National Center for Educational Statistics' National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) (NCES, 1999) all reported low levels of civic knowledge for young people as compared to previous generations. Hart surveyed (n=1,006) and interviewed (n=100) young people ages fifteen to twenty-four, and conducted surveys (n=405) and two focus groups (n=29) with teachers. The NCCR study utilized information from a wide range of citizens who testified before the commission (1998, p. 51 & 65) and used the General Social Survey (GSS) to construct an Index of National Civic Health (INCH). NAEP surveyed fourth (n=5,948), eighth (n=8,212), and twelfth (n=7,763) graders along with the fourth and eighth grade teachers. Although NCCR and NAEP were conducted a decade later than Hart's research, all three studies showed similar results

although none are longitudinal. The common themes that emerge from these studies include youth disengagement from their communities and from the political process as well as a deficiency of civic knowledge. After the Hart study found young people to be materialistic, politically alienated, and focused on freedoms rather than responsibilities of democracy in 1989, the finding by the NCCR report nine years later that young people lack confidence that they can affect change is not surprising as it seems the trends that Hart described have continued.

The NCCR (1998) finding that all socio-economic (SES) levels experienced a drop in engagement (over a 25 year period tracking trends in engagement) is similar to Hart's (1989) earlier findings that youth are increasingly materialistic, that youth define a good citizen as a good person rather than one who is civically active, and that they learn civics mostly at home. All three trends cut across SES levels. The NCCR report quotes Alan Wolfe as stating that, "an unpleasant feature of contemporary middle-class morality is a 'perverse pleasure in powerlessness'" (p. 6). Today, Americans have more opportunities for participation but still feel powerless, indeed perhaps implicitly identifying themselves as "victims" rather than citizens (p. 6). Again, avoiding civic responsibility leaves the individual as subject rather than citizen.

Thus, the NAEP (NCES, 1999) findings of higher scores among students who discuss their studies at home, who use the Internet in civics class, who volunteer, and who work 11-15 hours per week are not surprising because each of these categories represents a connection being made to other citizens. The Hart (1989) study's recommendation for service learning programs to improve civic awareness may have been somewhat prophetic. A decade later, those respondents in the NAEP study who did volunteer work scored higher than their peers who had not volunteered.

However, although young people are volunteering, many are doing so in ways that are largely individualistic (i.e., not community service oriented), "social rather than public service" (Horwitt, 1999, p. 16), and one-on-one in nature. As with previous findings (Hart, 1989), community connections are not a priority for young people. Young people were less concerned about America than with being successful or having a close family. Also, they seemed unlikely to forge community ties when only one-third reported, "believing that people can be trusted" (Horwitt, 1999, p. 16). This lack of trust in others may well carry over to lack of trust in politicians. Fifty-seven percent of Horwitt's respondents agreed either strongly or somewhat with the statement, "You can't trust politicians because most are dishonest" (Horwitt, 1999, NASS National Questionnaire p. 15).

Again in 1999, researchers found that young people identified with the rights portion of life in a democracy without a complete understanding of the responsibilities that go along with it (Hart, 1989; Horwitt, 1999). Young people understood that government does affect their lives, but they did not view government as addressing or even attempting to address their problems. This perceived lack of concern by government and politicians for young people combined to further discourage the young people from voting because they do not believe they will benefit from it. Not surprisingly, they are apolitical and their voting rates continue to decline.

According to the NAEP report, student descriptors that resulted in "higher average scale scores" on the civics assessment included students who fit into the following groups: white; did not attend public schools, or when they did attend public schools were educated at rural/small or urban fringe/large town schools; not eligible for free-lunch programs; and parents with higher levels of education (NCES, 1999). The civics scores are based on a framework incorporating knowledge, civic dispositions, and civic skills (NCES, 1999). The

National Association of Secretaries of State (Horwitt, 1999) study portrays the young non-voter as white, male, typically with only a high-school education, not a student, not on the Internet, and not a newspaper reader. Thus the NASS study agreed with many of the NAEP results. In summary, higher levels of parental education, parental voting, and education as well as being Caucasian correlated with young people who respond to notions of civic duty.

Horwitt characterizes the voting attitude of many youth as "participation optional" (1999, p. 20). These youth feel unprepared by schools and parents and unobliged to enter the electoral world. Horwitt also reported that only about one-third of eligible young people (age 18-24) voted in 1996 and that the voting rate actually decreased in 1998. Other findings include the expressed statements in focus groups that if a person is uninformed, he or she should not vote. Many young people share that sentiment. Therefore, since they are uninformed, they do not vote.

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) study (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald, & Schulz, 2001) sampled fourteen year olds in 28 countries and evaluated them on three domains: a) democracy/citizenship, b) national identity/international relations, and c) social cohesion/diversity. The first domain encompasses the defining characteristics of democracy and the rights and duties of citizenship. The second domain includes the relationship of national identities to orientations with regional organizations and other countries. The third domain examines how discrimination is viewed by young people and their ideas about diversity and social cohesion.

In the United States, the IEA sample consisted of 2,811 ninth graders in 124 schools (Baldi, Perie, Skidmore, Greenberg, and Hahn, 2001, p. 7). The results showed that American ninth graders did well when compared with other countries on the civic

knowledge scale and on the civic skills subscale. Additionally there seems to be a question of motivation. Those children who indicated that they did not intend to pursue college were less likely to state that they plan to vote and were less knowledgeable than those children who indicated that they plan to go to college. Even at age 14, college plans are already shaping civic engagement. Voting in every election was "somewhat important or very important for good citizenship" to 83.2% of American ninth graders and "following political issues in the newspaper, on the radio, or on television" was "somewhat important or very important for good citizenship" to 65.7% of American ninth graders (Baldi et. al., 2001, p. 59).

However, overall, the political knowledge and skills found at age 14 appear to diminish in a few years or are not internalized, as the 18-24 year old group does not turn out to vote in high percentages. Also, Mann (1999) reviewed the Survey of American College Freshman and found that 'keeping up to date with political affairs' was a goal for only 26% of freshmen in 1998 and only 14% reported "discussing politics in the past year" (p. 263). In the fall of 2001 there was an increase in interest by freshman in political affairs with 31.4% saying it was essential to keep up compared to 28.1% in 2000 (Engle, 2002). This raises questions about what happens during high school to political knowledge and attitudes.

Socialization Research. The political socialization of young people occurs through parents, peers, school, social groups including church, media, and community experiences. Civic experiences that involve students gradually shape their attitudes toward participation.

An early political socialization study by Easton and Dennis (1967) found that early orientation to civic engagement "does not occur in a uniform fashion for all children" (p. 38). Attitudes were influenced by a child's IQ and parents' social status. Easton and Dennis

postulated that early acquisition of the norm of efficacy may alleviate later frustration and disillusionment with democracy. They concluded, "childhood socialization may thus have central significance for the persistence of a democratic regime" (p. 38). Their research involved over 12,000 elementary students' evaluations of statements that were then factor analyzed. All of the students were Caucasian, aged seven to thirteen, and were from eight large metropolitan areas. Easton and Dennis' (1967) research supported the idea that early political socialization is important, but generalizeability was limited by the demographics of their test group. Over three decades, subsequent studies challenged their conclusions about the significance of political learning in the early years.

Walter Parker and John Jarolimek (1984) provided a review of research literature and a persuasive argument for the social studies in *Citizenship and the Critical Role of the Social Studies*. This National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) bulletin emphasized that political learning occurs from early childhood through adulthood. Based on the previous socialization studies, Parker and Jarolimek stressed that early learning "establishes the basic orientations of a person's political identity and the later political learning of adolescence and adulthood adds knowledge and skills" (p. 26). The authors stated that the impact of citizenship education in the schools depends upon a student's other environments. For students in higher SES homes, citizenship education tends to reinforce the messages they receive at home. Students from lower SES homes may depend more heavily upon the school's citizenship education because they receive less of it at home. In either case, citizenship education provided by the school can be influential. This bulletin makes a good argument for the importance of social studies and that teachers should be prepared to fulfill their role as citizenship educators.

Niemi and Hepburn (1995) stressed the importance of evaluating and extending political socialization research based on their analysis of the field. Based on findings in later studies, they urged that new research should focus on young adults between the ages of fourteen and twenty-five. After synthesizing the literature, Niemi and Hepburn state that early learning, while important, is permeable and subject to change. The radical movements of the seventies showed that young people could shift considerably from the political attitudes of their elementary school years. The analyses in this article assist in explaining why some young adults never become politically active or take activism into new roles such as church involvement. The authors also emphasize that both high school and collegiate courses in civics and government play a significant part in the political socialization process.

Robert Putnam (2000) further probed the analysis of civic engagement through socialization by measuring changes in "social capital" since the early 1900's. Putnam defined social capital as, "Connections among individuals—social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them" (p. 19). Putnam's concept of social capital is similar to Junn's (1991) more political thesis that each act of participation increases political knowledge thereby increasing the likelihood of future participation. Each time individuals interact with their neighbors exchanging favors or protesting the condition of their apartments; for example, they increase not only their social capital but also that of their neighborhood.

Putnam (2000) analyzed the effects of television and other media, the workplace, sprawl, generational change, and various other factors to determine how they affect social capital levels and how social capital affects our communities. Important among these factors was generational change because it describes the differences between the people who grew up during World War I and those who grew up during the Gulf War. Examples of

differences in younger generations include an increasing tendency towards individualism and less active participation in associations. Putnam found, for example, that younger generations engage in less league bowling than previous generations. Also, some bowling lanes now feature television screens playing the evening sitcoms thus allowing bowlers to avoid having in-depth conversations with their fellow bowlers. Sprawl, another factor, is used to describe the spreading of urban and suburban areas away from the old downtown areas. Sprawl is also associated with the destruction of downtowns and the creation of strip malls and superstores next to the new suburban subdivisions. Sprawl has influenced volunteer activities because increased commuting times have reduced the amount of free time available after the workday ends. Putnam finds that as these factors or problems with civic life diminish our stock of social capital, the conditions in our communities become less pleasant. For example, crime rates may increase and the quality of local schools could decrease. Also, citizens are more isolated from their neighbors and communities. In turn, there is less collective activity and more political isolation as well.

Some of Putnam's evidence about American society was problematic. One flaw was his use of General Social Survey (GSS) data on associational memberships. The NCCR report (1998) critiqued the GSS data because it reports only the average number of formal group memberships and did not include informal associations. Therefore, GSS data possibly understated the number of memberships or counted some organizations too heavily since not all groups are equally participatory (Putnam, 2000, p. 420; NCCR, 1998, p. 35). Even if Putnam has understated the number of memberships, his analysis of the different categories of membership from local to "check-sending" was illuminating. Even though the number of memberships may not have changed substantially, the type has. Writing a check once a year requires a much lower level of involvement than does serving as a member of an

organization that has a local chapter. Regardless of the weaknesses in his work, Putnam's argument was thought provoking as it relates to civic engagement because it prompts a generational analysis across the factors he examines. Moreover, it fits with other research (NCCR, 1998) in that it shows a generational decline in civic engagement. At the very least, he prompted a rethinking of the Lockean concept of the governed and of the causes of America's civic participation crisis. For this study, Putnam's work indicates that younger teachers possess lower levels of social capital than older teachers do. How will this decreased social capital affect their future students who are likely to have even lower levels of social capital if Putnam is accurate?

Media effects. Research has suggested that higher levels of education make citizens' information processing tasks easier and less costly in terms of time and effort and thus translate into a more informed public (Bennett, 1998; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). More information is available today than ever before with the increased use of the Internet and the widespread accessibility of cable and satellite television. However, quantity does not equal quality. As lifestyles have become more hurried, the number of news stories presented in a brief sensational style has increased (Hepburn, 1998a). The rapid and sensational style of reporting does not increase our understanding of an event; if anything, it provides a view of reality that oversimplifies the event being reported. (Hepburn, 1998a & 1998b). This explosion of news sound bites increases the burden of processing information for all citizens; therefore, critical analysis skills are necessary tools for effective news consumption.

Hepburn (1998a & 1998b) illustrates just how large the impact of television is on young Americans by critically reviewing current and past research. In the mid-nineties, children averaged twenty-eight hours a week of television, and fifty-four percent had their

own television set (1998b). While these statistics are astonishing, there are more serious implications from Hepburn's research. She finds that the amount of television viewing is inversely related to education levels. More educated people tend to watch less television (1998b). Likewise, Putnam (2000) found that younger, well-educated people tend to selectively view television at lower rates than older, well-educated people do. That is, they are less likely to view critically than older people are. Also, Janda, Berry, and Goldman (1995) stated that people with higher education levels tend to get their news from newspapers rather than television (p. 194-196). Further, the content of major network's news programming on television tends to leave the viewer with a shallow knowledge of public affairs (Hepburn, 1998a). Hepburn (1998a) details how the television news consumer cannot control the pace or the depth of the information they receive. Further, she explains how news program developers have simplified story lines often presenting the news as a personal account and also how their main concern is entertainment in order to gain market share. These factors contribute to the television news consumers being uninformed about public issues if television is the sole source of news (Hepburn, 1998a).

This research indicates how difficult is it for a citizen to become informed or politically literate by watching television or quickly reading a newspaper. Hepburn (1998b) proposes a new model of socialization that incorporates the effects of electronic media as an agent of socialization. The model may be used as a framework for developing students' critical analysis skills in the secondary curriculum. Hepburn (1998b) effectively illustrates the importance of educating students about the effects of media as one means for them to become politically knowledgeable. Her model may also be used to facilitate teachers developing the necessary skills for educating students to be critical consumers of media as well as learning about the various interferences in becoming knowledgeable such as the

shallow presentation of information and advertisements. Thus, the implication is that teachers using the model are better prepared to educate students to be critical consumers of media, and their students, as a result, are more capable of gaining the skills that will help them become politically knowledgeable.

Even if young people know how to view television critically, how likely are they to watch or read political news? Bennett (1991) examines the problem of political ignorance and refers to those who are politically ignorant as "know-nothings." It makes sense that "democratic citizens need information to make informed judgments" (Bennett, 1998, p. 535). However, the task of educating students about the quality of information they receive and the effects of media is difficult because young adults under the age of thirty tend to not follow news about public affairs (Bennett, 1998; Hepburn, 1998a, 1998b). Bennett used viewing data to research this assertion and found that young adults under age thirty are more likely to watch entertainment television or sports programs than news programs. Young adults under age thirty also pay little attention to news stories about national, international, and local politics when compared to older adults. Explanatory factors include young adults' increased mobility, their lack of firm attachment to a political party, and apathy or indifference to public affairs. Not only do young Americans need knowledge, they also need to be "turned on" to civic affairs. But, are they so "'turned off and tuned out'—to borrow a phrase from another time—that they do not appreciate why their society is worth keeping?" (Stein in Bennett, 1998, p. 7). Bennett borrows this quote from Ben Stein circa early 1980's to illustrate his doubts about young Americans' potential for democratic citizenship. Bennett calls for media, parties, and public officials to help reach young Americans.

Teacher Preparation

Most pre-service teachers are in their early to mid-twenties. As such, they are members of a generation known for low levels of political knowledge and efficacy. However, little is known specifically about the political attitudes and knowledge of the college students who are social studies pre-service teachers. But, research does exist on college students' attitudes in general.

Pre-service teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and preparation. Based on their work, Kickbusch (1987), Stanton (1987), and Strassburger and Ekman (1984) have advocated better preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching civics or American political systems high school classes. Each takes a different approach. Kickbusch (1987) in a study of social studies student teachers found they only exhibited a few teaching skills. He called for pre-service teachers to be given more choice in teaching styles through greater experience with different teaching models. Stanton (1987) surveyed future teachers and found that many pre-service teachers do not have adequate knowledge of civic education or American government especially Constitutionalism. Strassburger and Ekman (1984) propose that teachers prepare to teach by studying a type of traditional liberal arts curriculum blending humanities and the social sciences with a global focus. After reviewing the development of American political theory, they recommend the study of five components: history of important ideas, social and political thought, economics, organizational behavior and human motivation, and comparative history, literature, or government to "place our American experience in an international context" (Strassburger & Ekman, 1984, p. 87). These education studies are reinforced by several studies in political science dealing with problems

of political ignorance (Bennett, 1991; Junn, 1991; Putnam, 2000). These studies relate to all young Americans, some of whom will become teachers.

Hart (1989) and Rigdin (1996) surveyed and interviewed classroom teachers regarding their opinions on civic education and teacher education, respectively. Teachers in the Hart study blamed parents for their children's political ignorance and suggested that national service learning be mandatory. Based on the study, Hart (1989) advocated that schools should take a more active role in civic education by promoting voter registration, teaching civics relevantly (making connections with students' lives), and by implementing service learning in the local community. Hart called for partnerships to be established between educators, media, public officials, and citizens (including parents) to address these problems. Rigdin (1996) studied teachers' opinions on improving teacher preparation programs. She found that pre-service teachers of various subjects need assistance especially with process knowledge and content. She proposed that these problems could be effectively addressed through partnerships of teachers, College of Education faculty, and Arts and Sciences faculty.

Additional insight into pre-service teachers' civic attitudes is available from a more general study of college students by Nie and Hillygus (2001). They use the National Center for Educational Statistics Baccalaureate and Beyond data to examine the effects of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) math and verbal scores, grade point averages, and college curriculum on college students' civic engagement. Their findings emphasize the importance of earlier educational work on students' civic engagement levels. However, they reported that higher verbal scores on the SAT positively correlate with increases on the overall citizen participation scale, while higher math scores negatively correlate. Verbal ability is closely related to the types of skills needed for political activities such as persuading, speaking, and

writing. Specifically, language ability facilitates political participation. Nie and Hillygus (2001) find that college curriculum does have an effect on citizen participation. In an earlier study that examined engagement among college majors, Hillygus (2001) found students who majored in social science fields to be more politically active six years later than students who majored in other fields. Nie and Hillygus (2001) found that students who enrolled in at least ten credit units of social science courses scored much higher on the citizen participation scale than other students taking ten hours in subjects such as science, engineering, humanities, business, and education. In fact, those students taking education coursework were less likely to vote than everyone but business students. Nie and Hillygus concluded, "It is quite interesting that the individuals given the responsibility of providing a civic education for the nation's children do not appear among the civic-minded themselves" (p. 25). However, the authors' scale did not separate data from education students into their subject areas such as future math teachers, social studies teachers, or English teachers.

Methods of teaching. Classroom climate, teaching strategies, the approach a teacher uses for instruction, and the ways in which teachers interact with students will impact students' understanding and comprehension. Students who reported discussing and analyzing the problems of democracy and using current events in the classroom had higher political knowledge NAEP scores than students who reported memorizing material after they had read it (Niemi & Junn, 1998). Exercises and general classroom experiences that allow students to practice participation are instrumental in illustrating the means and significance of participation to students (Hart, 1989; Horwitt, 1999; Rigdin, 1996). These learning experiences are necessary if students are to become democratic citizens and responsible voters. Former National Council for the Social Studies president Denny

Schillings endorses such school-based learning, "Where do we think citizens come from? You can't enter full-blown into public life at 35. You need to practice. Practice should start early" (personal communication, April 8, 2003).

Introducing controversial issues in civics classes is a promising technique for getting students to participate or become engaged. Based on an evaluation of current research that focuses on building a "democratic classroom climate," Hahn (1996, p. 348) identified three items as necessary to foster an issues-centered discussion: content, conflictual pedagogy, and an open classroom climate. She advocated that the best way to encourage learning of political knowledge is by discussion of controversial issues. Hahn's work illustrates the importance of a democratic or open classroom climate to the development of political efficacy and participation, and she provides criteria for the implementation of a curriculum emphasizing current issues.

Hepburn (1983) and Torney-Purta (1983) found that one key to improving civic education is to provide students with a more democratic classroom climate. Torney-Purta emphasized the importance of reflective exercises for both pre-service and in-service teachers for developing an awareness of their classroom climates. Hepburn analyzed research that showed the significance of democratic classrooms for developing tolerance and participatory skills. The 2001 IEA study further validated the contribution of classroom climate and discussion of public issues (Baldi et. al., 2001). An open classroom climate was found to be a strong predictor of both civic engagement and knowledge.

Nearly two decades later, the IEA (Torney-Purta et. al., 2001) study examined classroom climate in the civic education of 28 countries. The IEA study defined an open classroom climate as one in which the student perceived that he or she could speak openly in class. Students in the United States reported a mean score of 10.5 as compared to an

international mean of 10.0 on "Perceptions of Open Classroom Climate for Discussion" (Torney-Purta et. al., p. 139). Females in the United States (10.8) were even a little more positive than males (10.3) (Baldi et al., 2001, p. 34-35). But, students in the United States reported being more likely than other countries to complete worksheets (87.7%) or read the text (88.9%) (Baldi et. al., p. 33). However, only 44.9% reported debating and discussing, and 39.7% reported using role play or mock trials (Baldi et. al., p. 33).

An article by political scientists, Hibbing and Theiss-Morse (1996), contributed to the research and recommendations in the area of controversial issues in the classroom. Based on a 1992 survey of over 1,400 individuals, Hibbing and Theiss-Morse (1995) examined the relationships between educational attainment and levels of political knowledge, interest in politics, involvement in politics including voting, and approval of government. Hibbing and Theiss-Morse (1996) reexamined the 1992 survey data and concluded that civics instruction is too sanitized. Most teachers focus on the institutions of government and the checks and balances system without discussing the conflict, negotiation, and compromise that exist in our heterogeneous society. Because students do not have a realistic idea of how their government works, they become cynical and apathetic when reality does not match with their preconceptions. To reduce cynicism and increase understanding of government, Hibbing and Theiss-Morse urged secondary and college level teachers to offer a more realistic study of the way that local, state, and federal governments interact to provide citizens with services.

In the same 1996 article, Hibbing and Theiss-Morse also examined civics textbooks to determine if they emphasize the same abstract relationship between government institutions. They found that they did not contain material that would prompt students to appreciate the democratic processes in action. Additionally, the books failed to discuss

diversity in our society in terms of its influences on varying issue preferences. Hibbing and Theiss-Morse recommend that educators should place greater emphasis on conflict, debate, and compromise as tools to work through divided public opinion and reach agreement. In order to appreciate politics, people must understand that politics is driven by differing preferences that require compromise to achieve agreement according to Hibbing and Theiss-Morse.

Recommendations for increasing participation. Several analysts have recommended that schools, parents, media, politicians, and parties get involved and attempt to change young people's attitudes and knowledge (Hart, 1989; Harwood Group, 1993; Horwitt, 1999; NCCR, 1998; Putnam, 2000). Schools should make the basic goal of social studies, educating for citizenship, a high priority. Young people in the Horwitt study felt that teacher encouragement would make a difference in their voting rates. Teachers should also educate students on "how to be an effective citizen" by changing the focus of civics and government classes to emphasize issues, candidates, and politics thus supporting Hibbing and Theiss-Morse's (1996) call for an increased focus on process rather than the typical American government textbook's emphasis on institutions. Emphasizing process would provide students with a more realistic idea of how their government works.

Other activities suggested by Horwitt (1999) included volunteering in political campaigns as well as making classes more democratic or participatory. Schools can conduct voter registration drives and support teachers conducting service learning projects in the community. Although prescriptive advice on politics is somewhat of a taboo in schools (Beale, 1937), Horwitt points out that students are saying they want to hear teachers' opinions regarding voter participation.

Summary

The NCSS and APSA emphasize that civic education is fundamental to American democracy. Socialization research illustrates the benefits that could be reaped if practicing being a citizen was started early and continued through high school and college. Research on media indicates the difficulty of obtaining information from varied sources and the negative effects caused by sensationalism that interferes with the level of issue analysis needed. The literature on pre-service teachers, although scant, indicates that more preparation is needed for pre-service teachers to be able to fulfill national civic education goals. This study examines to what extent pre-service teachers recognize civic education as a goal of social studies and assesses their level of commitment to that goal. Furthermore, it examines what strategies and methods these pre-service teachers intend to employ to achieve these goals.

Chapter III

Procedure

Design of the Study

This study examined secondary pre-service teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs about civic engagement and whether they perceived their role as one of promoting and/or developing civic engagement. To gather this information, a parallel, mixed-model design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) was used that employed surveys and interviews with students enrolled in methods of teaching social studies classes. This chapter discusses the following items: sample selection, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, pilot studies, validity and reliability issues, and study limitations.

Sample Selection

The participants in the study were chosen using stratified, random sampling in an attempt to control for varying levels of civic engagement across the country. Voting rates were used because they are a valid measure of civic engagement in the United States and are more easily calculated than subjective measures of political culture. First, voting rates from the 1992, 1996, and 2000 elections were used to classify states into 4 quartiles from the lowest voting rates to the highest as shown in Table 1. States were only included if they had at least one university that was classified as a "research extensive" (previously known as Research I) university by the Carnegie Foundation. This decision resulted in dropping Alaska, Montana, North Dakota, and South Dakota from the sample.

Table I

Classification of States into Quartiles by Voting Rate Percentages

Quartile 1		Quartile 2		Quartile 3		Quartile 4	
Hawaii	40.96	New York	49.26	Delaware	53.63	Nebraska	58.54
Nevada	44.03	Tennessee	49.51	Illinois	53.66	Idaho	58.89
South Carolina	44.35	Arkansas	49.59	Rhode Island	54.90	Connecticut	59.45
Georgia	44.39	Florida	49.62	Utah	55.90	Wyoming	60.91
Texas	44.52	Maryland	50.52	Ohio	56.91	New Hampshire	60.92
California	45.70	Virginia	50.81	Louisiana	57.02	Oregon	61.16
Arizona	47.00	Kentucky	50.90	Washington	57.22	Iowa	61.26
West Virginia	47.11	Alabama	50.96	Massachusetts	57.37	Vermont	63.20
New Mexico	48.15	Indiana	51.16	Colorado	57.43	Wisconsin	64.18
North Carolina	48.64	Pennsylvania	52.29	Kansas	57.72	Minnesota	68.15
Mississippi	48.92	Oklahoma	52.74	Missouri	57.83	Maine	70.41
		New Jersey	52.76	Michigan	57.90		

Next, five states were randomly selected from each quartile so that a total of twenty states were in the sample[5]. In each selected state, the original land grant institution was identified since some states had several research extensive universities and because of the unique mission of land grant universities. Then, each land-grant university was investigated

to determine if a methods of teaching secondary social studies class was offered. Two universities were eliminated from the study because they did not offer a teacher education program in social studies. Finally, the professor teaching the methods class in fall 2001 or spring 2002 was identified at each university through telephone calls and Internet research[6].

Access to this sample of students enrolled in the methods classes was gained by requesting permission from the professors teaching the classes (see Appendix A for copies of letters and emails to professors). The professors were asked to offer their students the opportunity to participate by administering the survey during class. Three professors declined involvement in the study. Permission to access the sample was obtained from the University of Georgia's Institutional Review Board (IRB) as well as from each university's IRB (see Appendix B for copies of letters to IRBs and Appendix C for consent forms). Another university was eliminated because it was impossible to fulfill their IRB requirements, and one other institution's IRB application required an involved permissions process that resulted in a lengthy review beyond the last day of class. Thus, the final sample size was reduced to 13 institutions.

Eligible participants were defined as those who were enrolled in a "methods of teaching secondary social studies" class and who would begin their student teaching internship in either the same semester as their methods class or the next semester. It was anticipated that 250 students[7] would be eligible to participate in the survey from 13 different universities; however, 208 students completed the survey. Most of the decrease in the expected sample size was due to changes in class schedules, lack of time when the survey

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[5] Five states per quartile were chosen based on the recommendation of the dissertation committee to reduce the sample to a manageable size.

[6]The methods of teaching social studies class was taught by several different departments including curriculum and instruction, social science education, and history departments.

was administered during the last class, or absences during survey administration. One of the 13 institutions had a low response rate (28%) when compared with the rest of the sample (89%). Overall, the response rate was 83%. The smallest class size was five students while the largest class had 32 students enrolled. Further information about the sample will be provided in the findings in chapter 4.

Students from 2 different universities in the second and fourth quartiles (Table 1) were asked to participate in follow-up interviews (see Appendix D for the interview protocol). The interview sub-sample was selected using maximum variation among degree majors and survey responses (Merriam, 1998) to purposefully sample from these pre-service teachers. At least one political science major was included at each interview site, and participants who had answered the survey completely were eligible for selection. The in-depth interviews took place during the end of the participants' student teaching internships.

Definitions

Terms to be defined in this study include civic education, civic engagement, civic and political knowledge, and pre-service teachers. This study used accepted definitions for civic education and civic engagement. Civic education is defined in the *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors* as "Learning activities, curriculum, and/or educational programs at any educational level, concerned with rights and responsibilities of citizenship—the purpose is to promote knowledge, skills, and attitudes conducive to effective participation in civic life" (Houston, 1990, p. 37). Civic engagement is defined as participation in civic life as demonstrated by an individual participating in politics by joining a political party, interest group, petitioning, writing letters, voting, campaigning, or doing church and or community

[7] The sample size was an estimation at the beginning of this study since classes had not started at some

work with civic purpose (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Civic and political knowledge is defined as students' levels of knowledge about political concepts such as those utilized in the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Civics Consensus Project of 1998 and the New Millennium project (Horwitt, 1999). Civic education programs include commercially prepared programs that focus on enhancing students' citizenship skills in some way such as We the People or American Promise for example.

Pre-service teachers are those who are currently enrolled in teacher preparation courses. The term "student teachers" refers specifically to those students who are enrolled in a student teaching internship. The term "pre-service teachers" includes both student teachers and students taking classes towards their teaching certificates.

Data Collection Procedures and Instrumentation

A 41-item questionnaire and in-depth follow-up interviews were used to gather the information needed to answer the five research questions of this study. Before survey administration, each participating professor was asked to read a statement explaining the procedures (see Appendix E for the statement). The questionnaire was administered in each professor's social studies methods class between November 2001 and March 2002 (see Appendix F for the final survey instrument). The follow-up interviews were conducted in person in May 2002.

Open and closed-ended survey. The survey included both open- and closed-ended questions that assessed levels of knowledge about political processes and political efficacy beliefs. Open-ended questions comprised 26.9% of the survey and examined the pre-service

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universities.

teachers' political and civic backgrounds as well as how they intended to teach civics. Open-ended questions also asked which civic education concepts these pre-service teachers planned to emphasize and requested that they detail the methods they would use to teach those concepts. The closed-ended questions (73.1%) were adapted in part from Hepburn and Napier's (1980) *Opinionnaire on Political Institutions and Participation* (OPIP) and the National Association of Secretaries of State's (NASS) *New Millennium Project: American Youth Attitudes on Politics, Citizenship, Government and Voting* (Horwitt, 1999). Some questions from the OPIP and NASS instruments were edited and brought up to date. Permission for use of selected questions was obtained from Hepburn and NASS. The survey instrument was constructed using Creswell's (1994), Dillman's (2000), and Fraenkel and Wallen's (2000) guidelines for survey development. The final reliability analysis of the instrument minus demographic and open-ended items resulted in an alpha of 0.81.

Pilot studies. Two pilot studies were conducted to check that the questions on the survey instrument adequately reflected the purpose of this study and addressed all five research questions in conjunction with the interview protocol. The survey instrument was piloted twice: in a curriculum class in July 2001 and in a methods class in September 2001[8]. In July 2001, the survey was piloted in a curriculum class taught at a research extensive institution that was in the final sample, and there were 18 respondents. Based on these data and comments from colleagues, dissertation committee members, and Dr. James Bason[9], several items were rephrased and reordered, the directions expanded, and the format changed to a booklet (Dillman, 2000; Frankel and Wallen, 2000). After the events of

[8] The survey instrument was piloted before and after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. The survey was administered in its final form beginning October 31, 2001.
[9] Director of the Survey Research Center, Institute for Behavioral Research, University of Georgia.

September 11, an additional item was added asking participants about the influences of recent events on their survey responses (see Appendix F, item 41).

Some items (36 and 40) contain suggestive language in order to investigate the degree to which participants fully agree. In item 36, the word combat was used to evoke a response from participants to determine to what degree they agreed with the item. In item 40, the word influence was used for the same purpose. This language was used in order to better gauge participants' attitudes towards promoting civic engagement in their future students. A more neutrally worded item would have most likely resulted in socially desirable responses from participants.

The revised survey instrument was piloted again September 28 in a methods and curriculum class of 21 students at the same institution where the first pilot occurred. The researcher observed the participants completing the second pilot survey. Immediately after the second pilot was conducted, volunteers were asked to participate in retrospective interviews (Dillman, 2000) to investigate their reactions to the instrument. As a result of feedback, three items and the directions on the front and back covers of the instrument booklet were revised. No student participated in both pilot studies. Because one student was enrolled in the methods class used in the final sample and in the curriculum class that was used for the first pilot, this participant was removed from the final sample and those responses were not analyzed.

The interview protocol was written by the researcher. Some dissertation committee members and colleagues edited early drafts. Pilots of the interview protocol were conducted with five colleagues. One interview was conducted with a student teacher. This student teacher was enrolled in the methods and curriculum class used in the second pilot. Several revisions were made in the items as well as in the directions for responses.

Interviews. Since survey questions could not fully answer this study's research questions, follow-up interviews were used to further investigate the questions. The interview was used to "find out what is in and on someone else's mind" (Patton, 1990, p. 278). Selected participants were contacted by phone to schedule their in-depth interview as well as to "break the ice" and begin building rapport with the investigator.

The interviews were semi-structured: they consisted of several types of questions to be addressed but not necessarily in a particular order. Interview questions and the follow-up questions were a mix of hypothetical, ideal, devil's-advocate, and descriptive question types. In order to capture participants' additional ideas, the last question of each interview was "Is there anything that you would like to add or that should have been asked that has not been asked?" The order of interview questions was maintained unless a participant brought up an issue that would be addressed later in the protocol. In that case, the interviewer probed when the respondent introduced the issue and then restated their earlier response when that issue was revisited later in the interview protocol.

Data Analysis Procedures

A qualitative content analysis method was used to examine the open-ended survey questions as well as the interview responses. Traditionally, content analysis has been considered a quantitative technique used to count the frequency of messages or word use in documents. Qualitative content analysis is inductive and involves "the simultaneous coding of raw data and the construction of categories that capture relevant characteristics of the document's content" (Merriam, 1998, p. 160). According to Patton (1990), content analysis

is "the process of identifying, coding, and categorizing the primary patterns in the data. This means analyzing the content of interviews and observations" (p. 381).

The analysis began by examining the participants' survey responses as a way of establishing a starting point and then developing coding based on those surveys' open-ended questions. From the coding, categories were developed. Possible categories that could emerge from open coding analysis include "structures and functions approach to teaching" or "issues or process based approach to teaching." Then, each participant's coding and categories were compared to the other participants to further refine and revise the categories.

The six in-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted, transcribed, and coded in the margins one by one. Once again, content analysis was conducted. The resulting categories from this final data analysis were collapsed and compared to the existing categories making sure that they were exhaustive, mutually exclusive, and conceptually congruent. Contradictions and themes that seemed to be missing from the analysis were explored further. The data were examined once again specifically searching for contradictions and their contexts as well as missing themes.

Validity and Reliability

The issue of internal validity was addressed through the use of triangulation of data sources and methods of data collection and by acknowledging the researcher's biases upfront (Mathison, 1988; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 1990; Peshkin, 1988). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), triangulation originally referred to a surveying technique but now triangulation techniques "include triangulation of sources (e.g., interviews and observations), of methods (e.g., quantitative and qualitative), and of investigators" (p. 91). In this study, triangulation consisted of the use of multiple sources of data including surveys and

interviews from different research sites and multiple methods involving both quantitative and qualitative (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The sample was regionally diverse[10]; therefore, variation in the sample does exist. The respondents also varied in their level of commitment to teach civics or government classes and in their degree majors. Therefore, this triangulation of data sources should enhance internal validity. Open-ended survey and interview questions were used to ensure that participants' realities, truths, and understandings were adequately represented. Additionally, a variant of peer examination was employed as the dissertation committee and major professor supervised this research (Patton, 1990). The researcher's biases and assumptions are stated at the end of the first chapter (page 10). These strategies may have increased the reader's confidence in the internal validity of the research findings and better assure that those findings are congruent with the realities, truths, and understandings of the participants.

Threats to internal validity include subject mortality, subject attitudes, and history. Of the 42 non-respondents, 18 were from one university. These 18 non-respondents represent a mortality threat to internal validity because it is not known how they might have responded. The rest of the non-respondents were spread throughout the sample sites and represented either absences from class or a drop in enrollment between the time the professor agreed to allow his or her class to participate and the administration of the survey. Participants' attitudes or social desirability may have influenced responses to survey questions as well as the Hawthorne effect. However, the Hawthorne threat may be less important because this study is not experimental (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Internal validity may be threatened by a history effect since the survey and interviews were separated by several months in most cases thus leaving the possibility that events

[10] The sample consisted of 4 Northeastern states, 3 Southern states, 4 Midwestern states, and 2 Western states.

occurred that could affect a pre-service teacher's responses. The events of September 11, 2001 are also a history threat because they may have heightened civic awareness and changed participants' attitudes towards government. Also, the "war on terrorism" was ongoing during this study as most surveys were administered between October 31, 2001 and early December 2001. Some responses may have been socially desirable especially considering the time period of the study. People may not have wanted to acknowledge that September 11 had affected them. On the other hand, people may have seen it as socially desirable to acknowledge the impact of September 11; however, this alternative is unlikely since only 32 responses (15%) indicated that their responses were influenced by recent events (see Appendix F, item 41). But, participants' self-reports may be a high or low estimate (Hessing, Elffers, & Weigel, 1988).

Other possible limitations of this study regarding internal validity include maturation, subject characteristics, location, instrumentation, and data collector bias. Maturation could have affected the responses as students naturally should develop their teaching skills during their student teaching internships. Another threat was that of subject characteristics since the respondents may have varied in unplanned ways that could have influenced the results. The sample varied by age, major, and level of student, as some participants were graduate students. Location also presents a threat to this study's internal validity since the data collection sites varied. This researcher attempted to control for the location effect by using a stratified, random sample of comparable institutions based on voting rates. Another threat was instrumentation. This study attempted to control for this threat by piloting both the survey instrument and the interview protocol. Particularly since this was a mixed model study, issues of data collector characteristics and bias could have influenced the results. The

researcher attempted to control for these threats by explicitly stating her biases and assumptions about the research.

Limitations include the duration, sample characteristics, and focus of this study. Since pre-service teachers undergo many changes after their internships during their first years of teaching, this research because of its limited duration cannot reflect any later maturation. Also, the limited duration prohibits checking whether the participants actually implement their teaching intentions. In addition, this research makes no attempt to measure teacher effectiveness or effects on student attitudes and behavior.

From a qualitative research perspective, external validity was enhanced through the use of rich, thick description and the triangulation of data sources. A reader may feel justified because of these techniques in generalizing to other settings since he or she will have a better chance of knowing how closely his or her setting resembles the research setting. From a quantitative research perspective, the issue of generalizability is tied to a study's believability (internal validity) and is strengthened by a stratified (purposive), random sampling design.

Many of the same research strategies that were used to increase internal and external validity also enhanced reliability. Triangulating the methods of data collection and using multiple sources as well as clearly stating researcher biases increased the likelihood that the results are dependable. An audit trail was used to describe the processes that the researcher carried out, the explanation of how data were analyzed, and to provide other researchers with the necessary information to conduct this study if they choose to do so. By using all of the research strategies mentioned above, the quality and trustworthiness of this research was improved.

Chapter IV

Findings

This chapter presents the analysis of the collected data and a description of the sample. It is organized by the research questions and both the quantitative and qualitative data from the survey and interview respondents are presented in an integrated fashion. The quantitative responses to each item are presented first followed by open-ended responses if that survey item had a qualitative component. If there were several relevant open-ended responses, they are presented in a different font, indented on the left side with hanging indents as appropriate to distinguish the individual responses. Relevant interview questions are discussed last in each section.

After a description of the sample, the research questions will be discussed in the following order: (a) To what extent do secondary pre-service teachers perceive that they have a responsibility to develop and promote civic efficacy and engagement among their students? (b) To what extent do these teachers feel well prepared and competent to achieve this goal? (c) What experiences, both academic and non-academic, have these teachers had with government and politics; are these experiences viewed positively or negatively; and how do they perceive these experiences to influence their teaching? (d) What instructional methods, strategies, and programs do these secondary pre-service teachers intend to use in teaching toward civic knowledge, efficacy, and engagement? (e) Do they believe that they can positively influence high school students to become politically engaged?

Sample Characteristics

Participants were asked to self-report their demographics. Some did not complete this section or only partially completed it. Although the sample was restricted to those pre-service teachers who intend to teach on the secondary level in grades 7-12, 56 participants were also pursuing their certification in grades 4-12, 6-12, middle, or junior high in addition to their secondary certification. Participants (n=208) ranged in age from 20-53 with 68.4% ages 20-24, 21.4% ages 25-29, 5.3% ages 30-34, and 4.9% were age 35 or older. Females accounted for 52.1% of the sample. Participants' race and ethnicity reports were categorized as white (86.5%), black (4.7%), Asian (4.1%), or bi or multi-racial (4.7%).

Perceived Responsibility for Promoting Civic Efficacy

Items 33, 36, and 40 from the survey questionnaire are discussed to explain the first research question: To what extent do secondary pre-service teachers perceive that they have a responsibility to develop and promote civic efficacy and engagement among their students?

When respondents were asked whether they would combat young people's lack of involvement in politics once they began teaching (item 36), 88.1% (n=170) said that they would do so. When asked if they should influence them to participate (item 40), 86.9% (n=166) said they thought they should do so (Table 2). When the open-ended responses were examined for those who answered "No" to "will you combat young people's lack of involvement in politics" (item 36), some respondents expressed concern that they might "turn their students off" or that it was their students' decision. Selected "No or Maybe"

Table II

Teaching for Participation and Involvement in Politics

	Yes	No	Mean	SD
36) Once you begin teaching, will you combat young people's lack of involvement in politics? (n=195)	170 (88.1%)	23 (11.9%)	1.88	0.32
40) Assuming that you can illustrate the importance of political participation to your students, do you think you should influence them to participate? (n=191)	166 (86.9%)	25 (13.1%)	1.87	0.34

responses to "will you combat young people's lack of involvement in politics" follow:

> Maybe: Those that are uninformed should not always vote!
>
> Their own decision but will keep them aware of current events and why they should care.
>
> Did not circle a choice: Not my decision to "combat" it. I'll put in my suggestions that people should vote.
>
> Maybe. If you're too pushy they'll be turned off.

A more troubling theme emerged when the "No" responses to "do you think you should influence them to participate" (item 40) were examined. Respondents indicated that they felt uncomfortable influencing their students and that they were concerned with biasing their students. Several respondents commented that they felt whether or not to be politically active was the student's decision, and they should not try to influence that decision. Many participants (n=18) mentioned this theme of individualism or letting the student find his or her own way in political participation without influence from the teacher. Selected "No or Maybe" responses to "Do you think you should influence them to participate? Why or why

not?" follow:

It should be up to the students.

It is not a teacher's place to influence any student.

Influence is a strong term, I would rather introduce the concept and allow discussion of the concept to illustrate the point.

Circled both yes and no: I think a degree of influence is important-but students must be motivated to participate on their own: make politics/government their own.

By forcing student to participate, you may bias them you present them with the tools and allow them to decide how to use them.

Why should influence students to participate in a political process which is fundamentally unresponsive to them?

I don't want to preach my views or ideology-let them make their mind up.

I do not believe it is the teacher's job to influence students to do anything. It is the job of the teacher to present them with the facts and opinions of others but never tell them what they should or shouldn't do.

Although most of the respondents said "yes" to the two questions, even some of those who answered "yes" indicated that they were not comfortable with influencing their students either. Selected "yes" comments from "do you think you should influence them to participate" that illustrate the theme of "individualism" follow:

> Yes, I think a teacher should show them what can be accomplished with participation and let them decide from there.
>
> Yes, but only if they feel it is important – it is a right not to participate.
>
> Yes, I think it is part of my responsibility as a social studies teacher to encourage participation. I would not force my opinion on how they should participate.
>
> Yes, as long as you don't impose your views on them.

Others indicated the importance of encouragement from teachers for students' participation:

> I think you should always "practice what you preach" so to speak. What good would it do, to teach them the importance of political participation and not model or advocate that behavior?

For a complete presentation of the open-ended responses' themes and frequencies for items 36 and 40, see tables 18 and 19 (pages 81 and 83) at the end of the chapter in the discussion of research question five under the heading "Beliefs Regarding Influencing High School Students to be Politically Engaged."

Item 33 evaluated the pre-service teachers' political attitudes towards school involvement, local politics, and approaches to teaching (Table 3). The pre-service teachers overwhelmingly "strongly agreed" that teachers should educate students about the voting process including campaigns, election cycles, voting methods, representative government, registering to vote, and becoming informed (item 33.7, 84.1%, n=174), and a great

Table III

Political Attitudes Towards School Involvement, Local Politics, and Approaches to Teaching

Item 33	Frequencies and Percentages				Mean	SD
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree		
33.1) Teachers should tell students to avoid involvement in special interest groups. (n=208)	3 (1.4%)	10 (4.8%)	94 (45.2%)	101 (48.6%)	1.59	0.65
33.2) Teachers should urge students to take part in school affairs as much as possible. (n=208)	98 (47.1%)	97 (46.6%)	13 (6.3%)	0	3.41	0.61
33.3) Teachers should urge their students to express their opinions in order to influence political leaders. (n=207)	108 (52.2%)	90 (43.5%)	9 (4.3%)	0	3.48	0.57
33.5) Citizens should attend local meetings on problems important to them even if it conflicts with their pursuit of leisure after a hard day's work. (n=206)	56 (27.2%)	122 (59.2%)	26 (12.6%)	2 (1.0%)	3.13	0.65
33.6) Social studies teachers should NOT encourage eligible students to register to vote. (n=203)	1 (0.5%)	3 (1.5%)	49 (24.1%)	150 (73.9%)	1.29	0.51
33.7) Without telling students who to vote for, social studies teachers should teach students about the voting process (e.g. campaigns, election cycles, voting methods, representative government, as well as how to register and become informed about the candidates). (n=207)	174 (84.1%)	30 (14.5%)	1 (0.5%)	2 (1.0%)	3.82	0.47
33.8) Social studies teachers should limit their attempts to teach critical thinking if parents or administrators object. (n=204)	0	12 (5.9%)	89 (43.6%)	103 (50.5%)	1.55	0.61
33.9) Social studies teachers should teach students how to take part in the political process. (n=207)	133 (64.3%)	72 (34.8%)	1 (0.5%)	1 (0.5%)	3.63	0.52
33.10) Media literacy skills for using TV and newspapers should be taught by social studies teachers. (n=207)	105 (50.7%)	94 (45.4%)	5 (2.4%)	3 (1.4%)	3.45	0.62

preponderance "strongly agreed" that they should encourage students to become registered to vote (item 33.6, 73.9%, n=150). Also, a large majority "strongly agreed" that teachers should educate students how to take part in the political process (item 33.9, 64.3%, n=133). Almost all of the pre-service teachers sampled either "strongly agreed" or "agreed" that teachers should urge their students to take part in school affairs (item 33.2, 93.7%, n=195) and that teachers should urge their students to express their opinions in order to influence political leaders (item 33.3, 95.7%, n=198). The majority of the sample either "strongly disagreed" or "disagreed" that teachers should tell students to avoid involvement in special interest groups (item 33.1, 93.8%, n=195). When asked in item 33.8 if they agreed that social studies teachers should limit their attempts to teach critical thinking if parents or administrators object, 50.5% (n=103) "strongly disagreed" and 43.6% (n=89) "disagreed." Finally, 96.1% (n=199) either "strongly agreed" or "agreed" that media literacy skills for using TV and newspapers should be taught by social studies teachers (item 33.10).

How Prepared and Competent Pre-service Teachers Are

Items 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 from the survey questionnaire were related to the second research question: To what extent do these teachers feel well prepared and competent to achieve this goal?

The data show that teaching civics and government classes, though sought after by some, is still not the preferred teaching assignment of most pre-service social studies teachers. Teaching U.S. history was preferred overwhelmingly to teaching civics and government by a margin of 100 to 22 and teaching world history was preferred by 46 participants (Table 4). But, teaching civics and government was much preferred to the other social studies disciplines of economics, geography, psychology, and sociology. Also

noteworthy is the number of pre-service teachers who do not want to teach economics. It was the least desired assignment for 107 respondents, over half of the sample.

Table IV

Most Desired and Least Desired Teaching Assignment Preferences

Teaching Preference	Most Desired	Least Desired	n	Mean	SD
U.S. History	100	3	202	1.94	1.26
World History	46	5	202	2.96	1.66
Civics / U.S. Government	22	4	202	3.21	1.52
Geography	10	14	201	4.19	1.55
Sociology	11	23	201	4.57	1.67
Psychology	7	45	201	5.09	1.61
Economics	7	107	201	6.00	1.46

Furthermore, 195 of the 208 (93.8%, n=195) survey respondents indicated that they would accept a job requiring them to teach civics and government classes (Table 5).

Table V:

Desirability of Teaching Civics

	Yes	No	Maybe	Mean	SD
9) Would you **accept** a job that would require you to teach civics or government classes? (n=208)	195 (93.8%)	11 (5.3%)	2 (1.0%)	2.93	0.29
10) Would you **seek** a job that would require you to teach civics or government classes? (n=206)	112 (54.4%)	42 (20.4%)	52 (25.2%)	2.29	0.85

However, only 112 (54.4%, n=112) stated that they would seek such a job. The open-ended comments to these items indicated that economic pressures such as the job market would affect these decisions as well as course preparation. Respondents' comments to "would you accept a job that would require you to teach civics or government classes" offered three general themes: importance of teaching civics, having adequate knowledge in the field, and whether they enjoyed the subject or not. Respondents' comments to "would you seek a job that would require you to teach civics or government classes" were similar in that they also echoed the importance of the subject and having an adequate knowledge of the field as a pre-requisite. However, 19 respondents expressed concern over the job market. As one respondent said, "I am open to teaching anything but economics." Another stated, "Given the nature of the market-we seek *any* [emphasis original] position."

Two possible explanations for the desirability of a teaching assignment in civics or government classes may be participants' interest in the topic or the amount of college content classes that they have taken. While this survey instrument does not gauge interest directly, it does measure the amount of content courses. The average number of college courses taken by this sample of pre-service teachers was 2.66 in American Politics, 0.89 in comparative and international politics, and 0.64 in political theory as compared to 4.21 in U.S. history (Table 6). It is logical to estimate that pre-service teachers would prefer to teach classes that they were prepared to teach. In order to be prepared to teach civics and government classes, APSA's Education Committee suggests that pre-service teachers take 12 semester hours (4 courses) of primary political science courses in the following areas: introduction to American government and politics, introduction to comparative government and politics, international relations, and political philosophy or history of democratic political theory. APSA's Education Committee recommends that they take an additional 15 - 21

semester hours of advanced courses (5 – 6 additional classes for a total of 9-10 courses). Only 42.9% of the sample (n=88) had satisfied the primary credit hour recommendations of the APSA Education Committee, and only 11.2% (n=23 of the 88) had satisfied all of the

Table VI:

Amount of Coursework by Subject Area

Subject or Content Area	Number of College Courses (Bachelors & Masters)	
	Mean	SD
U.S. History (n=204)	4.21	3.24
World History (n=205)	3.60	2.93
American Government, Politics, or Civics (n=205)	2.66	2.43
Psychology (n=205)	2.32	2.39
Geography (n=206)	2.27	2.36
Sociology (n=205)	1.83	2.57
Economics (n=206)	1.60	1.92
Comparative & International Politics (n=205)	0.89	1.15
Political Theory (n=205)	0.64	0.83
Other Content Courses (n=205)	0.63	2.00

recommended advanced coursework. Nevertheless, most respondents indicated that they felt they were "adequately prepared" or "somewhat prepared" to teach the various topics and concepts listed in table 7.

These topics and concepts were selected from national and state level social studies standards. On item 11.1 which asked how prepared participants were to teach a lesson on the processes of state lawmaking, most participants felt "adequately prepared" (30.8%,

n=64) and "somewhat prepared" (45.7%, n=95). On item 11.2 that asked participants about the processes of federal lawmaking, participants felt more prepared than on the state lawmaking with 42.9% (n=88) reporting that they felt "adequately prepared" and 28.3% (n=58) feeling "somewhat prepared." This is understandable because federal lawmaking typically receives more attention in the introductory government class. On item 11.3 which asked how prepared participants were to teach a lesson on defining the types of government, most respondents felt "very well prepared" (39.4%, n=82) and "adequately prepared" (41.8%, n=87). In fact, more participants indicated that they felt "very well prepared" on defining the types of government than on any other item by margin of 82 to 69 (item 11.5). Participants felt "very well prepared" (30.0%, n=62) and "adequately prepared" (41.5%, n=86) to teach a lesson on identifying a nation-state (item 11.4). Campaigns and elections (item 11.5) was second behind defining the types of government (item 11.3) in participants' reports of "very well prepared" (33.2%, n=69), and almost half of the sample reported feeling "adequately prepared" (43.8%, n=91). The topic that most participants reported as feeling "not at all" (29.3%, n=61) prepared to teach was "your Senators' views and accomplishments" (item 11.6). This finding corroborates the literature on political knowledge. Teaching about minority and majority rights was more comfortable to most participants as 41.8% (n=87) reported feeling "adequately prepared" and 28.4% felt "somewhat prepared" (n=59). Measuring public opinion was another topic where the majority of participants felt "adequately prepared" (33.7%, n=70) or "somewhat prepared" (37.0%, n=77). The next two items (11.10 and 11.11) also followed this trend. Participants reported feeling "adequately prepared" (30.4%, n=63) or "somewhat prepared" (33.8%, n=70) to teach about comparing and contrasting federal, state, and local sources of revenue

Table VII:

How prepared are you to teach a lesson _____?

	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All	M	SD
11.1) On processes of state lawmaking? (n=208)	27 (13.0%)	64 (30.8%)	95 (45.7%)	22 (10.6%)	2.46	0.85
11.2) On processes of federal lawmaking? (n=205)	43 (21.0%)	88 (42.9%)	58 (28.3%)	16 (7.8%)	2.77	0.87
11.3) On defining the types of government? (n=208)	82 (39.4%)	87 (41.8%)	38 (18.3%)	1 (0.5%)	3.20	0.75
11.4) On identifying a nation-state? (n=207)	62 (30.0%)	86 (41.5%)	44 (21.3%)	15 (7.2%)	2.94	0.90
11.5) On campaigns and elections? (n=208)	69 (33.2%)	91 (43.8%)	44 (21.2%)	4 (1.9%)	3.08	0.79
11.6) On your Senators' views and accomplishments? (n=208)	22 (10.6%)	53 (25.5%)	72 (34.6%)	61 (29.3%)	2.17	0.97
11.7) On minority and majority rights? (n=208)	52 (25.0%)	87 (41.8%)	59 (28.4%)	10 (4.8%)	2.87	0.84
11.8) On measuring public opinion? (n=208)	42 (20.2%)	70 (33.7%)	77 (37.0%)	19 (9.1%)	2.65	0.90
11.9) On federalism? (n=208)	62 (29.8%)	89 (42.8%)	51 (24.5%)	6 (2.9%)	3.00	0.81
11.10) On comparing and contrasting federal, state and local sources of revenue? (n=207)	32 (15.5%)	63 (30.4%)	70 (33.8%)	42 (20.3%)	2.41	0.98
11.11) On a criminal defendant's rights? (n=207)	34 (16.4%)	61 (29.5%)	78 (37.7%)	34 (16.4%)	2.46	0.95

(item 11.10). Teaching about a criminal defendant's rights (item 11.11) was reported as "adequately prepared" by 29.5% (n=61) or "somewhat prepared" by 37.7% (n=78) of participants.

Based on the literature, pre-service social studies teachers who have taken more courses in political science should feel more prepared to teach than students with fewer hours. The data were examined to evaluate whether pre-service teachers taking more political science classes were more likely to feel prepared to teach the various political science subtopics sampled in table 7 using Kendall's tau-b correlation coefficients (Table 8). The PS Course variable represents a summation of all courses taken in all of the three political science subfields. As would be expected given the nature of the concepts and topics chosen, those directly related to American Government were more strongly correlated with increased coursework in the American Government field than increased coursework in the international relations (IR) and comparative fields or political theory field of political science. The discussion will be organized according to the political science subfield that had the highest correlation with item series 11.

The highest correlations on items 11.1 (state lawmaking, tau-b=0.331, α=0.01, n=205) and 11.2 (federal lawmaking, tau-b=0.368, α=0.01, n=202) were found with item 7 reports of coursework in American government, politics, or civics. This is not surprising because these topics are likely to receive more coverage in these classes. It is important to note that participants grouped their coursework and could have included state and local politics courses as well as public administration courses in this category; therefore, the category of American government, politics, or civics represents more that just an introductory course in U.S. Government. The highest correlation of item 11.3 responses (defining types of governments, tau-b=0.293, α=0.01, n=205) were also with reports of American government, politics, or civics coursework. But, item 11.4 responses (identifying a nation-state, tau-b=0.337, α=0.01, n=204) were correlated more strongly with reports of political theory coursework. This may be because political theory coursework focuses on the

status of nations and states. Not surprisingly, item 11.5 responses (campaigns and elections, tau-b=0.357, α=0.01, n=205) were correlated most strongly with reports of American government, politics, or civics coursework as campaigns and elections are studied most in these classes. Item 11.6 represented a link to current events and political knowledge as it asked about your Senators' views and accomplishments. Item 11.6 responses were correlated with reports of American government, politics, or civics coursework (tau-b=0.254, α=0.01, n=205) although the correlation was more modest. The responses to item 11.7 (minority and majority rights, tau-b=0.181, α=0.01, n=205) and item 11.8 (measuring public opinion, tau-b=0.187, α=0.01, n=205) were correlated with reports of political theory courses. However, the responses to measuring political opinion were also correlated with reports of American government, politics, or civics coursework (tau-b=0.168, α=0.01, n=205). Measuring public opinion is usually taught in political behavior courses or briefly discussed in the introductory course in government. The responses to item 11.9 on federalism were also strongly correlated with reports of political theory courses (tau-b=0.333, α=0.01, n=205) and with American government, politics, or civics coursework (tau-b=0.326, α=0.01, n=205). This is understandable because federalism is a topic that receives attention in both subfields. The last two items' responses were most strongly correlated with American government, politics, or civics coursework. Item 11.10 asked participants about teaching federal, state, and local sources of revenue (tau-b=0.233, α=0.01, n=204), and item 11.11 about criminal defendant's rights (tau-b=0.223, α=0.01, n=204).

Scatterplots with fit lines were used to further probe the relationships present in table 8 and modest Rsquare's were observed in many cases. The relationships in table 8 were investigated to determine if there were bi-modal or skewed responses. This does not

appear to be the case. It should be noted that although these correlations in table 8 may appear to be small, acceptable correlations in social science research are less than what is

Table VIII

Correlates of the Amount of Coursework in Political Science by Field and How Prepared Pre-service Teachers Felt by Subtopic

Kendall's tau-b	PS Course	American Government	IR or Comparative	Political Theory
11.1) On processes of state lawmaking? (n=205)	.297**	.331**	.188**	.171**
11.2) On processes of federal lawmaking? (n=202)	.383**	.368**	.239**	.262**
11.3) On defining the types of government? (n=205)	.325**	.293**	.190**	.275**
11.4) On identifying a nation-state? (n=204)	.372**	.286**	.305**	.337**
11.5) On campaigns and elections? (n=205)	.330**	.357**	.154**	.197**
11.6) On your Senators' views and accomplishments? (n=205)	.244**	.254**	.104*	.218**
11.7) On minority and majority rights? (n=205)	.164**	.119*	.085	.181**
11.8) On measuring public opinion? (n=205)	.206**	.168**	.132*	.187**
11.9) On federalism? (n=205)	.341**	.326**	.170**	.333**
11.10) On comparing and contrasting federal, state and local sources of revenue? (n=204)	.215**	.233**	.104*	.161**
11.11) On a criminal defendant's rights? (n=204)	.239**	.223**	.122*	.163**

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

acceptable in other fields such as science. However, the coupling of modest correlations with the fact that most of the correlations presented in table 8 were significant may indicate that the instrument was not sensitive enough to detect the relationships. Because the sample distribution in this study was skewed, non-parametric statistical tools were used. Non-parametric measures are more stringent thereby making statistical significance more difficult to achieve and thus compensating for the skewed distribution (Conover, 1980).

Another check on pre-service teacher preparation was their familiarity with state standards on teaching civics and government. Only 17.1% (n=35) considered themselves to be "very familiar" with their state standards, but 65.4% (n=134) felt they were "somewhat familiar" (Table 9). Another 17.6% (n=36) were "not at all familiar" with their state standards.

Table IX

Familiarity With State Curricular Standards

	Very Familiar	Somewhat Familiar	Not at All Familiar	Mean	SD
12) How familiar are you with your state's curriculum standards for civics and government? (n=208)	35 (17.1%)	134 (65.4%)	36 (17.6%)	2.00	0.59

Academic and Non-Academic Experiences With Government and Politics

The third research question's discussion is organized by subtopics: political and civic experiences, reflections on political and civic experiences, influences on teaching by political and civic experiences, and measures of pre-service teachers' political participation. Survey

questionnaire items 13, 20, and 26 are discussed to explain political and civic experiences, items 15, 22, and 28 illuminate the findings on reflections on political and civic experiences, items 16, 23, and 29 as well as items 36 and 40 shed light on how political and civic experiences may influence teaching, and items 17, 18, 19, 31, 32, 33.11, and 33.12 help in explaining pre-service teachers' political participation. As a whole, these items assist in answering the third research question: What experiences, both academic and non-academic, have these teachers had with government and politics; are these experiences viewed positively or negatively; and how do they perceive these experiences to influence their teaching?

Political and civic experiences. Less than half of the pre-service teachers (43.2%, n=89) had participated in activities that required debate, negotiation, or compromise in high school or college (Table 10). Only 19.5% (n=40) reported ever being a member of any community

Table X

Frequency of Political and Civic Experiences

	Yes	Unsure	No	Mean	SD
13) In high school or college, did you ever participate in activities requiring debate, negotiation, or compromise (dnc) such as Student Government, Student Congress, Model United Nations, Model Arab League, Debate, Boys or Girls State, or Close-Up? (n=206)	89 (43.2%)	5 (2.4%)	112 (54.4%)	1.89	0.98
20) Have you ever been a member of any community civic organizations? (n=205)	40 (19.5%)	-	165 (80.5%)	1.20	0.40
26) Are you or have you ever been politically active? (n=204)	119 (58.3%)	-	85 (41.7%)	1.58	0.49

Note: Items 20 and 26 did not offer an "unsure" response option.

civic organizations. But, 58.3% (n=119) indicated that they were either currently politically active or had been at some time during their lives. These three items' (13, 20, and 26) screening questions were designed to allow the participant to use his or her own definitions. For example, the open-ended item 26 taps into the participant's ideas as to what is politically active rather than the more restrictive traditional conceptions such as voting or campaigning.

Reflections on political and civic experiences. Overall, the pre-service teachers who had experiences with debate, negotiation, or compromise were split between rating those experiences as "very positive" (52.2%, n=48) or "positive" (43.5%, n=40) (Table 11). Only 4 (4.4%) respondents had "negative" or "very negative" experiences. Likewise, the

Table XI

Ratings of Political and Civic Experiences

	Very Positive	Positive	Negative	Very Negative	Mean	SD
15) Please rate your overall debate, negotiation, & compromise experiences (from item 14). (n=92)	48 (52.2%)	40 (43.5%)	3 (3.3%)	1 (1.1%)	3.47	0.62
22) Please rate your overall experiences (from item 21) in these community civic organizations. (n=40)	20 (50.0%)	20 (50.0%)	0	0	3.50	0.51
28) Please rate your overall political experiences (from item 27). (n=116)	41 (35.3%)	72 (62.1%)	3 (2.6%)	0	3.33	0.52

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total to 100.

experiences with community civic organizations were evenly split between "very positive" (50.0%, n=20) or "positive" (50.0%, n=20). When asked to rate their overall political experiences, 35.3% (n=41) of the pre-service teachers reported having "very positive" experiences, 62.1% (n=72) of the pre-service teachers reported having "positive" experiences, and 2.6% (n=3) of the pre- service teachers reported having "negative" experiences. Items 13,15, and 16 were part of a structured series; therefore, only those participants who responded positively to the first item (13) were eligible to respond to subsequent items. Items 20, 22, and 23 as well as items 26, 28, and 29 were also part of a structured series. Thus, the sample size for all subsequent items (15, 16, 22, 23, 28, and 29) was reduced.

Influences on teaching by political and civic experiences. A large majority of participants reported that their experiences with debate, negotiation, or compromise would "strongly influence" (32.6%, n=30) or "moderately influence" (45.7%, n=42) their teaching (Table 12). Respondents indicated that belonging to a civic organization would "strongly influence" (30.0%, n=12) or "moderately influence" (50.0%, n=20) their teaching. An overwhelming majority stated that being politically active would "strongly influence" (40.5%, n=47) or "moderately influence" (45.7%, n=53) their teaching. To further examine how these experiences would influence the participants' teaching, correlations were calculated using Spearman's Rho (ρ) to determine if there was any relationship with reports of teaching intentions regarding combating young people's lack of involvement in politics (item 36) and reports of influencing students to participate (item 40). Spearman's Rho was used because

Table XII

Political and Civic Experiences' Influences on Teaching

	Strongly Influence	Moderately Influence	Little Influence	No Influence	Mean	SD
16) To what extent will these debate, negotiation, & compromise experiences influence your teaching? (n=92)	30 (32.6%)	42 (45.7%)	18 (19.6%)	2 (2.2%)	3.09	0.78
23) To what extent will these experiences in civic organizations influence your teaching? (n=40)	12 (30.0%)	20 (50.0%)	7 (17.5%)	1 (2.5%)	3.08	0.76
29) To what extent will these political experiences influence your teaching? (n=116)	47 (40.5%)	53 (45.7%)	13 (11.2%)	3 (2.6%)	3.24	0.75

both variables are binary (yes or no). The results are presented in table 13. Positive statistically significant relationships were found in three cases using an alpha level of α=0.05. Reports of having previous experiences in debate, negotiation, and compromise either in high school or college (item 13) were correlated with reports of combating young people's lack of involvement in politics (item 36) (ρ=0.124, α=0.05, n=191). Reports of being politically active (item 26) were also correlated with reports of combating young people's lack of involvement in politics (item 36) (ρ=0.131, α=0.05, n=189) and with reports of thinking that you should influence your students to participate (item 40) (ρ=0.156, α=0.05, n=188). None of the other relationships reached statistical significance.

Table XIII

Correlates of Civic and Government Experiences and Teaching Intentions

		Items		
		13[1]	20[2]	26[3]
36) Once you begin teaching, will you combat young people's lack of involvement in politics?	Correlation Coefficient	.124*	.101	.131*
	n	191	191	189
40) Assuming that you can illustrate the importance of political participation to your students, do you think you should influence them to participate?	Correlation Coefficient	-.013	.088	.156*
	n	189	189	188

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).
[1] Debate, negotiation, & compromise
[2] Community civic organizations
[3] Politically active

Measures of pre-service teachers' political participation. Item series 32 (Table 14) presents measures of political participation activities traditionally used in the United States by political scientists such as Verba, Scholzman, and Brady (1995). Some of the results of item series 32 are discussed in terms of how many had never participated in political activities. Comparisons between the American public's rate of participation in political activities and the sample will be made in Chapter 5.

Results show that 89.9%, (n=187) reported having voted in a presidential election (item 32.1) while 72.5% (n=148) reported voting in a mid-term election (item 32.2), and 80.3% (n=167) stated they had voted in local elections (item 32.3) (Table 14). Slightly more than half (item 32.4, n=110) of all participants had emailed or written letters to political officials; but 88.5% (item 32.5, n=184) had signed a petition. Participants were much more willing to sign a petition than to join a political party or interest group. Less than half of all

participants reported having joined an interest group (item 32.7, 37.5%, n=78) or a political party (item 32.6, 47.6%, n=98). Volunteering was a popular activity among participants as

Table XIV

Frequency of Political Activities

Item32 Activity	Frequencies and Percentages				Mean	SD
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree		
32.1) Voted in Presidential Elections[1] (n=208)	167 (80.3%)	13 (6.3%)	7 (3.4%)	21 (10.1%)	3.57	0.96
32.2) Voted in Mid-term elections (n=204)	76 (37.3%)	40 (19.6%)	32 (15.7%)	56 (27.5%)	2.67	1.23
32.3) Voted in Local elections (n=208)	69 (33.2%)	52 (25.0%)	46 (22.1%)	41 (19.7%)	2.72	1.13
32.4) Emailed or wrote letters to political officials (n=208)	11 (5.3%)	10 (4.8%)	89 (42.8%)	98 (47.1%)	1.68	0.80
32.5) Signed a petition (n=208)	17 (8.2%)	46 (22.1%)	121 (58.2%)	24 (11.5%)	2.27	0.77
32.6) Joined a political party (n=206)	59 (28.6%)	17 (8.3%)	22 (10.7%)	108 (52.4%)	2.13	1.32
32.7) Joined an interest group (n=208)	9 (4.3%)	17 (8.2%)	52 (25.0%)	130 (62.5%)	1.54	.82
32.8) Volunteered for church work (n=207)	31 (15.0%)	36 (17.4%)	67 (32.4%)	73 (35.3%)	2.12	1.06
32.9) Volunteered for community work (n=207)	26 (12.6%)	50 (24.2%)	112 (54.1%)	19 (9.2%)	2.40	0.82
32.10) Volunteered for a political campaign (n=208)	14 (6.7%)	16 (7.7%)	47 (22.6%)	131 (63.0%)	1.58	0.90
32.11) Made a campaign contribution (n=208)	10 (4.8%)	10 (4.8%)	35 (16.8%)	153 (73.6%)	1.41	0.79

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total to 100.

[1] Scatterplots were calculated to determine the relationship between age and items 32.1, 32.2, and 32.3. There was only an extremely small positive relationship between these three items and age (the largest r square was 0.06).

64.7% (item 32.8, n=134) had volunteered for church work and 90.8% (item 32.9, n=188) had volunteered for community work. But, participants viewed participation in campaigns differently as only 37.0% (item 32.10, n=77) had volunteered for a political campaign and 73.6% (item 32.11, n=153) had never made a campaign contribution.

In an attempt to crosscheck the reliability of items 32.1, 32.2, and 32.3, the following three items were asked: 31, 33.11, and 33.12 (Tables 15 and 16). Interestingly, tables 15 and 16 indicated similar responses to the results reported in table 14 thus indicating some reliability across these measures. Nearly all of the participants (90.9%, n=189) reported that local precinct records would show that they are registered to vote (Table 15). Only 5.8%

Table XV

Voter Registration Status According to Local Precinct Records (Item 31)

Yes	No	Unsure	n	Mean	SD
189 (90.9%)	12 (5.8%)	6 (2.9%)	207	2.88	0.40

(n=12) reported not being registered and 2.9% (n=6) were unsure of their registration status. When asked to indicate their agreement to the statement "I vote even if my candidate has little chance of winning" (item 33.11), 64.7% (n=132) "strongly agreed" and 30.9% (n=63)"agreed" (Table 16). Only 9 (4.4%) participants either "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed." A smaller majority indicated that they "strongly agreed" (43.4%, n=89) or "agreed" (33.7%, n=69) with the statement "I vote in all elections for all levels of government—local, state, and national" (item 33.12). Following the pattern, a larger proportion "disagreed" (16.6%, n=34) or "strongly disagreed" (6.3%, n=13).

Table XVI

Pre-Service Teachers' Voting Intentions

Items 33.11 and 33.12	Frequencies and Percentages				Mean	SD
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree		
33.11) I vote even if my candidate has little chance of winning. (n=204)	132 (64.7%)	63 (30.9%)	7 (3.4%)	2 (1.0%)	3.59	0.61
33.12) I vote in elections for all levels of government—local, state, and national. (n=205)	89 (43.4%)	69 (33.7%)	34 (16.6%)	13 (6.3%)	3.14	0.92

In terms of the pre-service teachers' political backgrounds, the vast majority of them recalled going to the polls (item 17) with their parents or family members (68.8%, n=143). Only 60 (28.8%) indicated that they had never gone to the polls with their parents or family members and five (2.4%) were unsure about the activity. Similarly, most participants also indicated that they discussed politics, government, or current events (Table 17) with family or friends. They varied in terms of how often these discussions took place. The most common were weekly conversations as 39.9% (n=83) of participants indicated they talked weekly with parents and 43.8% (n=91) talked weekly with friends (Table 17). Only 15.9% (n=33) of participants had daily conversations with their parents compared to 29.3% (n=61) who talked with their friends daily.

Table XVII

Pre-Service Teachers' Discussion of Politics, Government, or Current Events With Parents and Friends

Items 18 and 19	Frequencies and Percentages					Mean	SD
	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Semi-annually	Rarely if ever		
18) About how often do you or did you talk to your parents about politics, government, or current events?	33 (15.9%)	83 (39.9%)	46 (22.1)	22 (10.6%)	24 (11.5%)	2.62	1.21
19) About how often do you or did you talk to your friends about politics, government, or current events?	61 (29.3%)	91 (43.8%)	31 (14.9%)	10 (4.8%)	15 (7.2%)	2.17	1.12

Intended Use of Methods, Strategies, and Programs

Open-ended item 39 from the questionnaire is discussed to explain the fourth research question: What instructional methods, strategies, and programs do these secondary pre-service teachers intend to use in teaching toward civic knowledge, efficacy, and engagement? Some respondents mentioned several methods while others indicated their uncertainty about how they would teach. It is noteworthy that the most frequently mentioned method was simulation and or role-play (Table 18).

Item 39 was coded qualitatively[11]. Many participants listed several methods in their responses. Each method that was listed was coded. Category codes were developed that allowed for subsets. For example, if a participant mentioned simulations, role-play, or simulations and role-plays, that response was coded "simulation role-play" instead of the

[11] Inter-coder reliability was calculated for items 36 (70.37) and 39 (89.06) using Holsti's statistic modified to include category agreement (Hoge, 1978; Kaid & Wadsworth, 1989). A colleague was simply given copies of the data for items 36 and 39 and asked to code the data based on the coding descriptions in chapter four.

more general category of active learning. Other respondents simply indicated that they would use active methods without mentioning which specific active method they intended to use. These responses were coded as "active" (11.3%, n=22) (Table 18). The most mentioned category was "simulation role-play" with 42 responses (21.7%). If a respondent mentioned lecture, discussion, or lecture discussion, it was coded as "lecture discussion" (20.1%, n=39). Using historical and current examples was mentioned a total of 34 times

Table XVIII

Preferred Methods of Teaching Civics/Government Concepts[1]

Method of Teaching	Frequency of Response
Simulation Role-Play	42 (21.7%)
Lecture Discussion	39 (20.1%)
Active Learning	22 (11.3%)
Historical Examples	18 (9.3%)
Real or Current Examples	16 (8.3%)
Cooperative Learning	12 (6.2%)
Inquiry	9 (4.6%)
Debate	8 (4.1%)
Research	7 (3.6%)
Primary Sources	6 (3.1%)
Don't Know or ?	15 (7.7%)
Respondent Did Not Answer	40

[1]A respondent could mention multiple methods-234 valid responses were coded.

(17.6%) while 12 (6.2%) respondents indicated that they would use cooperative learning strategies. Other methods were mentioned much less frequently including inquiry, debate, research, and primary sources. However, it should be noted that some professors apparently use specific terminology that seems to be unique to their methods classes. A hypothetical

example might be that Professor A teaches his students a lecture technique which if analyzed includes direct instruction and active learning strategies suggested by Harmin (1995). Many respondents either chose not to answer this item (n=40) or wrote a question mark or comments (7.7%, n=15) indicating they did not know which methods they would use. Those choosing not to respond were not experiencing instrument fatigue as only 17 skipped the next question. Selected comments below illustrate the latter category:

> I have no idea.
>
> Too much to think about right now.
>
> I do not have any teaching methods.
>
> I'm not sure at this time. I need time to think about this in greater detail.
>
> Name it.
>
> No idea, sorry.
>
> Can't answer that now.
>
> Good question.

Beliefs Regarding Influencing High School Students to be Politically Engaged

Open-ended responses to items 36 and 40 along with responses to item 22 in the interview protocol are discussed to explain the fifth research question: Do these pre-service teachers believe that they can positively influence high school students to become politically engaged? As previously discussed, 88.1% (n=170) felt that they would combat young people's lack of involvement in politics (Table 2, item 36)[12]. Comments from item 36 which

[12] For the frequency distributions of the closed-ended portions of items 36 and 40, please refer to table 2 earlier in the chapter (page 58) in the discussion of research question one under the heading "Perceived Responsibility for Promoting Civic Efficacy."

asked how they would combat young people's lack of involvement in politics were grouped by the themes of educate, encourage, importance, local service, participation, and responsibility, and the frequencies are presented in table 19. Participants could mention multiple themes in their responses.

Table XIX

Theme Frequencies for Item 36[1]

Theme	Frequency
Educate	79 (48.2%)
Encourage	39 (23.8%)
Importance	16 (9.8%)
Local Service	14 (8.5%)
Participation	6 (3.7%)
Responsibility	3 (1.8%)
Don't Know	7 (4.3%)
Respondent Did Not Answer[2]	17
Question Not Asked[3]	22

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total 100.
[1] A respondent could mention multiple themes-164 valid responses were coded.
[2] Participant skipped this item entirely.
[3] Participant skipped the open-ended portion of this item.

The following responses are presented by theme with the most mentioned theme first. The themes vary in terms of what the participant perceives as essential in making a student politically involved. Comments that included an emphasis on education as the means by which participants would positively influence their students were coded "educate." This theme focuses on the role of the curriculum (either explicitly presented through lectures or textbooks or implicitly presented through activities or modeling by the teacher) as

essential for the students' future political involvement. Selected comments from the 79 (48.2%) responses that were coded "educate" follow:

> Yes; Teach them about the political process - how to impact the policy-making process, influence their elected officials, run for office themselves, organize a political rally, STAY INFORMED (emphasis original).
>
> Yes; I intend to talk a lot about power (emphasis original) and systems of power. Who holds it? Why? I will teach this with the disciplinary tools of sociology, as applied to history, political science, etc. I will do this thru issues such as white privilege, class, race, gender, etc. My classroom will be a space whereby we will draw on each student's positionality and experience for our curriculum. (idealist- Yes! but that's ok).
>
> Yes; try and teach them that every vote really does count. Give examples that show that, and show them examples how government has effected their lives, and do exercises such as writing letters to get them started in being politically active.
>
> Yes; by teaching about how students can effect change and making connections between class content and my students lives
>
> Yes; teach people in a way that gets them to know they have ideas and wants and that get to shape/build the society

Yes; Show how they, as a group, can (emphasis original) be heard. I'd do this by showing if every person their age voted, how that could sway an election.

Yes; Teach about system and candidates. Discuss current event issues and allow students to relate these to their personal lives. Give students the opportunity to write persuasive letters/emails etc. to their elected representatives.

Yes; Be passionate about being involved - model

Yes; Explain the issues. Make sure they know what is going on in the world (current events). Give examples of how students have influenced change.

Bring politics to the classroom. For example, have a discussion on the merits of zero-tolerance policies in school or other laws affecting their education. With this edifice established, I think that further study will attract more interest, and thus involvement in politics.

By teaching how involvement can benefit students as groups and individuals.

By sharing with them the ways that people have fought for their freedom and if they don't exercise their power, someone else will exercise power over them.

I can use my personal experiences and understanding of their apathy to teach them.

Responses that indicated an emphasis on participants either influencing or encouraging their students to become politically engaged (perhaps through suggesting that students attend political meetings or informing them about the dates and places of future meetings) were coded as "encourage." This theme emphasizes the role of the teacher as essential for the students' future political involvement. Selected comments from the 39 (23.8%) responses that were coded "encourage" follow:

> Encourage students to register and tell them where parties meet, and special interest groups too.
>
> I will encourage kids to register to vote.
>
> Yes; encouragement; knowledge-if they know what's going on, they might want to participate more. I have a great pamphlet to show that one vote counts to share!
>
> YES! (emphasis original) By encouraging politically active behavior.
>
> Yes; by encouraging their participation, letting them know that as a citizen it is their right to participate and that by not participating they are letting others decide their future.
>
> Yes; encourage them to vote and give examples of how politics affect them and how other individuals have made a difference.
>
> Yes; at a minimum, I will encourage voting and participating in ways such as writing or phoning elected officials.
>
> I won't be too combative, but I will definitely encourage them to get involved and let them know how.

I will encourage students to vote and be involved. I will show my enthusiasm for politics and try to help them understand the importance.

If I teach political science, I will encourage all students to be politically active.

Be enthusiastic about teaching politics and the voting process and encourage students to get involved.

I will try to stress the importance of being an active citizen and explain that they do have a voice in the government.

Responses that emphasized the importance of influencing students to become politically active were coded as "importance." This theme accentuates the role of relevant material as essential for the students' future political involvement. Selected comments from the 16 (9.8%) responses that were coded "importance" follow:

By making sure they understand that they need to vote, and that their opinions matter.

Yes; I will struggle to show students the importance or connection that current local, state, national, and international events have with their daily lives. I will struggle with dispelling the misconception that voting does nothing and showing that is important to participate in government and politics.

Yes; Give them ways to get involved. Show them how young people have made a difference in history (e.g. Tinker v. Des Moines). Show them small battles.

Participants' responses that emphasized reliance on local government or on community service or on making things relevant to their students were coded "local service." This theme is distinct from "importance" in that "local service" combines both relevant material and service as the key for the students' future political involvement. Selected comments from the 14 (8.5%) responses that were coded "local service" follow:

By teaching about grassroots democracy, and effects that local government decisions have on their immediate lives so that they will see the bottom-up effect of political decisions.

I will introduce them to as many politicians as possible and stress to them that no vote equals no voice.

Yes; Asking students to become involved in a political campaign (if possible) for a grade. Teaching the fundamentals well.

Yes; I hope to have an election project where students will become involved in local political parties and compile information that will hopefully make them a little more enthusiastic.

Yes; Give examples of how individuals can change things - <u>Require</u> (emphasis original) them to become involved - they must become active citizens.

Yes; First, I will teach them about how the political process works. Second, I will give them opportunities to participate in the political process (i.e. organize an internet group).

Comments that indicated participants would emphasize participation as a way of influencing their students to be politically active were coded "participation." This theme focuses on action in politics through either service or simulation as essential for the students' future political involvement. Selected comments from the 6 (3.7%) responses that were coded "participation" follow:

By urging the importance of participation with the idea that if it is a bad situation, fixing it must start somewhere.

Yes; By showing them ways to participate and how to have their voices heard or how to make an impact.

Yes; If I teach anything related to government - I will get my students involved in KidsVoting USA. Have government officials come and speak. if an election year- have the candidates come in - teach them about the voting process and the power it has.

Participants whose comments emphasized that their students had a duty to become politically active were coded as "responsibility." This theme emphasizes the transmission of the duties of a citizen to students as essential for the students' future political involvement. Selected comments from the 3 (1.8%) responses that were coded "responsibility" follow:

> Teach civic responsibility.
>
> Try to talk up their individual responsibility as US citizens to voice their opinions to make this the best possible nation it can be.

The vast majority of participants (86.9%, n=166) also answered "yes" to item 40: "Assuming that you can illustrate the importance of political participation to your students, do you think you should influence them to participate?" However, it must be noted that the language present in this item does not contribute to answering the research question because item 40 asks the participant to make an assumption that is fundamental to the research question. Therefore, item 40 is of limited use in explaining research question five.

The following themes emerged from qualitative analysis of the comments to item 40 (Table 20). Comments representing the theme of individualism are presented earlier in the chapter in the discussion of research question one under the heading "Perceived Responsibility for Promoting Civic Efficacy." The first theme from item 40 illustrated participants' ideas regarding the importance of participation. It was also the most frequently mentioned theme as 59 (40.7%) participants mentioned it in their comments. Responses coded as "participation" stressed understanding the impact of political participation as key to influencing students to participate. Several of the participants' comments for the theme of "participation" are listed below:

> I think biology and bio-medical engineering is important, however I do not participate in research for the subject; and it does not matter because I would not be qualified to do so anyhow. If students understand that they are qualified to participate in politics and that

their active involvement would prove important, they would be more likely to take action.

Table XX

Theme Frequencies for Item 40[1]

Theme	Frequency
Participation	59 (40.7%)
Individualized or Limited Participation	10 (6.9%)
Responsibility	19 (13.1%)
Limited Responsibility	5 (3.5%)
Individualism	18 (12.4%)
Democracy	13 (9.0%)
Encourage or Influence	13 (9.0%)
Citizen	6 (4.1%)
Make a Difference	2 (1.4%)
Respondent Did Not Answer[2]	29
Question Not Asked[3]	11

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total 100.
[1] A respondent could mention multiple themes-*145 valid responses were coded.*
[2] Participant skipped this item entirely.
[3] Participant skipped the open-ended portion of this item.

Social studies classes are probably the only place in the education system that students will learn how important it is that they vote and participate.

Being able to participate in government is not an option for people in many other nations but is key to the concept of our own. We as teachers are developing the apathy in this nation if we don't teach and

entrust our students to keep this dedication to political participation alive.

Experience is the best lesson. Once they find that something affects them personally, they are more inclined to become involved.

Yes; People should vote as a minimum (original emphasis) requirement of living in a Democracy. I will not accept the line "my vote doesn't matter" or "it's only the lesser of two evils" or any other excuse. Voting matters (original emphasis), and because it does I will influence them to participate.

Yes; I believe that if you are aware you will likely participate. It's not a question of do or don't but rather when they know they will.

Other participants (6.9%, n=10) indicated a concern about overly influencing students to participate. These comments were coded "Individualized or Limited Participation " and selected examples follow:

Yes; but cautiously. I will be supportive of their participation but I will also try to remain as a neutral party at the same time. I don't want "my issues" to become "their issues". They can decide on their own what is important for them.

Yes, I feel I should influence them to participate, however I feel that I should explain to them that they also have the right to NOT participate if they so choose. But (emphasis original), I feel that I have the right to set my agenda in my classroom to try to push

participation- BUT give them the tools to make critically informed decisions to participate or not participate.

Several participants commented that they perceived a responsibility or duty to encourage students to participate or to become "good citizens" (13.1%, n=19). This theme stresses the duty of the teacher as key to influencing students to participate. These responses were coded as "responsibility." Selected comments follow:

I think it is the teacher's responsibility to encourage students to participate. It is also my responsibility to demonstrate why it is important for students/everyone to be involved.

I think you should always "practice what you preach" so to speak. What good would it do, to teach them the importance of political participation and not model or advocate that behavior?

Yes; as long as you are not influencing them on how to participate (pushing your own views) then it is part of the job… I don't see how you could leave it out.

Yes; it is our job to teach them how to be good citizens - good citizens vote!

Yes; It is one job of social studies teachers ... to get students to become active/aware citizens. I want them to think critically of issues and candidates ... There is a lot of injustice in the world ... Be active... try to change it.

Just as some felt that participation should be limited, some participants (3.5%, n=5) indicated that they felt a limited responsibility towards students' future participation. These comments were coded "limited responsibility" and examples follow:

> Yes; without influencing how (original emphasis) they should participate, I think it's important for social studies teachers to promote active citizenship.
>
> It will not be my job to convince them of their ideals, but it will be my duty to convince them of their important role in politics.

Comments by participants stating that they would encourage participation were coded "encourage" (9.0%, n=13). This theme emphasizes the role of the teacher in persuading students to participate. Some examples follow:

> I would encourage political participation because I think that as citizens, they should be able to participate and make a difference if they chose to.
>
> Yes; One of my jobs as a social studies teacher is to teach students to be active, informed, responsible citizens. Part of being a citizen is participating in politics and for this reason I will encourage them to participate.

Other participants emphasized the importance of understanding democracy and its requirements for citizens in their comments (9.0%, n=13). These were coded "democracy" and selected comments follow:

> They have to understand the democracy requires people, without it, it won't work.
>
> As an educator of politics in a democratic society, you have a duty to teach kids how one may get involved. To do otherwise would not be teaching them the whole picture. Teaching political passivity leads to apathy and the decline of our -smaller-republic.

Responses by participants emphasizing their rights or freedoms as citizens were coded as "citizen" (4.1%, n=6). This theme focuses on students learning about the duties of American citizens. Some examples follow:

> Because they should exercise every power they have as citizens.
>
> Yes; It is their right as citizens of the U.S.
>
> Because this is one freedom gained by being American citizens.

When item 22 from the interview protocol was asked, "Does anything stand in the way of you as a teacher providing a positive influence on high school students to become engaged in civic activity? Or, what conditions must be met for students to become politically engaged?", participants had varying responses.

Celeste (pseudonym) stated that, "No, I think there's nothing personally standing in my way, I really don't think. If I don't have the freedom at a school to encourage students to educate themselves or be political, then I don't think I would stay. And I hope I hold myself to that because I feel really strongly about it."

Shane remarked, "In my experience and political climate, teachers have more breadth to do what they have to do. If I'm an 8th grade teacher of history, I can put civic education in. If a social studies teacher says coverage is the reason they can't do civic education, that is a cop out." He went on to comment that he felt free to teach, but that "people are afraid of being accused of indoctrination."

Helen agreed with both Shane and Celeste that nothing stood in her way, "Not that I can think of, you know, they're always discussing things you hear like saying 'the government is corrupt,' but I would try to fight those, I'm not ignorant." However, Helen indicated that students' laziness and parents' attitudes towards government could be barriers to her teaching for engagement.

Cambry said, "My age, just because I'm so young they don't think of me as much of a teacher. They think of me more as almost a friend, not a teacher. They don't give you as much respect. They don't listen to you, they don't take your information, it's just a lot harder. Katie felt that community limitations such as valuing education and not being involved might stand in the way.

The interview participants seemed to indicate that there were no or very few structural barriers to teaching for civic engagement, but that student attitudes and community traditions (or lack of them) could be attitudinal barriers. Cambry did indicate one barrier that could be overcome through maturation. But, Shane's mention of the fear of being accused of indoctrination immediately after he had remarked on how any social studies

teacher could teach for civic engagement indicates how important teachers' perceptions of their freedom are (Beale, 1937).

When item 23 from the interview protocol was asked, "What is the role that teachers should play in civic education across America?" participants responses were different but had a common thread.

Celeste said, "I don't know where else students are going to get this information unless they seek it out and I don't think people should have to. It's a teacher's role to disseminate this information. That's why people don't vote, because they don't get it."

Shane stated, "We're on the front lines although parents can have roles too. Our role is to educate, so it's important to get parents involved."

Helen said a teacher's role was to "impart knowledge, helping them understand, and providing good examples (modeling)."

Cambry said, "Give them the information and they make the decision. Because we can't tell them to go vote, force them to vote, that's up to them, that's their right or their right not to. We can't force them to do anything like that. It's like leading a horse to water and trying to force the horse to drink. It's totally up to them, we give them the basics and it's up to them.

Katie said the role of teacher was "facilitator of learning about the government and how it operates and all that and encouraging students to be active and involved."

All agreed that teachers have to impart information. Shane added that getting parents involved is important. But, Katie explicitly stated that encouraging students was the role of the teacher whereas Cambry did not seem comfortable making that statement. However, Cambry may be more realistic because in the end, it is the student's choice.

Summary

In this chapter, the qualitative and quantitative findings were presented in the order in which they corresponded to the research questions. Particularly interesting findings included participants' ideas regarding influencing and undue biasing of their students. In terms of social studies teaching assignments, participants most preferred U.S. History while economics was the least preferred. Teaching civics or U.S. Government was the third preferred assignment. In another interesting finding, only 35% of the sample had taken the primary coursework recommended by the American Political Science Task Force on Civic Education. Not surprisingly, more coursework in political science correlated with participants' perceptions of feeling prepared to teach a lesson on a political science subtopic. Another interesting correlation was the positive relationship between previous experiences with politics or debate, negotiation, and compromise and intentions to influence students to participate. The most mentioned method of teaching was simulation or role-play followed closely by lecture discussion. Overall, this study examined whether secondary pre-service teachers felt they should teach social studies classes primarily to promote civic competence and whether they felt equipped to do so. It seems that some of these pre-service teachers are equipped to do so, but many do not feel adequately prepared.

Chapter V

Discussion and Recommendations

This study examined whether secondary pre-service teachers feel they should teach social studies classes primarily to promote civic competence and whether they feel equipped to do so. This chapter presents the discussion of the findings, implications for teacher education programs and recommendations for future research. The discussion of the qualitative and quantitative findings is organized by research question.

Perceived Responsibility for Promoting Civic Efficacy

Although most participants said, "yes" (88.1%, n=170) to item 36, which asked if participants would combat young people's lack of involvement in politics and "yes" to item 40 (86.9%, n=166), which asked if participants felt they should influence their students to participate, their comments indicated that many are not comfortable with the idea that they are influencing their students. The comments from the respondents answering "No or Maybe" to items 36 (11.9%, n=23) and 40 (13.1%, n=25) indicate that some pre-service teachers do not understand that they are unavoidably influencing their students no matter what they do. Overall, many seemed to be uncomfortable with saying to their students, "You should vote!" While the vast majority of participants answered item 33 in the preferred manner suggesting that they will combat young people's lack of political involvement, this also may indicate that their responses were socially acceptable rather than reflecting the participants' own ideas.

How Prepared and Competent Pre-service Teachers Are

In response to item 8 that asked participants to rank their most desired teaching assignment, 100 (out of n=202) listed U.S. history as their most preferred teaching assignment, 46 listed world history, and 22 listed Civics/U.S. government. Economics was listed as the most preferred teaching assignment by only 7 participants. Since schools appear to frequently assign government and economics to the same teacher and since very few participants preferred to teach economics, some teachers may be discouraged from teaching government or civics classes. This discouragement may be compounded if end of course tests for high school economics become widespread and teacher evaluations are linked to student performance on those tests.

Slightly more than half of the sample (54.4%, n=112) said they would seek a job that would require them to teach civics or government classes. Even more (93.8%, n=195) stated that they would accept a job that would require them to teach civics or government classes. Therefore, the prospect of teaching civics or government does not seem to be a deterrent when participants were considering their job possibilities. However, many noted in their comments that they would take whatever job they could get, thus indicating that competition for positions and economic factors played a part in their answers.

The overall preference for teaching history may indicate that pre-service teachers are not prepared to teach civics or to teach for civic engagement. Participants' reports of subject area coursework backed up this conclusion. Participants had taken an average of almost 8 college courses in history (4.21 in U.S. history and 3.60 in world history), more than any other social studies subfield. However, participants had taken an average of only 4 political science courses (2.66 in American government or politics, 0.89 in IR or comparative

politics, and 0.64 in political theory). Only 42.9% of the sample (n=88) had satisfied the primary credit hour recommendations of the APSA Education Committee, and 11.2% (n=23 of the 88) had completed all of the advanced coursework recommendations. Additionally, APSA suggests that the primary coursework include one class in each of the following areas: introduction to American government and politics, introduction to comparative government and politics, international relations, and political philosophy or history of democratic political theory. From the data, it is impossible to determine if the political science coursework of these 88 participants was spread across the areas suggested by the APSA task force. However, the results showed that the more political science courses a participant had taken, the more likely he or she was to feel prepared to teach topics related to government or civics. Notably, coursework in American government and politics increased participants' perceptions of preparedness more than coursework in political theory, and political theory coursework increased participants' perceptions of preparedness more than coursework in international/comparative politics. For example, the correlations between "How prepared are you to teach a lesson on processes of federal lawmaking" and coursework in American politics were (tau-b = 0.368, α=0.01, n=202); coursework in political theory (tau-b = 0.262, α=0.01, n=202); and coursework in international/comparative politics (tau-b = 0.239, α=0.01, n=202). These correlations are indicative of most of the other subtopics sampled in Table 8 (see Chapter 4). Although the textbook guides many undergraduate classes, there are many influences on the students besides the textbook including the instructor, fellow students, and interest level just to name a few.

It seems that some of these pre-service teachers are equipped to teach for civic engagement, but many do not feel adequately prepared. Since many do not feel adequately

prepared, they will not be confident about implementing the social studies goal of teaching for civic engagement. In addition, many may not want to teach a class in government or civics, and these same individuals might shy away from teaching civics, government, and political concepts in other social studies classes. Therefore, history being the preferred teaching assignment is not surprising.

Academic and Non-Academic Experiences With Government and Politics

Almost half (43.2%, n=89) of the participants had taken part in activities requiring debate, negotiation, or compromise in high school or college (item 13). Of those 89 participants, 48 (52.2%) rated their overall experience as "very positive" and 40 (43.5%) rated it as "positive." Of these 89 participants, 72 (78.3%) reported that their experiences with debate, negotiation, and compromise would either "strongly influence" or "moderately influence" their teaching. In addition, participants' "yes," "no," and "unsure" responses to item 13 were correlated with their "yes" or "no" responses to item 36 (ρ=0.124, α=0.05, n=191). Therefore, it appears plausible that having experiences with debate, negotiation, and compromise in high school or college could affect how a pre-service teacher intends to influence young people regarding civic engagement.

Only 40 participants (19.5%) reported being a member of a community civic organization (item 20). This could have been underreported because participants were not sure what a community civic organization was. However, the reported data aligns with the reports of national group membership changes (Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Putnam (2000) tracked national levels of group memberships reporting that the numbers of community based associations had increased recently, but he also noted that in

actuality, many of these new groups were "mailing list" organizations that had no local members.

When asked if they were or had ever been politically active, 119 (58.3%) participants responded positively. These 119 politically active participants also rated their political experiences as overwhelmingly "positive" (62.1%, n=72) or "very positive" (35.3%, n=41). Of these 119 participants, 100 (86.2%) reported that their experiences with politics would either "strongly influence" or "moderately influence" their teaching. In addition, participants' "yes" or "no" responses to item 26 were correlated with their "yes" or "no" responses to item 36 (ρ=0.131, α=0.05, n=189) and with the "yes" or "no" responses to item 40 (ρ=0.156, α=0.05, n=188). Therefore, having opportunities to take part in politics could also influence how pre-service teachers perceive influencing students to participate.

Item series 32 reflected a wide range of participation levels among the participants. Given the young age of the sample (68.4% were ages 20-24), it is likely that the 80.3% (n=167) who reported "always" voting in presidential elections is an inflated figure. Since 2000 may have been the first presidential election for many participants, they may have been more likely to inflate their responses given the increased emphasis in the 2000 election on the difference that one vote can make. Verba, Schlozman, and Brady (1995) state that since individuals perceive voting to be a civic duty, self-reports are likely to be inflated. However, it could be that pre-service teachers are more active than the rest of their peers. For the 2000 presidential elections, 32.3% of young people ages 18-24 voted, and 45.4% of young people ages 18-24 were registered to vote (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002). In midterm elections, the voting rate for young people ages 18-24 was 16.6% in 1998 of 39.2% registered (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002). On item 32.2, 37.3% (n=76) reported "always" voting in midterm elections. More research is necessary to answer this question of whether the inflated

responses are due to the question wording, socially desirable answers, or if pre-service teachers are indeed more active than their peers.

In 1989, data were gathered through personal interviews of approximately 2 hours from 2,517 respondents on the volunteer activity of Americans. Verba, Schlozman, & Brady (1995) reported that 34% of the sample had made some type of contact with a political official. Emailing or writing letters to political officials was reported by 52.9% (n=110) of the pre-service teachers. However, only 10.1% (n=21) reported emailing or writing letters either "most of the time" or "always."

Some agreement was indicated by the volunteer data and the pre-service teachers' data on the item of joining a political party. Pre-service teachers reported joining a political party either "sometimes" (10.7%, n=22), "most of the time" (8.3%, n=17), or "always" (28.6%, n=59). Verba, Schlozman, and Brady's volunteer data (1995), showed that 48% of their sample had joined a political organization. Although this seems to indicate agreement between the two data sets, the volunteer data could have included interest groups as Verba, Schlozman, and Brady defined a political organization as one who takes stands on issues. Most pre-service teachers (62.5%, n=130) had never joined an interest group. Alternatively, 37.5% (n=78) of the pre-service teachers had joined one.

The volunteer data set indicated that 8% had volunteered for a political campaign and that 24% had made campaign contributions. The pre-service teachers had similar percentages as 26.4% (n=55) reported making a campaign contribution "sometimes", "most of the time," or "always." More pre-service teachers indicated that they had volunteered for a political campaign as 22.6% (n=47) reported "sometimes" volunteering, 7.7% (n=16) reported doing so "most of the time", and 6.7% (n=14) stated they "always" did so. More

research is necessary before any conclusions can be drawn regarding the pre-service teachers' participation in political activities as compared to other Americans.

Intended Use of Methods, Strategies, and Programs

Some participants (7.73%, n=15) had no idea how they would teach civics or government concepts when they responded to item 39 which asked them to identify which methods they would use in teaching civics/government concepts. Further, 40 participants did not respond to item 39. Of course, they could have been experiencing fatigue at this point in the survey instrument. However, this explanation is unlikely because only 17 did not respond to item 40, the following item in the survey. This could indicate that they also did not have any idea of how to answer the question.

Of those who did respond, simulation and role-play (21.7%, n=42) were mentioned most frequently followed closely by lecture/discussion (20.1%, n=39) and active learning (11.3%, n=22). However, although 22 participants' comments included the phrase "active learning" and were coded as "active learning, " many did not elaborate how their methods would be active. It may be that their professors differ in how they define the term "active learning" since it does not have a common definition beyond implying some type of student centered activity.

Beliefs Regarding Influencing High School Students to be Politically Engaged

There were two major strands of thought evident from participants' responses to item 36, which asked if participants would combat young people's lack of involvement in politics. Some participants thought that influencing high school students to be politically engaged was beyond their job description or inappropriate for teachers (11.9%, n=23).

However, most participants (88.1%, 170) seemed to think that they could influence their students to be politically engaged, but differed in their comments as to how to achieve this goal. The differences emerged in what they viewed to be the main way to go about achieving this goal. Some saw it as a function of the curriculum (48.2%, n=79), while others saw it as the role of the teacher (23.8%, n=39), or as bringing in relevant material (9.8%, n=16). Still others viewed it as incorporating service with relevant materials (8.5%, n=14) or providing opportunities for action in politics through either service or simulation (3.7%, n=6). Only three (1.8%) emphasized the transmission of citizen duties or stressed students' responsibilities as American citizens. Participants' responses in the second strand believing they could influence students be politically engaged were categorized using these six factors.

The comments from the interviews indicated the same two major strands as well in that most interview participants (n=6) were comfortable encouraging their students to be active and involved citizens. Others did not seem to be comfortable influencing their students to become politically engaged. In addition, although most indicated that they felt free to teach, Shane mentioned that "people fear being accused of indoctrination." Others cited community influences and student attitudes as possible barriers. It is evident that most of the participants felt teachers do have a role in teaching civic engagement. However, some limit that role short of active encouragement for participation.

Conclusions and Implications for Teacher Education Programs

This study's significance is that it demonstrates how unprepared students are for the task of teaching government in not only the amount and focus of their coursework but also in their attitudes toward civic education. This is the first time that pre-service teachers' attitudes towards civic education have been examined in a national study and it indicates that

better preparation for teaching civics and government is needed. This study documents what citizenship preparation skills and attitudes pre-service teachers have developed through their teacher education programs. It also investigates their ideas about how to develop active citizens. Ultimately, the pre-service teachers' future students must assume roles as engaged, critical citizens if the overall health of American democracy is to be preserved. Achieving the goal of teaching for civic engagement requires a blend of content and methods knowledge.

When teaching the social studies methods class, professors should encourage pre-service teachers to influence their future students for political participation by modeling good citizenship and teaching the basics of voting procedures such as voter registration. Horwitt (1999) surveyed 1,005 young people ages 15-25 in November 1998 and conducted 6 focus groups in 4 cities with young people ages 18-24. Horwitt's participants felt that schools should register young people to vote (46%) and teach students how to operate voting machines. He found that young people wanted to hear their teachers encourage participation. Horwitt's focus group participants felt this would make a difference. This could include saying, "You should participate," and modeling good citizenship by discussing why one votes.

When advising pre-service teachers on subject area course selection, professors should recommend courses in American politics first. This advisement recommendation is for classes taken after the first introduction to American government course and assumes that all other things such as quality of instruction are equal. Next, classes in political theory should be recommended. Finally, courses in international relations or comparative politics should be recommended. This prioritizing of political science coursework is justified since

higher correlations with perceptions of teaching preparedness were obtained with American politics coursework than political theory or international relations.

Teacher education programs should provide opportunities for students to engage in activities that require debate, negotiation, and compromise since participants perceived these types of activities as being "very positive" (52.2%, n=48) or "positive" (43.5%, 40) and as being a "strong influence" (32.6%, 30) or "moderate influence" (45.7%, 42) on their future teaching. In addition, colleges should encourage students to become involved in political life and governance in their communities or local governments. This encouragement is justified for two reasons. One, the 40 participants (19.5%) who had been a member of a community civic organization rated their experiences as "positive" (50.0%, n=20) or "very positive" (50%, n=20); and 80.0% (n=32) reported that the experience would "strongly influence" or "moderately influence" their teaching. Two, of the 119 (58.3%) participants who reported being politically active, 97.4% (n=113) described their experiences as either "positive" or "very positive" and 86.2% (n=100) then stated that their political experiences would "strongly influence" or "moderately influence" their teaching. College based experiences with local government would facilitate pre-service teachers assigning similar work to their future students. It may be that the methods class should provide the link to the curriculum; therefore, enabling the pre-service teacher to see the theoretical benefits for their students to engage in similar activities whether it is volunteering in the community or participating in a simulation or role-play. Thus, students would have experienced the activity firsthand as well as studied it from the perspective of a teacher.

Some of the comments from item 40 indicate a reluctance to influence students to participate. This item seemed to be a sticking point for some participants as their comments emphasized that it is not a teacher's place to influence any student. But, the question then

becomes whose job is it to influence students? Although educators are by no means solely responsible for creating engaged citizens, a teacher may be the only positive role model for many students in terms of civic engagement.

In addition, none of the survey items suggested telling students who to vote for or to impose an ideology on them. But, several participants felt it necessary to qualify their "yes" responses with a comment indicating reluctance to indoctrinate students. While deciding who to vote for may very well be a controversial issue, whether to teach the importance of voting, or the process of how to vote, should not be controversial as voting is the bare minimum for participation. Perhaps Beale's (1937) work examining how free teachers perceive themselves to be is still relevant as a self-imposed restriction on political discussion and civic influence seems fairly common.

As was stated in chapter one, the people must be informed for meaningful consent to be granted. Voting in a representative democracy is key to expressing consent or lack of it and is the simplest means of transmitting citizens' policy preferences to politicians (Bennett & Resnick, 1990). Dewey (1916) and Locke (1690/1966) both have stated that democracy depends on educated citizens consenting to their government. NCSS (2001) has taken a strong position on citizenship education as a professional obligation. Since schools and in particular social studies educators have the responsibility of educating future citizens, they might as well work towards the goal of creating educated and engaged citizens.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study examined whether secondary pre-service teachers feel they should teach social studies classes primarily to promote civic competence and whether they feel equipped to do so. Some of these pre-service teachers seem to be equipped to do so, but many do not

feel adequately prepared. Further research should examine why these pre-service teachers do not feel adequately prepared. In addition, future research should further examine how those who feel they are prepared plan to achieve this goal of promoting civic competence. Beale's work (1937) should be replicated in part to determine whether prepared pre-service teachers perceive constraints on their teaching even if there are no obvious external constraints or whether community and parents' views contribute to these concerns.

The answers to these questions will contribute to discussions centering on the concern that students' attitudes toward political participation decline while in high school. Additionally, research should explore the potential relationship between students' decline in attitudes towards political participation and the fact that pre-service teachers graduating in 2002 represent a generation known for its low levels of political knowledge and efficacy (Horwitt, 1999; Putnam, 2000; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). A possible research question is how do younger teachers' political attitudes and efficacy shape how they teach and to what degree?

Since this research randomly sampled research extensive universities without regard to the type of social studies teacher education program they had, future research should examine whether differences between social studies teacher education programs are a factor that influences students' attitudes and efficacy. For example, differences in 6-year programs with a subject area Bachelors degree, traditional Bachelors degree in education, and other programs should be explored. This sample had examples of these programs but did not explore these differences.

Further research should also compare the differences between universities to determine if these differences shape the social studies teacher education programs in any way. For example, how do the differences between pre-service teachers in research

extensive universities, liberal arts schools, and teacher colleges influence the social studies teacher education programs? Would the mission of a college or university make a difference in its graduates' teaching intentions? Given the sample, some teacher education programs at large research institutions may not be providing some pre-service teachers with opportunities to plan how they would teach important government or civics concepts. Regardless of the size of the institution, a pre-service teacher's program of study should contain some discussion of the types of teaching methods that are most effective for civic engagement.

Studies that track and evaluate the development of pre-service teachers through their third year of teaching would also be beneficial. These studies could examine the influences of universities and schools. University influences might include content area coursework and professors as well as education coursework and professors. School influences might include the student teaching supervisor in the school, the mentor teacher in the first years of teaching, administrators, colleagues, the degree of emphasis on professional development, and staff development programs. This type of research would enable a greater understanding of the development of the pre-service teacher's own teaching preferences as well as the effect of maturation.

Finally, more research is needed that combines qualitative and quantitative traditions. Qualitative research is uniquely suited to studying teacher education because teaching is a highly complex and subjective practice and programs vary tremendously. In addition, qualitative research seems ideal for studying how pre-service teachers come to favor teaching through inquiry and role-play or simulation methods as opposed to lecture. However, before any widespread changes are made in teacher education programs, quantitative studies that have been informed from the qualitative findings should be conducted. The quantitative studies could inform whether the qualitative findings could be used across a

wide variety of institutional and geographic settings. In addition, quantitative studies could examine educational outputs such as the political knowledge levels of students and their political participation activities.

Educators and parents should encourage students and adults to be willing to participate. Putnam (2000) offers advice on how to do this through emphasizing process knowledge, service learning, smaller schools and more extracurricular activities, as well as challenging youth to come up with their own solutions. In other words, citizens should get connected to their local communities. But, several actors have to listen and take action in order for Putnam's ideas to be implemented in such as way as to have more than a slight impact. Hart (1989) and Harwood (1993) also identify partnerships as essential. Teacher educators such as methods professors must emphasize the impact that social capital and civic engagement have on our communities in order for future teachers to be able to understand their role as an agent of political socialization. Teachers should impart to their students knowledge of how political participation processes interact so that students are aware of the effects of their actions or non-actions. Future research should utilize a mixed methods design to evaluate the impact that this ideal type of educational program would have.

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Appendix A

Letters and Emails to Professors Requesting Permission

September 10, 2003

<Department>
<CollegeSchool>
<University>
<Address1>
<AddressN>
<Address2>

Dear Professor <ProfLastname>

I am a doctoral candidate in my last year of study in the Department of Social Science Education at the University of Georgia. I am working with Dr. John Hoge, Dr. Pat Nickell, Dr. Mary Hepburn, Dr. Ronald VanSickle, Dr. Paul Schutz, and Dr. John Maltese on my dissertation titled, "Civic Education as a Goal of Social Studies: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Pre-service Teachers" (See attached). I am seeking your participation and that of your students in this research.

Your institution has been randomly chosen in a sample of twenty research extensive institutions as a potential site for administration of a twenty-minute questionnaire to pre-service teachers who are enrolled in a "methods of teaching secondary social studies" course. Your participation is very important to maintain an adequate and generalizable sample. The University of Georgia Institutional Review Board for Research has approved this survey, and I will obtain similar approval from your institution if you agree to participate in this study.

I will provide you with the aggregate results of this study as well as information on where your institution fell in the distribution. In order to ensure confidential and unbiased responses from the students, I will ask you to designate a student to distribute and collect the surveys that will then be returned to me in a sealed postage-paid envelope.

Feel free to contact me if you have any questions. I can be reached by phone at 706/613-0202 or by email at proach@coe.uga.edu. I will be contacting you to ask if you will participate, when you would prefer to administer the survey, and how many students you have in your class(es). If you prefer, feel free to email this information to me instead. Thank you for your assistance. I am looking forward to working with you.

Sincerely,

Pamela S. Roach
Doctoral Candidate

Dear Dr. <ProfLastname>,

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in "A Survey of Pre-Service Teachers' Preparation for Meeting Social Studies Goals." In order to implement the survey, I need the requested information and your signature on the form below indicating your willingness to participate. <Prof_University>'s Institutional Review Board (IRB) wants this statement printed on your institution's letterhead and the original to be mailed to them. Also, please fax a copy to me. As soon as your institution's IRB approves the study, I will contact you to set up a time for the survey administration. I look forward to working with you and appreciate your assistance with my study.

Sincerely,
Pamela Roach
Home: 706/613-0202 (If you need to contact me by phone, please try this number first)
University of Georgia Social Science Education Department: 706/542-7265
University of Georgia Social Science Education Department Fax: 706/542-6506
proach@coe.uga.edu

You may wish to copy and paste the following on your letterhead.

□□ ********** **TEXT TO COPY** ********** □□

Yes, I am willing to participate in Pamela Roach's study titled "Civic Education as a Goal of Social Studies: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Pre-service Teachers". The purpose of the study is to examine secondary pre-service social studies teachers' attitudes and beliefs concerning their role in civic education. I will allow my students an opportunity to complete the survey "A Survey of Pre-Service Teachers' Preparation for Meeting Social Studies Goals" during my methods class.

Please sign to indicate your agreement: **X**_____
Signature of Professor Date

1) How many students are enrolled in the methods class(es)?_____
2) Name of methods course:_____
3) Course Number and Prefix:_____

□□ ********** **TEXT TO COPY** ********** □□

Please mail the completed letter to your IRB (ATTN: IRB Administrator, IRB Address) and fax a copy to me (706/542-6506).

Appendix B

Letter Requesting Permission From Institutional Review Boards

October 19, 2001

<Department>
<CollegeSchool>
<University>
<Address1>
<AddressN>
<Address2>

Dear Professor <ProfLastname>

I am working on my dissertation, and the sample involves several institutions including <University>. My study, "Civic Education as a Goal of Social Studies: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Pre-Service Teachers," has been approved by University of Georgia's Institutional Review Board. The project number is H2002-10260-0, and the chairperson of University of Georgia's Institutional Review Board (human subjects) is Dr. Christina Joseph. She can be contacted by phone at 706/542-3199 or by email at CAJ@OVPR.uga.edu. My major professor is Dr. John D. Hoge and he can be reached at 706/542-7265 or at jhoge@coe.uga.edu.

I am enclosing copies of my approval letter and the application that I filed with Dr. Joseph including survey consent forms, a statement for the professor to read before administering the surveys, interview consent forms, the survey instrument, and the interview protocol. I am requesting approval or authorization from your IRB be granted for stage one of my study (surveys only). This would entail students in <Name_of_Class> class being offered an opportunity to participate in my study. The professor is <Proffirstname> <ProfLastname>. I will forward a hard copy of the professor stating they are willing to participate as soon as I receive it. I request that you send a letter indicating that my study is approved or authorized by your IRB to University of Georgia's IRB. The fax is 706/542-5638, and the address is UGA Human Subjects Office, 606A Boyd GSRC, Athens, GA 30602. If you have any questions, please contact me at 706/613-0202 or by email at proach@coe.uga.edu.

Sincerely,

Pamela S. Roach
Doctoral Candidate
Enclosures (3)

Appendix C

Consent Forms – Interviews and Surveys

Consent Form - Interview

I agree to participate in the research titled **"Civic Education as a Goal of Social Studies: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Pre-service Teachers"** which is being conducted by **Pamela Susan Roach**, Dept. of Social Science Education **(706) 613-0202**, under the direction of **Dr. John Hoge**, Dept. of Social Science Education **(706) 542-7265**. I understand that this **participation is entirely voluntary**; I can withdraw my consent at any time without penalty and have the results of the participation, to the extent that it can be identified as mine, returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

1. The following points have been explained to me:
    - The reason for the research is to examine secondary pre-service social studies teachers' attitudes and beliefs concerning their role in civic education.
    - The benefits that I may expect from it are opportunities to reflect on my student teaching experience as well as to receive assorted civics lesson plans or activities. I may also receive technology instruction if I wish.
2. The procedures are as follows: The researcher will meet with me at a time and in a setting of my choosing. The researcher will explain the study and get my permission to take part in the study. With my permission, the researcher will audiotape the session using a pseudonym to refer to me. If the session goes over an hour, the researcher will stop and suggest a ten-minute break. The session will continue only with my permission.
3. No stresses or discomforts to me are foreseen.
4. No risks to me are foreseen.
5. **The results of my participation will be confidential.** That is, the researcher can use my comments as long as there is no way for those comments to be traced back to me. The researcher will remove all identifiers from the data and assign a pseudonym that will be used on the audiotape and in all transcripts. All audiotapes will be kept until the end of the study in a secure location and then destroyed. The data from my interview will not be released in any identifiable form without my prior consent, unless otherwise required by law.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by phone at (706) 613-0202 during the school year or at (870) 932-5493 from late May to mid-June.

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Participant Signature	Date	Researcher Signature	Date

PLEASE SIGN BOTH COPIES OF THIS FORM. KEEP ONE AND RETURN THE OTHER TO THE INVESTIGATOR.

Research at the University of Georgia which involves human participants is overseen by the Institutional Review Board. For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.

Consent Form - Survey

I agree to participate in the research titled **"Civic Education as a Goal of Social Studies: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Pre-service Teachers"** which is being conducted by **Pamela Susan Roach**, Dept. of Social Science Education **(706) 613-0202**, under the direction of **Dr. John Hoge**, Dept. of Social Science Education **(706) 542-7265**. I understand that this **participation is entirely voluntary**; I can withdraw my consent at any time without penalty and have the results of the participation, to the extent that it can be identified as mine, returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

1. The following points have been explained to me:
   - The reason for the research is to examine secondary pre-service social studies teachers' attitudes and beliefs concerning their role in civic education.
   - The benefits that I may expect from it are opportunities to reflect on my methods class experience as well as to receive assorted civics lesson plans or activities. I may also receive instruction on teaching social studies with technology via email, phone, or Internet if I wish.
2. The procedures are as follows: The survey will be administered taking approximately twenty minutes after consent forms are completed. A student designated by my methods professor will collect the survey and one copy of the completed consent form. The last respondent to turn in their survey will seal the envelope (addressed to the researcher and stamped with necessary postage). My methods professor has agreed to not attempt to view any survey responses and to mail them after administering the survey. Individual responses will not be shared with him or her. At the end of the study, only the aggregate results will be shared with my professor.
3. No stresses or discomforts to me are foreseen.
4. No risks to me are foreseen.
5. **The results of my participation will be confidential.** That is, the researcher can use my comments as long as there is no way for those comments to be traced back to me. The researcher will remove all identifiers from the data. The data from my survey will not be released in any identifiable form without my prior consent, unless otherwise required by law.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by phone at (706) 613-0202 during the school year or at (870) 932-5493 from late May to mid-June.

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Participant Signature Date Researcher Signature Date

PLEASE SIGN BOTH COPIES OF THIS FORM. KEEP ONE AND RETURN THE OTHER TO THE INVESTIGATOR.

Research at the University of Georgia which involves human participants is overseen by the Institutional Review Board. For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.

Appendix D

Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol **Interviewer to Complete this Section**

Name: Age:
Where did you grow up? Race:
What universities and colleges have you attended? *Gender:*

Discussion of their student teaching and how they liked the survey. Rapport building steps.

1) What subjects are you student teaching?

2) In your opinion, should political science, government, or civics should be required in high school? Why or why not? When should the classes be offered (grade level)?

3) Tell me more about how your participation in Student Congress, Model United Nations, Model Arab League, or debate affected you (answer to questions 12-15)?

4) Tell me more about your membership in community civic organizations (questions 20-23).

5) Tell me more about your political activities (questions 26-29).

6) Do you know of any programs designed for civics classes or to enrich civics classes and if so, tell me what you know about them? (Interviewer: Do not mention any programs such as American Promise, Street Law, We the People)

7) Do you or did you talk to your parents about politics? You said ___ on the survey. Could you describe in more detail. How has this influenced how you teach civics and government concepts?

8) Did you ever go to the polls to vote with one of your parents? You said ___ on the survey. How have your parents influenced you politically? How has this influenced how you teach civics and government concepts?

9) How do you identify yourself politically? (Show political ideology chart from survey)

10) Are you active in a party? If so, what activities do you participate in? Has this influenced how you teach civics and government concepts?

11) On the survey, you indicated three concepts (question 38) as what you would most want to emphasize if you were teaching a civics/government class. (Read answer). Why did you pick these three concepts? *If they are student teaching a civics class, ask:* Would you still choose the same three?

12) On the survey, you listed the following methods (question 39) that you would use to teach those three concepts. Why did you choose these methods? Would you still choose the same methods? *If left blank*, inquire why they left it blank.

13) In general, what strategies and methods would you prefer to use when teaching civics issues? How do you intend to use technology in teaching these concepts or topics?

14) What type of classroom climate will you build? How important is an open classroom climate for encouraging students to become active citizens?

15) Have you taught any lessons dealing with civics concepts? If so, what lessons did you teach and how did you teach them (methods used)? Also, what were the students' reactions?

16) How has your college experience affected you and how you intend to teach about the government and politics of American society?
    a. Education courses
    b. Content courses

17) How has your coursework dealt with political participation, civic education? How has it affected how you intend to teach civics and government concepts?
    a. Education courses
    b. Content courses

18) What messages or overarching themes have you perceived from or were conveyed to you in your content courses? Education courses?

19) What role should conflict play in teaching civics issues or American political systems high school classes?

(Display card with the following comment): One school of thought on teaching civics emphasizes teaching facts about government and institutions while another school of thought emphasizes the importance of process (Process means the debate, negotiation, and compromise that comprise the government of a diverse people-Hibbing (1998)).

20) What should the balance be in teaching civics issues or American political systems high school classes between the relationship of our governmental institutions and its processes? That is, should the structure of government be emphasized more or the process of governing?

(Display card with the following quote): Verba, Schlozman, and Brady state, *"political participation provides the mechanism by which citizens can communicate information about their interests, preferences, and needs and generate pressure to respond*" (1995, 8p. 1).

1) What do you think political participation means and why is it important for a citizen/person to participate? What is the significance of political participation in American life?

2) Does anything stand in the way of you as a teacher providing a positive influence on high school students to become engaged in civic activity? Or, what conditions must be met for students to become politically engaged?

3) What is the role that teachers should play in civic education across America? Expand on survey question 41.in educating citizens for a democratic society?

4) What role should schools play? as educational institutions? How important is this role?

5) Other details that I may want to clarify from survey will be asked here.

26) Is there anything that I should have asked you that I have not asked?

27) Is there anything you wish to add?

Appendix E

Cover Letter and Statement to be Read Before Survey Administration

November 2, 2002

<Department>
<CollegeSchool>
<University>
<Address1>
<AddressN>
<Address2>

Dear Professor <ProfLastname>

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in my study. <Prof_University>'s participation is critical to the success of my study. I am enclosing an addressed, pre-paid UPS envelope for you to use in returning the surveys to me.

I am sending <Number_of_Students> copies of the surveys and consent forms as well as a set for you to keep as a copy if needed. The statement for you to read before the survey is administered is copied on blue cardstock.

I appreciate your assistance with my dissertation research. Thanks again. If you have any questions, I can be reached at 706/613-0202 or by email at proach@coe.uga.edu.

Sincerely,

Pamela S. Roach

Enclosures (3)

Dr. <ProfLastname>,
Please designate a student to pass out consent forms and surveys. Each student should receive two copies of the consent form and one survey.

Please read the following statement to your methods class before they complete the consent forms. This statement should be read after the consent forms and surveys have been passed out to students.

> "This survey is being conducted by a graduate student. She is studying pre-service teachers who are enrolled in methods classes for her dissertation. She is asking for your help in determining what pre-service teachers like yourselves think about civic education. She really appreciates your feedback and assistance with her research. She will reciprocate by offering lesson plans or technology assistance in teaching social studies via phone, email, or Internet.
>
> Your participation is entirely voluntary; you can withdraw your participation from this study at any time without penalty. Your grade in this class is not dependent in any way on your participation in this study. Also, your responses to the survey are completely confidential—I will not see them at any time or attempt to view them.
>
> This is not a test with right and wrong answers. Instead, your opinions, attitudes, and beliefs regarding these survey items are desired. Please feel free to write on the survey at any point to clarify or explain your answers. However, please follow the structure of the survey without skipping pages or questions unless directed to do so.

Please complete both copies of the consent form and return one with your completed survey. Place the consent form and survey inside this envelope. _____ (name of the designated student) will supervise the sealing of the envelope that I will then mail. Please begin."

Appendix F

Survey Instrument

This survey has been modified to fit on standard size fax paper. For administration, it is printed on legal size paper in a booklet format copied on both sides of the paper.

A Survey of Pre-Service Teachers' Preparation for Meeting Social Studies Goals

Directions: There are no wrong answers to these items. Your opinions, attitudes, & beliefs regarding these items are desired. Feel free to make comments anywhere on this form.

Please return your completed survey and one copy of the consent form to the designated students in your class. These students will place the completed surveys and consent forms in a sealed envelope that your professor will then return to me. Your professor will not have access to your individual responses. Only aggregate level data will be released to your professor. Many thanks in advance for your help with this survey!

If you have any questions, please contact Pamela S. Roach at
Department of Social Science Education
University of Georgia
629 Aderhold Hall
Athens, GA 30602
706/542-7265 (work)
706/613-0202 (home)
proach@coe.uga.edu
IRB Approval #H2002-10260-0

1) What state do you consider to be your home state?_____

2) How many total years have you lived in your home state?_____

3) What is the college or university that you are currently attending?_____

_____

4) What other colleges or universities have you attended?_____

_____

5) What is your undergraduate degree and major:_____

6) What is your graduate degree and major (if applicable):_____

7) Please list the number of classes that you have taken in each subject or content area.

Subject or Content Area	**Number of High School Classes**	**Number of College Courses (B.A. & M.A.)**
U.S. History		
World History		
Geography		
Economics		
American Government, Politics, or Civics		
Comparative & International Politics		
Political Theory		
Sociology		
Psychology		
Other Content Courses – Please list ◆		

8) Which social studies classes do you most want to teach?
Rank in order 1-7 with 1 being the most desired assignment.

Sociology	
Economics	
Geography	
World History	
Civics / U.S. Government	
Psychology	
U.S. History	

9) Would you **accept** a job that would require you to teach civics or government classes?
Yes No Maybe; please explain _____

_____

10) Would you **seek** a job that would require you to teach civics or government classes?
Yes No Maybe; please explain _____

_____

11) For the next items, please circle the most appropriate response to the right of each item indicating how prepared you are to teach the following lessons:

	How prepared are you to teach a lesson ____?	**Very Well Prepared**	**Adequately Prepared**	**Somewhat Prepared**	**Not at All**
11.1	On the informal and formal processes of state lawmaking?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.2	On the informal and formal processes of federal lawmaking?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.3	About defining the types of government?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.4	On identifying the characteristics of a nation-state?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.5	On campaigns and elections?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.6	On your Senators' views and accomplishments?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.7	About minority and majority rights?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.8	On methods of measuring public opinion?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.9	About the relations between federal, state, and local governments?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.10	On comparing and contrasting federal, state and local sources of revenue?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.11	About the rights of a criminal defendant compared with the rights of the community?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.12	On how to think critically?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All
11.13	On media literacy (developing a critical understanding of the nature of mass media, the techniques used, and their impact)?	Very Well Prepared	Adequately Prepared	Somewhat Prepared	Not at All

12) How familiar are you with your state's curriculum standards for civics and government?

Very Familiar Somewhat Familiar Not at All Familiar

13) In high school or college, did you ever participate in activities requiring debate, negotiation, or compromise such as Student Government, Student Congress, Model United Nations, Model Arab League, Debate, Boys or Girls State, or Close-Up?

Yes Unsure No *(If NO, go to item 17)*

14) If yes, please list and describe your involvement.

15) Please rate your overall experiences (from item 14) by circling one of the following:

Very Positive Positive Negative Very Negative

16) To what extent will these experiences influence your teaching?

Strongly Influence	Moderately Influence	Little Influence	No Influence

17) Did you ever go to the polls with one of your parents or family members when they went to vote?

Often Sometimes Not very often Never Unsure

18) About how often do you or did you talk to your **parents** about politics, government, or current events?

Daily Weekly Monthly Semi-annually Rarely if ever

19) About how often do you or did you talk to your **friends** about politics, government, or current events?

Daily Weekly Monthly Semi-annually Rarely if ever

20) Have you ever been a member of any community civic organizations? Yes No *(If NO, go to item 24)*

21) If yes, please list the organizations and your role (member, officer, etc.):

22) Please rate your overall experiences (from item 21) in these community civic organizations by circling one of the following:

Very Positive Positive Negative Very Negative

23) To what extent will these experiences in civic organizations influence your teaching?

Strongly Influence	Moderately Influence	Little Influence	No Influence

24) How much of an impact would you say that government decisions have on you in your life?

Very Strong impact	Somewhat of an impact	Not a very strong impact	Almost no impact	Unsure

25) How much of an impact would you say that your own elected officials' decisions have on you in your life?

Very strong impact	Somewhat of an impact	Not a very strong impact	Almost no impact	Unsure

– 5 –

26) Are you or have you ever been politically active? Yes No *(If NO, go to item 30)*

27) If yes, please describe how you have been or are politically active.

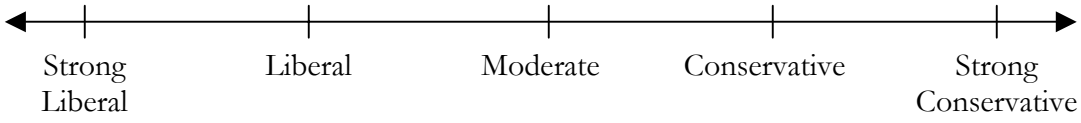
28) Please rate your overall political experiences (from item 27) by circling one of the following:

Very Positive Positive Negative Very Negative

29) To what extent will these political experiences influence your teaching?

Strongly Influence	Moderately Influence	Little Influence	No Influence

30) Which of the following categories describes you? Place an **"X"** on the line indicating your general political orientation.



31) Would your local precinct records show that you are registered to vote?

Yes No Unsure

– 6 –

32) For each of the next items, please indicate how frequently you have engaged or not engaged in these activities by circling the most appropriate response.

Activity		About how frequently have you engaged in this activity?			
		Always	**Most of the Time**	**Sometimes**	**Never**
32.1	Voted in Presidential Elections	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.2	Voted in Mid-term elections	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.3	Voted in Local elections	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.4	Emailed or wrote letters to political officials	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.5	Signed a petition	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.6	Joined a political party	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.7	Joined an interest group	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.8	Volunteered for church work	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.9	Volunteered for community work	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.10	Volunteered for a political campaign	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never
32.11	Made a campaign contribution	Always	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Never

33) The items below are opinion statements. Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with each statement by circling.

33.1	Teachers should tell students to avoid involvement in special interest groups.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.2	Teachers should urge students to take part in school affairs as much as possible.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.3	Teachers should urge their students to express their opinions in order to influence political leaders.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.4	All people have an equal opportunity to exert political influence.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

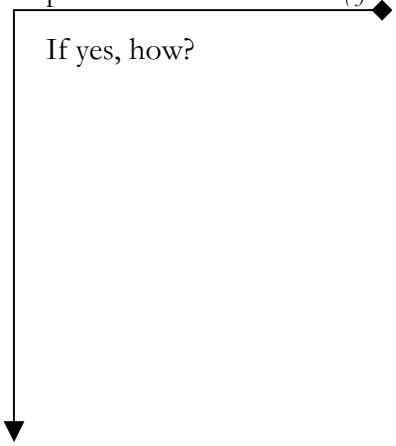
Item 33 continues on the next page →

33.5	Citizens should attend local meetings on problems important to them even if it conflicts with their pursuit of leisure after a hard day's work.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.6	Social studies teachers should NOT encourage eligible students to register to vote.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.7	Without telling students who to vote for, social studies teachers should teach students about the voting process (e.g. campaigns, election cycles, voting methods, representative government, as well as how to register and become informed about the candidates).	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.8	Social studies teachers should limit their attempts to teach critical thinking if parents or administrators object.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.9	Social studies teachers should teach students how to take part in the political process.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.10	Media literacy skills for using TV and newspapers should be taught by social studies teachers.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.11	I vote even if my candidate has little chance of winning.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33.12	I vote in elections for all levels of government—local, state, and national.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

34) Why are you registered or why have you not registered to vote?

35) What do you believe is the most important reason(s) that young people (ages 15 - 24) are not involved in politics?

36) Once you begin teaching, will you combat young people's lack of involvement in politics? Yes No *(If NO, go to item 37)*



If yes, how?

37) What gives a person political power?

38) If you were teaching a civics/government class, what three concepts would you most want to emphasize?

39) What methods would you use to teach these three concepts?

40) Assuming that you can illustrate the importance of political participation to your students, do you think you should influence them to participate? Yes No

Why or why not?

41) Do you feel that your responses to this survey are in any way influenced by recent events related to American politics and government? Yes No

If yes, please explain.

* **Name:** ..... **Age:** ..... **Gender:** .....
Race(s)/Ethnicity (ies): .....
Phone: .....
Email: .....
Grade(s) that you will be certified to teach: .....

*** Your contact information is needed for follow-up interviews. Thank you for your assistance! If I can help you by providing directions to teaching resources, tips, or ideas, feel free to contact me at proach@coe.uga.edu.**

Thanks again for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated. If there is anything else you would like to tell me about the topics discussed in this survey, please do so in the space provided below.

After you have finished completing the survey, please return your survey questionnaire and a copy of the completed consent form to the designated students in your class. These students will seal the envelope after the last person has completed the survey. Thank you!