

Validation of 'Views on Citizenship Education' questionnaire

Vivian E. Santing – 2379139

BMS Educational Psychology Master Thesis

Date: 17-03-2024

First Supervisor: T.H.S. Eysink

Second supervisor: A.M. Van Dijk

Abstract

Citizenship education (CE) has become prominent in educational research and legislation in the Netherlands. Tools to gain insight into teachers' views on CE are still scarce. In this study, the "Views on Citizenship Education" questionnaire is validated through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and expert interviews. This questionnaire originally consisted of nine constructs, each measuring a dimension of CE where opinions from teachers may differ. For example, a construct could measure the differing opinions on whether the focus of CE should be on the political aspects or on the social aspects. The EFA yielded a 6-factor solution, identifying constructs such as 'Inclusivity vs. Exclusivity', 'Positive Influence Parents vs. Negative Influence Parents', and 'Value Stimulation vs. Providing Autonomy'. However, some constructs from the original questionnaire did not load onto any factors, indicating the need for refinement. Expert interviews provided valuable insights into construct clarity, relevance, and dimensions of CE not addressed in the questionnaire. Recommendations for questionnaire revision were made based on both statistical results and expert feedback. While the questionnaire shows promise as a research instrument for understanding teachers' views on CE, revisions are still necessary to enhance validity. Once completely validated, the questionnaire can serve as a valuable tool for researching CE perspectives and curriculum development in schools.

Introduction

With the growing concerns about social cohesion and threats to the democratic system, Citizenship Education (CE) has become a major point of educational research and legislation in the world. Since 2021, there are new legal requirements for CE in the

Netherlands that aim to expand previous legislation from 2006 (Inspectorate of Education, n.d.). This new law consists of three main points. First, schools should promote fundamental values of democracy (freedom, equality, and solidarity) and social and civic competences, such as behaving according to social norms. Second, CE must be purposeful, coherent, and recognizable, and insights must be provided into the outcomes of education. This means that schools should provide the learning outcomes of their students so that insight can be provided to, for example, the inspection about whether the learning objectives of students are reached. Finally, the school climate must align with the aforementioned fundamental values and encourage students to practice them (Inspectorate of Education, n.d.). The Dutch Freedom of Education right allows schools to be free to design CE to align with their view on education and religious beliefs as long as it is in line with the legislation. However, at both school and teacher level there are struggles to develop and follow a clear vision on CE, as teachers lack a shared understanding of CE, both conceptually and pedagogically (Weinberg & Flinders, 2018). The national curriculum was not revised after the first legislation in 2006, so there was no clear relation between the curriculum goals and CE for subjects that were related to CE (De Groot et al., 2022). Additionally, no time was allocated in the curriculum to cover the additional aspects of CE, which made it unclear who was responsible for organizing CE. Even with the expansion of CE legislation in 2021, it remains vague what is expected from schools (De Groot et al., 2022). It is important for teachers, and schools as a whole, to gain insight into what they think CE in their schools should look like. By gaining insight into teachers' views, schools can work toward refining their curriculum to align with their teachers' values. Furthermore, with the legislation coming from the government, it is interesting for researchers to gain insight into what teachers specifically deem important in their CE. Therefore, the aim of this study is to develop a tool that teachers can use to understand their own view of various aspects of CE, which can also be used as a research

instrument, and to validate this tool, named the ‘Views on Citizenship Education’ questionnaire.

Citizenship Education

Citizenship is a very broad concept. In most ways, it is linked to democracy, but an overarching definition is contested (Geboers et al., 2013). A definition of citizenship is needed before it can become clear what education aims to teach its students about the concept. According to Schurgensky (2005), there are four dimensions to citizenship: 1) *citizenship as status* refers to membership to a particular nation-state; 2) *citizenship as identity* refers to feeling like a member of a certain community; 3) *citizenship as civic virtues* refers to values, attitudes, and behaviors that are associated with being a ‘good citizen’; and 4) *citizenship as agency* refers to citizens as social actors.

Starting in primary schools, attention is paid to citizenship in the school curriculum: Citizenship Education. This education can focus on one or multiple of the dimensions of citizenship mentioned by Schurgensky (2005). Eidhof (2020) speaks of citizenship education when its content meets three criteria. First, the subjects must be characterized by a tension between individual and collective interest or values, or between different collective interest and values. Second, CE is about reaching a solution or consensus about these tensions, whether that is done through resolution between individuals or through institutions or democracy. Finally, he talks about CE when it is about equipping students with “knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable them to act independently in relation to social, societal, or political problems” (p. 38).

Teachers and schools have to think about the desired outcomes for citizens and adjust their CE to reflect that. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) try to answer the question of the type of citizens CE aims to shape. They argue that the interpretation and teaching of democratic

values influence the outcomes of citizenship education and propose three types of ‘outcome citizens’: 1) the personally responsible citizen is law-abiding, works and pays taxes and is responsible in their community; 2) the participatory citizen is more active in their communities’ organizations and knowledgeable about government agencies; and 3) the justice-oriented citizen addresses injustice in society and knows about social movements and how to work towards systematic change (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Depending on the goals of teachers and schools, their CE can be directed to one or more of these outcome citizens.

When teaching CE, teachers and schools should adhere to legislation (Inspectorate of Education, n.d.). This legislation gives direction for how to teach citizenship. CE legislation in Europe focuses on teaching citizenship in three ways. First, learning about democracy is about teaching students the knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes required to participate and contribute to society. Second, teaching through democracy uses democratic situations such as elections in schools to teach students to behave democratically. Finally, teaching for democracy is about teaching students the critical thinking skills and autonomy to be able to contribute to democracy (Joris et al., 2021). However, some researchers argue that current CE legislation in Europe is falling short (Joris et al., 2021). In its current state, it mainly facilitates conformity and support for the modern day societal and political state (Merry, 2018).

Citizenship Education in the Netherlands

Implementing CE in the Netherlands has not been easy. The Netherlands was the last country in Europe to make CE mandatory through legislation (Eurydice, 2005). This is largely due to the importance of ‘freedom of education’ in the Netherlands, where a delicate balance must be found between school autonomy and governmental controls (Dijkstra et al.,

2021). After growing concerns about social cohesion and the norms, values, and behaviors of certain groups, as well as the perceived need for integration of minorities, the CE Active Citizenship and Social Integration law came into effect in 2006 (De Groot et al., 2022). There were however some concerns about this law, as it was deemed vague and there was little attention to the content of CE and the way this should be taught to students (Dijkstra et al., 2021). The 2021 clarification of the CE legislation aimed to specify the legal expectations for schools. It now centers democratic principles, the Dutch constitution and human rights legislation, and imposes these on schools, so that intervention is possible when schools do not adhere to these principles (De Groot et al., 2022). In March 2024, further clarification was provided to Dutch schools in the form of conceptual core objectives for citizenship (SLO, 2024). These core objectives are split up in three domains: (1) school culture, (2) society and democracy, which consists of goals relating to diversity, democratic values, societal involvement, and democratic involvement, and (3) societal issues. Schools can use these core objectives to shape and evaluate their citizenship education. Schools can tailor their CE to their values and school population, as long as they adhere to these objectives.

Dimensions Within Citizenship Education

There are many different dimensions where opinions on CE can differ. These can be related to the way CE is taught, the goals of CE, the primary focus of CE in education, and, for example, the role parents play. Even within the boundaries of democratic rule of law, different opinions are possible, and that does not have to be a bad thing. However, to be able to develop a clear view on CE, it is necessary to be aware of the different dimensions and varying opinions within these domains. Next, various dimensions of CE will be described that emerged from a synthesis of both Dutch and international literature. These dimensions are used as the foundation for the 'Views on Citizenship Education' questionnaire.

In the last decades, there has been an increased focus on global citizenship. In practice, CE can happen at both a local and global level (Joris, 2021; Holden, 2006). For example, students can be taught at a local level by getting involved in their community through projects or community service (Guérin, 2018). Global citizenship can look like a global competencies approach, where students learn the skills to behave in a global society, and global consciousness approach, where students gain a global orientation, empathy, and cultural sensitivity (Dill, 2013, as cited in Goren & Yemini, 2017).

The complexity of the issues students is taught can also differ (Guérin, 2018). Things can be kept simple to not overwhelm the students, or problems can be explained as complex situations which do not have simple solutions. According to Guérin (2018), if problems such as climate change are taught at a small scale, this may diminish the complexity of the issue, which can lead to students developing shallow beliefs about the solutions for such problems. She argues that citizenship education should slowly introduce students to the complexity of reality.

CE can also be taught from a more individualistic or collectivistic viewpoint. Biesta and Lawy (2006) describe current CE as a more individualistic approach, rather than a collectivistic approach where solidarity and social rights are promoted. Other CE researchers argue that collectivism may be the way to create active and effective citizens (Fisher, 2008, as cited in Johnson & Morris, 2010). This approach to CE also influences the goals, and whether the goals of CE are for the needs of society or the needs of individuals. Veugelers (2020) makes a distinction between different types of citizenship. The first is *adaptive citizenship*, which focuses on the needs of the community. Social involvement is seen as an important aspect and attention is paid to the standards and norms of society. This could be seen as a type of collectivistic viewpoint. Alternatively, he describes *individualized citizenship* as focusing on the individual where autonomy is considered important. This

practice highlights the importance of personal development and freedom, which highlights a more individualistic viewpoint. A third type, *critical-democratic citizenship* is a combination of the previous two. It focuses on society but leaves room for individual autonomy.

Citizenship education focuses on two main areas: the political landscape and the social landscape (Nieuwelink, 2021). The focus of research is often on the political domain of citizenship education (Geboers et al., 2013). However, Sincer et al. (2019) found that teachers pay more attention to the social domain of citizenship education. A possible explanation for this is described by Weinberg & Flinders (2018), who say that teachers generally feel ill-equipped to teach about political subjects and focus more on good manners, volunteering, or extra-curricular hobbies. Therefore, while teachers may feel unable to teach about political subjects well, they may in fact deem those subjects more important than the social aspects. Alternatively, teachers may deem the social aspects to be more important for their students than political ones.

The importance of participation, both in society or in democratic proceedings, is often stressed in policy documents (Joris et al., 2021), and participation can be practiced in schools through student boards or mock elections (Sant, 2019). Still, there is a movement that questions this approach and argues for developing autonomy and open-mindedness, which they say cannot be reached to its fullest capacity if the goal of citizenship education is participation (Van der Ploeg & Guérin, 2016). They argue that a non-participatory approach can also be considered good citizenship.

Not only the goals and focus of CE can be different for teachers and schools. There is also discourse about the best way to teach students to deal with differing opinions and conflict with others. Mainstream citizenship education - such as deliberative democratic education - values consensus and peacefulness over conflict (Sant, 2019). Some fewer mainstream ideas within citizenship education have to do with conflict and dissent. The

agonistic perspective says that conflict can be meaningful and important (Van der Ploeg & Guérin, 2016). According to Sant et al. (2020), the emphasis on consensus undermines the importance of disagreement in for example politics.

The importance of diversity has become more apparent in the last decades, and CE pays attention to this as well. In the Netherlands, law prescribes that diversity should be taught in the context of CE (Sincer et al., 2019). However, the extent to which attention is paid to diversity can still vary. On one hand, for example, neo-conservative movements can argue that teaching ethnic diversity weakens the national identity of citizens (Banks, 2012). On the other hand, movements like multicultural democratic education prioritizes plurality and diversity, even if they undermine freedom (Sant, 2019). The type of school might also affect to which extent diversity is taught, as religious schools may be hesitant to teach about a diversity of other religions or sexual diversity (Van Koeven & Leeman, 2010).

Finally, external influences can affect CE at schools. Parents are an important factor that can have an impact on the knowledge, attitudes and skills of students. Some teachers express combatting undesirable behaviors children learn from parents by teaching more ‘acceptable’ behaviors at school (Wood, 2017). Others could see parents as a danger to democratic formation (Van Rees, 2021). Yet other perspectives argue that parents can be a worthwhile addition to CE and that they should be included in the decision-making process about CE in schools (Sant, 2019).

This study

For all these aforementioned dimensions, opinions at both the teacher-level and school-level can differ and the current focus of CE in schools can be on one or more of those dimensions, such as schools focusing on global citizenship. Developing a school vision is the first step for effective CE, gaining insight into one’s own view on varying dimensions can be

a way to start the conversation to develop this shared vision. Views may differ and differing views on CE may not necessarily be a bad thing, but understanding what one deems important can help shape the vision for the school. Therefore, the aim of the current study is to validate the 'Views on Citizenship Education' questionnaire in primary school teachers. This questionnaire, which brings the dimensions of CE to the forefront, is meant to be a tool to investigate and develop this vision on CE in schools, which schools can then use as a basis to discuss and formulate their collective goals for CE. Additionally, when validated, this tool can be used as an instrument for research to gain insight into what aspects of citizenship teachers deem important and where they think the focus should be, which can give insight for policy makers. The validity of this questionnaire is assessed through statistical analysis and expert interviews.

Methods

The data collected in this research is twofold. First, expert interviews were conducted to check the content and face validity of the items in the questionnaire. Additionally, responses from primary school staff on the questionnaire were collected to conduct a factor analysis to check the criterion validity. Therefore, there are two methods of data collection and two sets of participants.

Participants

Views on Citizenship Education questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed among the internship schools of pre-service teachers, and the staff from these schools completed the questionnaire. Informed consent was collected at the start of the questionnaire. In total, 106 primary school professionals from nine primary schools in the Netherlands completed the questionnaire. These professionals were between 20 and 64 years old ($M=$

39.32, SD= 12.48), 81.1% was female and 18.9% was male. 80.2% were working as primary school teachers, the remaining participants fulfilled other jobs at primary schools, such as teaching assistants. Of the teachers, 25.88% worked in lower primary school grades (grade 1/2), 35.29% in middle primary school grades (grade 3/4/5) and 38.82% in upper primary school grades (grades 6/7/8).

Expert interviews. Participants in the expert interviews were three experts in the field of citizenship education research ($M^{\text{age}} = 37$, S.D. = 8.48). Two of them were male, the other was female. The average work experience in the field was 10,5 years.

Materials

Views on Citizenship Education Questionnaire. The primary tool of this research is the ‘Views on Citizenship Education’ questionnaire. A previous version of this questionnaire was developed for research by De Brouwer et al. (2023). First, the participants were asked some demographic questions, such as gender, age, and years of working experience. Subsequently, some information on the type of school, the participant’s job, and their political affiliation were collected. Then, the items from the questionnaire were presented to the respondents. These were 43 items with opposing statements A and B. The questionnaire is displayed in Appendix A. The items were categorized in nine different constructs: (1) Agonism versus Peacefulness, (2) Complex Reality versus Simplified Reality, (3) Direct Influence versus Indirect Influence, (4) Inclusivity versus Exclusivity, (5) Individualism versus Collectivism, (6) Society Decides versus Child Decides, (7) Positive Influence Parents versus Negative Influence Parents, (8) Participation versus Non-Participation, and (9) Social versus Political. The number of items within each construct ranged from four to seven, as some constructs required more questions to cover all topics within the construct. An example of an item is A. *Citizenship Education is especially important for society, which needs to be*

safeguarded and developed versus B. Citizenship Education is especially important for children, who should be able to shape society themselves. The answering scale was a 5-point scale where 1= 'mostly A', 2= 'A a little more', 3= 'A as well as B', 4= 'B a little more', and 5= 'mostly B'. At the end of the questionnaire, participants could leave remarks.

Interview protocol. The second tool used in this research is a semi-structured interview protocol used for the expert interviews. This protocol consisted of information about the study that was read out loud to the expert to inform them and ask informed consent. Subsequently, the interview contained three main questions: (a) whether there were any missing constructs, (b) whether there were any redundant constructs, and (c) if the expert had any remarks about specific items or constructs. The experts had the opportunity to review the questionnaire beforehand, and there was room in the interview to reflect on the feedback and comments the experts had that were not covered with the three questions. At the end of the interview, experts were asked if there was anything not yet discussed that they wanted to add.

Procedure

The questionnaire was distributed by nine pre-service teachers from the University of Applied Sciences among the schools where they conducted their internship. This was done in the period September-October 2023. A link was distributed so that participants could fill in the questionnaire online, and they did so individually. Filling in the questionnaire took about 20 minutes.

The interviews with the experts were held in one-on-one, online meetings with the researcher. These interviews were held in the period of November-December 2023. This was done after the statistical analysis, so the information from the statistical analysis could inform the discussions with the experts. Experts received the questionnaire via email when they agreed to contribute to the research, so that they had the opportunity to review the

questionnaire beforehand, which was optional. At the start of the interview, oral informed consent was collected for both the research and the recording of the meeting. The interview lasted 30-45 minutes and followed the semi-structured interview protocol.

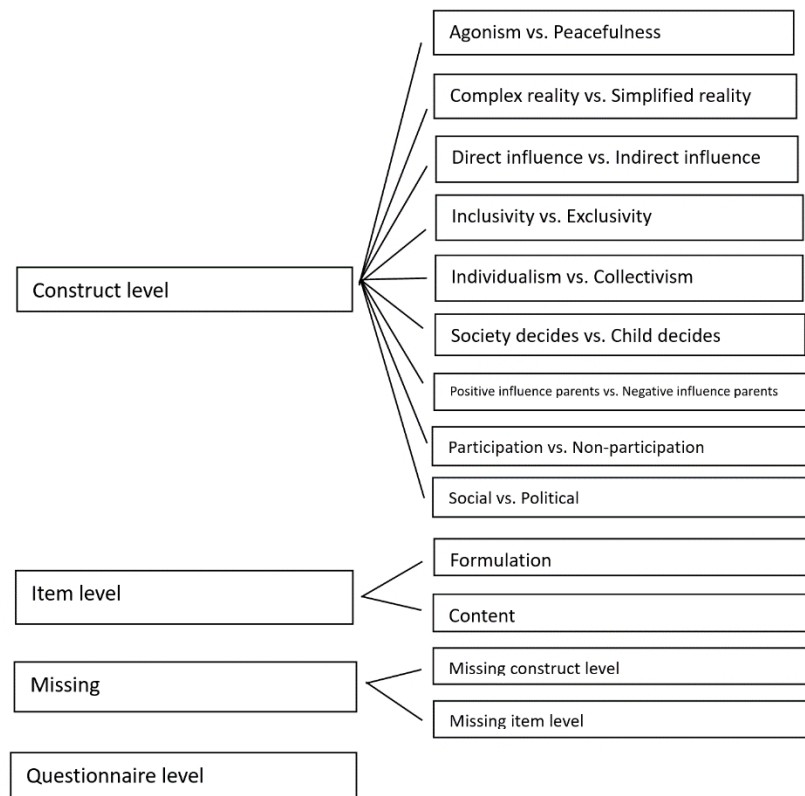
Data analysis

Views on Citizenship Education questionnaire. The data collected from the questionnaire was processed in IBM SPSS Statistics, followed by analysis using JASP version 0.17.1.0 from the University of Amsterdam. To assess the suitability of the data for Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity were checked. The EFA was done using oblimin rotation to permit factor correlation (Field, 2018), which could be expected from this type of data. The number of factors were determined through parallel analysis, which is an alternative method than using eigenvalues or a scree plot, but with promising results (Çokluk & Koçak, 2016). Multiple EFA combinations were conducted, with items with factor loadings below .4 being excluded after a thorough content examination. The content of the items and the results on the model's fit together determined in what order the items were eliminated from the model. The model's quality was assessed using multiple goodness-of-fit indices: the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the chi-square test (Brown, 2015; Prudon, 2015). Criteria for a satisfactory model included RMSEA below .06, CFI and TLI values close to .95, and a non-significant chi-square test (Brown, 2015). For the items in the final factors, reliability is checked through Cronbach's α . A value above .70 is considered good, while a value higher than .90 might indicate that a number of items in a construct may be redundant (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Interviews. The interviews with the experts were transcribed and subsequently coded using Atlas.ti. A codebook was created before the coding started, no open coding took place during the process, as the existing codes covered all topics discussed. The aim of the coding process was to gain insight into the experts' opinions on the various constructs and items in the questionnaire, and whether there was anything still missing from the questionnaire. Therefore, codes were developed that could be divided in four themes (see figure 1). The construct level codes applied to all remarks by experts about a specific construct. There were nine codes within this theme, one for each construct measured in the questionnaire. The item level codes applied to remarks about specific items, regarding both formulation and content of these items. The missing theme covered both constructs and items that were still missing in the questionnaire according to the experts. Finally, the code questionnaire level covered all remarks about the questionnaire in and of itself. These codes were enough to reach the aim of the coding process. The codebook and number of times the codes appeared can be seen in Appendix B. The first interview was coded by two researchers to determine the inter-coder agreement, which was calculated using Cohen's Kappa. As the first round of coding lead to an insufficient agreement, the researchers discussed the disagreements and coded the second interview to reach a sufficient inter-coder agreement. This was reached with Cohen's Kappa being .893. After coming to a sufficient value, the final interview was coded. When coding was completed, the individual codes were inspected to identify the major themes and opinions of the experts within these dimensions.

Figure 1

Codes from the codebook, divided in four major themes.



Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Expert results

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.609, which is slightly above the accepted limit of 0.60 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Additionally, Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant, $X^2(903) = 1922.495, p < .001$. While the KMO measure was not optimal, it was within the acceptable range and the EFA was considered a crucial step in the validation process. Bartlett's test of Sphericity indicated that the data was suitable for EFA, so the analysis was still conducted. The first iteration of the factor analysis showed a 7-factor solution with mediocre goodness-of-fit indices (RMSEA = .040; TLI = .816; CFI =

.885; $\chi^2(623) = 740.204$, $p < .001$). Subsequently, more EFA iterations were conducted where stepwise items with a factor loading $< .4$ were removed. Before each removal, the content of the item was checked, and its effect on the goodness-of-fit indices. This combination of factor loadings and content examination determined the order of item elimination. Additionally, one item was eliminated from the factor analysis because its content did not fit the factor it was assigned to and the model fit improved after removal of the item. This was item 5 (see Appendix A) which loaded onto factor 1. The final model showed a 6-factor solution with good goodness-of-fit indices (RMSEA = .028.; TLI = .961; CFI = .980; $\chi^2(147) = 160.60$, $p = .209$). Table 1 shows the results of the final model of the EFA.

Table 1: Factor loadings of the final Exploratory Factor Analysis

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
16: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in geloofsovertuigingen. // B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in geloofsovertuigingen.	0.832					
18: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor culturele diversiteit. // B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor culturele diversiteit.	0.803					
17: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in politieke overtuigingen. // B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in politieke overtuigingen.	0.521					
14: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor seksuele diversiteit. // B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor seksuele diversiteit.	0.519					
15: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in handicaps. // B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in handicaps.	0.518					
31: A. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen positief bij aan de invulling van burgerschapsonderwijs. // B. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen negatief bij aan de invulling van burgerschapsonderwijs.		0.822				
30: A. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen positief bij aan democratische vorming. // B. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen negatief bij aan democratische vorming.		0.795				
32: A. Ik heb vertrouwen in de bijdrage van de meeste ouders/verzorgers aan burgerschapsvorming. // B. Ik maak me zorgen over de bijdrage van de meeste ouders/verzorgers aan burgerschapsvorming.		0.758				

24: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren zich aan te passen aan hoe de maatschappij de samenleving wilt vormen. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren de samenleving te vormen zoals zij zelf willen.	0.666
29: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet gaan over de competenties die volgens de maatschappij belangrijk zijn. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet gaan over de competenties die volgens kinderen zelf belangrijk zijn.	0.646
23: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral door de maatschappij geaccepteerde normen en waarden stimuleren bij kinderen. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral stimuleren dat kinderen zelf kritisch nadenken over wat goede normen en waarden zijn.	0.570
26: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs is vooral belangrijk voor de maatschappij, die beschermd en ontwikkeld moet worden. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs is vooral belangrijk voor kinderen, die zelf de maatschappij moeten kunnen vormen.	0.570
27: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet de belangen van de maatschappij behartigen. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet de belangen van het kind behartigen.	0.487
28: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet bepaalde opvattingen over goed burgerschap overdragen op kinderen. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet stimuleren dat kinderen nadenken over wat goed burgerschap volgens hen inhoudt.	0.457
11: A. De focus moet vooral liggen op burgerschap binnen de omgeving (de school, de wijk, de stad) van het kind. // B. De focus moet vooral liggen op burgerschap binnen de wereldwijde context.	0.885
12: A. De nadruk bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral liggen op maatschappelijke vraagstukken in de directe omgeving van het kind. // B. De nadruk bij	0.579

burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral liggen op maatschappelijke vraagstukken in de wereldwijde context.

13: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral gaan over problemen binnen de belevingswereld van het kind. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral gaan over problemen buiten de belevingswereld van het kind.	0.546
10: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet alleen gaan over problemen waar het kind directe invloed op heeft. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet over alle soorten problemen gaan. Het maakt niet uit of een kind hier directe invloed op heeft.	0.513
38: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet stimuleren dat kinderen actief deelnemen aan de maatschappij. // B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen zelf leren bepalen of ze actief willen deelnemen aan de maatschappij.	0.820
35: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet ervoor zorgen dat kinderen helpen bij het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen. // B. Kinderen moeten zelf bepalen of zij willen helpen bij het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen.	0.748
37: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet ervoor zorgen dat kinderen maatschappelijk betrokken zijn. // B. Kinderen moeten zelf bepalen of zij wel of niet maatschappelijk betrokken willen zijn.	0.705
22: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moeten individuele belangen centraal staan. // Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet het algemeen belang centraal staan.	0.700
19: A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet individuele vrijheid centraal staan. // B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet solidariteit voor de medemens centraal staan.	0.655

21: A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren zorgen voor zichzelf. // B.

0.456

Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren zorgen voor anderen.

The factors emerging from the EFA show the same structure as the original constructs, although items are missing from certain factors and three constructs did not load onto any factor at all. Therefore, the results from the expert interviews and from the EFA are synthesized to efficiently convey the results of both analyses.

The first factor consisted of five items. These items were originally categorized in the construct 'Inclusivity versus Exclusivity'. This construct originally consisted of all these items, so the name was kept the same. The items in this factor reached Cronbach's $\alpha = .806$. The mean of the factor was 1.62 (SD= .59) Expert 2 called the B-side of the items (see Appendix A for both statements of each item) into question, as these are considered not in line with the law and including them could be considered pedagogically irresponsible. It was therefore pointed out that the teachers' responses would likely cluster on one side of the spectrum. While expert 2 indicated that this is undesirable, expert 3 did not see it as a significant problem, attributing the lack of variation in responses to the context of today's diverse society. As an alternative way to interpret this construct, expert 2 suggested that a survey on the teacher's inclusive practices might reveal a clearer tension field with more variability. Finally, expert 1 noted that ethnic diversity is not yet reflected in the current items.

The second factor consisted of three items. These items were all about the role of parents. The fourth item relating to parents did not load onto any factor. Therefore, this factor retained the name of the original construct, namely 'Positive Influence Parents versus Negative Influence Parents'. Cronbach's α for the items of this factor is .833. The mean of the items in the factor was 2.46 (SD= .77). The fourth item that was categorized into the original construct was omitted from analysis as it did not load onto any factor. Experts 1 and 2 indicated that this construct is more of an empirical question than a measurement of different views. Additionally, the current construct assumes that the school is doing CE well,

and parents can only contribute to it, whether positively or negatively. Two suggestions were given for adjusting this construct: firstly, it is possible to measure whether teachers believe parents are responsible for CE or if the school bears that responsibility. Secondly, it could also be that teachers consider it important for the school to be a protected environment where things can be discussed that are not shared with parents, or conversely, that it is important to involve parents in everything.

The third factor consisted of six items. All six items originated from the construct 'Society Decides versus Child Decides'. One item from the original construct did not load onto any factor and was thus omitted from the analysis. As all items were from the same original construct, its name was retained. The items within this factor reached Cronbach's $\alpha = .741$. The mean of the items in the factor was 3.42 (SD= .59). Expert 1 mentioned that this was an acceptable category. Expert 2 raised a question about what 'society' is, as it is a broad concept. In one item, examples are given: the school, parents, and the government. The expert pointed out that there is indeed a significant difference between these examples and emphasized the importance of making a choice and specifying what society means in this context.

The fourth factor consisted of four items. All four of these items were from the construct 'Direct Influence versus Indirect Influence', which consisted only of these items. Therefore, this factor was exactly the same as the original construct. Its name was kept the same. Cronbach's α for the items in this factor was .719. The mean of the items in the factor was 2.88 (SD= .67). Experts had little to say about this construct. Expert 1 felt that a clear contrast is drawn in the various items. Expert 2 mentioned that a difference in worldview is evident: a communitarian perspective and a cosmopolitan view but suggested that this should be expressed more explicitly in the items.

The fifth factor consisted of three items. These three items were originally from the construct 'Participation versus Non-Participation'. This original construct consisted of six items, but three of those did not load onto any factor and were omitted from the analysis. The items in this factor reached Cronbach's $\alpha = .793$. The mean of the items in the factor was 2.39 (SD= .85). All experts agreed that this construct did not necessarily measure participation versus non-participation. Rather, it seemed to revolve more around neutrality versus value stimulation or encouraging specific behavior versus promoting autonomy. The items that ultimately emerged in the EFA indeed appeared to be more related to autonomy than participation per se, according to expert 3. Therefore, this factor was named 'Value Stimulation versus Providing Autonomy'.

The sixth and final factor also consisted of three items. These items were from the construct 'Individualism versus Collectivism'. This construct originally consisted of four items, but one of them did not load onto any factor and was omitted from the analysis. Likewise, the name of this construct was kept for the factor. The items in this factor reached Cronbach's $\alpha = .625$. The mean of the items in the factor was 3.26 (SD= .59). Experts didn't have many remarks about this construct. Expert 2 emphasized the importance of explicitly framing the opposition between individualism and collectivism differently, as, for example, rights are something that inherently concern everyone. Additionally, the expert stated that taking care of others is only possible when one takes care of oneself as well. Thus, the current items in the construct do not accurately represent the difference between individualism and collectivism it aims to measure. The dimensions of Hofstede (2011) were recommended to further delve into this construct.

Missing constructs and questionnaire-level expert results

The original questionnaire consisted of nine constructs. Of these nine, six were found in the factor analysis, although not all items of the constructs remained in the factor analysis. Three constructs did not load as a factor: ‘Agonism versus Peacefulness’, ‘Complex Reality versus Simplified Reality’, and ‘Social versus Political’. As these were in the original questionnaire that the experts received, they still had remarks about those constructs. These can be used to alter the constructs so that they will be found in statistical analysis in a following validation.

For the construct ‘Agonism versus Peacefulness’, expert 2 wondered whether the items in this construct were always opposites of each other. They questioned whether the items were theoretically mutually exclusive. Some suggestions were provided for changing the wording of certain items and avoiding figurative language.

For the construct ‘Complex Reality versus Simplified Reality’, experts were uncertain about the purpose of keeping societal issues complex or simplifying them. Firstly, they believed it depended on the age of the student. Secondly, the opposition could exist on a pedagogical or didactic level, as it might be that children are not yet capable of understanding the complex reality rather than needing protection from it. Expert 3 mentioned that the A-side of the complex reality sounded discouraging and questioned if that was the intention.

While expert 1 found the ‘Social versus Political’ construct to have a clear opposition, the others disagreed. Expert 2 wondered if there was a communitarian versus republican contrast. Expert 3 believed that the oppositions did not exclude each other. There were also doubts about whether the terms in this construct were understandable for teachers, such as what was meant by ‘political’ or ‘politically skilled’. A suggestion was made to formulate the items in a way that presented clearer oppositions, for example: ‘within citizenship education, it is more important to teach children to get along well with each other than to be politically involved.’

The experts also identified several dimensions within CE that are not addressed in the questionnaire but could potentially be significant. Firstly, it was mentioned that the effectiveness of CE could be questioned, and not all teachers may consider the school as the place for citizenship. Secondly, there was a question about whether teachers believe CE should be the same on every school or if the focus on one school can be quite different from the focus of another school. Thirdly, there was an idea about a dimension connected to ‘Inclusivity versus Exclusivity’ but measuring something slightly different. This would be about how much attention should be given to differences between people and how much attention should be given to what people have in common. Finally, expert 1 indicated that subjectification is missing in this questionnaire. Expert 3 also referred to Biesta’s (2020) triad but questioned whether Biesta intended it as the definitive three functions of education. This expert mentioned not missing the aspect of subjectification in the questionnaire.

Discussion

The goal of this study was to validate the ‘Views on Citizenship Education’ questionnaire through factor analysis and expert interviews. The ultimate goal of the questionnaire, once validated, is to give insight into the views and opinions teachers have about what they deem important in citizenship education, which then can be used both in research and in practice for schools developing their citizenship education curriculum. The EFA showed that the current version of the questionnaire could not yet be considered validated. While the EFA found six of the original constructs in the different factors, not all items of the constructs loaded onto those factors and three of the original constructs did not load onto any factor at all. The expert interviews provided further insights into improvements that could be made to the questionnaire, with major themes being whether the statements in the questionnaire did indeed oppose each other, whether the constructs indeed measured what

they intended to measure, and whether all dimensions within CE were addressed in this questionnaire.

The six factors resulting from the EFA consisted of items that belonged to the same constructs. There were however still remarks made about these constructs by the experts that – together with the results from the statistical analysis – provide grounds and arguments for altering constructs as a whole or specific items. Primarily the constructs ‘Positive Influence Parents vs. Negative Influence Parents’ and the construct ‘Participation vs. Non-participation’ need some attention. The first is deemed more of an empirical question by the experts, which the author agrees with. For example, the item statements ‘A. Most parents/caregivers positively contribute to the provision of citizenship education’ and ‘B. Most parents/caregivers negatively contribute to the provision of citizenship education’, can easily be seen as a more empirical question about the status quo in schools, rather than what the teacher beliefs the desired situation should look like. As this questionnaire aims to measure differing views, instead of empirical questions, this construct should be revised. Additionally, the current construct seems to assume that the school is primarily responsible for CE and parents can only contribute to it. However, an expert suggested that it might be more interesting to measure whether teachers think that the school has the primary responsibility for teaching CE, or if the primary responsibility lies with the parents. Research shows that teachers may have a lack of awareness of the views of parents regarding CE, and they may also hold an assumption that values of parents may be conflicting with those of the school (Holden, 2004). However, there is no clear literature on who teachers think are responsible for CE. Alternatively, the construct could focus on whether teachers *want* to include parents in their CE, and if there should be a balance between the community, the school, the children, and the family (Sarnebti & Freire, 2012). Thus, this should be revised before further validation of the questionnaire.

The second construct concerning participation seems to measure something different from the title, namely the fostering of autonomy versus stimulating specific behavior. This is described well in the proposition by Van der Ploeg & Guérin (2016), who say “fostering political participation and solidarity through education is at odds with the development of autonomy and open-mindedness” (p. 250). Therefore, the factor name is different from the construct name, and additional items should be added that measure this opposition between value stimulation and providing autonomy. The ‘Individualism vs. Collectivism’ factor reached an internal reliability below the acceptable number of .7 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Thus, this construct should also be focused on when improving the questionnaire, and the comments of the experts regarding the framing of the individualistic standpoint against the collectivistic standpoint in a different, more explicit way can be a guideline for this improvement.

The three constructs that had to be excluded from the final EFA model should be revised thoroughly. While the ‘Agonism versus Peacefulness’ construct focuses on conflicting opinions, the research mostly describes the deliberative approach to CE as seeking consensus (Merry, 2018; Sant, 2019). Therefore, the construct could be changed so that it focuses more on reaching consensus and the deliberative process in contrast to allowing different opinions or disagreements that are not easily resolved. The ‘Complex Reality versus Simplified Reality’ construct now argues that societal issues should be simplified to protect the children from negative feelings. The expert interviews revealed that there are different reasons for simplification that are more logical, such as the capabilities for the children to understand the complexity of societal issues. Guérin (2018) also argues for slowly increasing the complexity to students, as to not overwhelm them. Therefore, the construct needs revision so that it is clear what the goal is of simplifying societal issues, and this should be better reflected in the items. Finally, the ‘Social versus Political’ construct should reflect a clearer

opposition in a revised version of the questionnaire. This can be designed in a way that aligns with the difference between liberal individualism, which focuses on the importance of democratic and political processes with no explicit position on social relations and a communitarianism perspective, which focuses more on people's dependency on others and behaving in relation to others (Eidhof et al., 2016).

The expert interviews highlighted some dimensions of CE that were not yet represented in the questionnaire, namely (1) whether the school was the place for CE and if teachers thought CE in schools is effective, (2) if CE should be the same across different schools, and (3) if attention should be paid to the differences between people or what they have in common. While interesting, the first two points were deemed irrelevant to this questionnaire. First, because legislation makes CE compulsory in education in the Netherlands (Inspectorate of Education, n.d.), and second, because this questionnaire aims to measure the views of teachers on Citizenship Education dimensions that they deem important, and not whether or not these should be taught in the same way across multiple schools. The third point is relevant to the questionnaire, but the opposition might not be mutually exclusive. It could be used as a guideline for improving the 'Inclusivity versus Exclusivity' scale, which now suffers from a ceiling effect with a mean score of 1.62 on a 5-point scale.

One thing to consider for this current research is that the sequence of the study is different from the norm in instrument validation (Kalkbrenner, 2021). Expert interviews normally lead to changes in the instrument, which is subsequently distributed among its end-users to validate the instrument through statistical analysis. While the method in this study did not allow for alterations in the questionnaire after the expert interviews, it did allow for the expert interviews to be informed by the data, and thus the constructs that were not shown

in the EFA could be discussed in more detail in the interviews, which can lead to better suggestions for improvement.

Further research should first be directed at improving and validating the instrument. After the research expert interviews, it is important to have interviews with experts with CE in practice and teachers, which are the end-users of the questionnaire. These interviews can be used as further tools to improve the questionnaire. A validated questionnaire can then be used as a research instrument for various purposes related to the views of primary school teachers on CE.

Conclusion

The validation of this questionnaire shows some promising results, but there are still revisions that need to be made to the questionnaire. These mostly focus on the clear opposition of the themes in the constructs, and on specifying constructs so that their theoretical underpinnings are clear and relevant to current CE in schools. Once the questionnaire is validated, it can be used in schools to help them develop a clear vision on CE, and as a research instrument. For example, to inspect the differences between opinions about CE in different types of schools or even across countries. This can provide useful insight into how different schools, districts or countries give meaning to their CE and where they focus on. Therefore, the questionnaire's contribution to research, while needing some revisions, is extremely relevant for schools and their current struggles with giving CE a place in their curriculum and defining their views on CE.

References

- Banks, J.A. (2012). Ethnic studies, citizenship education, and the public good. *Intercultural Education, 23*(6), 467-473. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2012.745986>
- Biesta, G. (2020). Risking ourselves in education: qualification, socialization, and subjectification revisited. *Educational Theory, 70*(1), 89-104. <https://doi.org/10.1111/edth.12411>
- Biesta, G. & Lawy, R. (2006). From teaching citizenship to learning democracy: overcoming individualism in research, policy and practice. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 36*(1), 63-79. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640500490981>
- Brown, T. A. (2015). Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research. Guilford publications
- De Brouwer, J., Klaver, L., & Van der Zee, S. (2023). Montessori's perspective on citizenship education a view from the Netherlands. *Journal of Montessori Research, 9*(2), 28-43. <https://doi.org/10.17161/jomr.v9i2.19418>
- De Groot, I., Daas, R., & Nieuwelink, H. (2022). Education for democratic citizenship in Dutch schools: A bumpy road. *Journal of Social Science Education, 21*(4). <https://doi.org/10.11576/jsse-5381>
- Dijkstra, A.B., Ten Dam, G., & Munninksma, A. (2021). Inequality in citizenship competences. Citizenship education and policy in the Netherlands. In Malak-B. Minkiewicz & J. Torney-Purta (Eds.), *Influences of the IEA Civic and Citizenship Education Studies* (pp. 135-146). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-71102-3>
- Çokluk, Ö. & Koçak, D. (2016). Using horn's parallel analysis method in exploratory factor analysis for determining the number of factors. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 16*(2), 537-551. <https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2016.2.0328>

- Eidhof, B. (2020). Handboek burgerschapsonderwijs: voor het voortgezet onderwijs [Citizenship education handbook: for secondary education]. ProDemos. <https://www.bureaucommonground.nl/s/Eidhof-2019-Handboek-Burgerschapsonderwijs.pdf>
- Eidhof, B.B.F, Ten Dam, G.T.M., Dijkstra, A.B., Van de Werfhorst, H.G. (2016). Consensus and contested citizenship education goals in Western Europe. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice*, 11(2), 114-129. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1746197915626084>
- Field, A. (2018). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage.
- Geboers, E., Geijsel, F., Admiraal, W., & Ten Dam, G. (2013). Review of the effects of citizenship education. *Educational Research Review*, 9, 158-173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2012.02.001>
- Goren, H. & Yemini, M. (2017). Global citizenship education redefined – A systematic review of empirical studies on global citizenship education. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 82, 170-183. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2017.02.004>
- Guérin, L. J. F. (2018). *Group problem solving as citizenship education: Mainstream idea of participation revisited* [Doctoral dissertation, Utrecht University]. Saxion Progressive Education University Press. <https://www.academia.edu/36759967/>
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014>
- Holden, C. (2004). ‘Heaven help the teachers!’ Parents’ perspectives on the introduction of education for citizenship. *Educational Review*, 56(3), 247-258. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0013191042000201163>
- Holden, C. (2006). Concerned citizens. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice*, 1(3), 231-247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1746197906068122>

- Inspectorate of Education (n.d.) Wettelijke opdracht burgerschap [Lawful assignment citizenship]. <https://www.onderwijsinspectie.nl/onderwerpen/burgerschap/wettelijke-opdracht>
- Johnson, L., & Morris, P. (2010). Towards a framework for critical citizenship education. *The Curriculum Journal*, 21(1), 77–96. doi:10.1080/09585170903560444
- Joris, M. (2021). Burgers in de maak? Burgerschapsvorming op school [Citizens in the making? Citizenship education at school], *Pedagogische Studiën*, 98(3), 221–235.
- Joris, M., Simons, M., & Agirday, O. (2021). Citizenship-as-competence, what else? Why European citizenship education policy threatens to fall short of its aims. *European Educational Research Journal*, 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1474904121989470>
- Kalkbrenner, M.T. (2021). A practical guide to instrument development and score validation in the social sciences: the MEASURE approach. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 26(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.7275/svg4-e671>
- Merry, M. (2018). Can schools teach citizenship? *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 41(1), 124–138. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2018.1488242>
- Nieuwelink, H. (2021). Burgerschap en sociaal-emotioneel leren. De overeenkomsten en verschillen. Burgerschap op de Basisschool [Citizenship and social-emotional learning. The similarities and differences. Citizenship in primary school]. <https://www.schoolveiligheid.nl/kennisbank/burgerschap-en-sel/>
- Prudon, P. (2015). Confirmatory factor analysis as a tool in research using questionnaires: a critique. *Comprehensive Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.2466/03.cp.4.10>
- Sant, E. (2019). Democratic education: A theoretical review (2006–2017). *Review of Educational Research*, 89(5), 655–696. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654319862493>
- Sant, E., McDonnell, J., Pashby, K. & Menendez Alvarez-Hevia, D.M. (2020). Pedagogies

- of agonistic democracy and citizenship education. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice*, 16(3), 227-244. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1746197920962373>
- Schugurensky, D. (2005). *Citizenship and citizenship education: Canada in an international context*. http://fcis.oise.utoronto.ca/~daniel_schugurensky/lclp/c&ce.html.
- Sincer, I., Severiens, S., & Volman, M. (2019). Teaching diversity in citizenship education: context related teacher understandings and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 78, 183-192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2018.11.015>
- SLO. (2024). *Conceptkerndoelen burgerschap en digitale geletterdheid. [Conceptual core objectives citizenship and digital literacy.]* Retrieved from https://slo-kerndoelen.files.svdcdn.com/production/uploads/assets/updates/DEF_kerndoelenboekje_BU_DG.pdf?dm=1709640714
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics* (4th ed.). Harper & Row.
- Tavakol, M. & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Chronbach's Alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 53-55. <https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd>
- Van der Ploeg, P. & Guérin, L. (2016). Questioning participation and solidarity as goals of citizenship education. *Critical Review*, 28(2), 248-264. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08913811.2016.1191191>
- Van Koeven, E. & Leeman, Y. (2010). Dilemma's van burgerschapsvorming in het protestants christelijk basisonderwijs: de keuze van kinderliteratuur. [Dilemmas of citizenship education in Protestant Christian primary education: the choice of children's literature.]. *Pedagogiek*, 30(2), 101-120.
- Van Rees, P.D. (2021). Discussiebijdrage: Kohnstamm, Foucault en het burgerschapsoffensies in de onderwijspolitiek en onderwijswetenschap [Discussion contribution:

Kohnstamm, Foucault and the citizenship offensive in educational politics and educational science]. *Pedagogische Studiën*, 98, 236-246.

Veugelers, W. (2020). How globalisation influences perspectives on citizenship education: from the social and political to the cultural and moral. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 51(8), 1174-1189.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2020.1716307>

Weinberg, J. & Flinders, M. (2018). Learning for democracy: the politics and practice of citizenship education. *British Educational Research Journal*, 44(4), 573-592.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/berj.3446>

Westheimer, J. & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(2), 237-269.

Wood, P. (2017). “We are trying to make them good citizens”: The utilisation of SEAL to develop “appropriate” social, emotional and behavioural skills amongst pupils attending disadvantaged primary schools. *Education*, 3(13), 1–14.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/03004279.2017.1339724>

Appendix A: Views on Citizenship Education Questionnaire

Deze vragenlijst bestaat uit 43 vragen verdeeld onder negen categorieën. De vraag is constant: “Waar ben je het meer mee eens? Het gaat om jouw **mening**. Stelling A of stelling B?” De antwoordschaal is als volgt: 1= A veel meer, 2= A iets meer, 3= A en B even veel, 4= B iets meer, 5= B veel meer.

Agonisme vs. Vreedzaamheid

Deze categorie gaat over de waarde van meningsverschillen en onenigheid tegenover de waarde van vreedzaamheid.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
1.	A. Meningsverschillen tussen kinderen kunnen ervoor zorgen dat ze de waarde van conflicten leren te begrijpen.	B. Meningsverschillen tussen kinderen moeten vermeden worden.
2.	A. Kinderen moeten vooral leren dat meningsverschillen waarde hebben.	B. Kinderen moeten vooral leren om meningsverschillen te vermijden of vreedzaam op te lossen.
3.	A. Het is bij burgerschapsonderwijs waardevol om kinderen uit de tent te lokken, omdat ze hiervan kunnen leren.	B. Het is bij burgerschapsonderwijs riskant om kinderen uit de tent te lokken, omdat dit kan leiden tot ruzie.
4.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moeten meningsverschillen bewust worden uitgelokt.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet eensgezindheid bevorderd worden.
5.	A. Onenigheid tussen kinderen laat vooral zien dat opvattingen mogen verschillen.	B. Onenigheid tussen kinderen laat vooral zien hoe communicatie faalt.

Complexe Realiteit vs. Versimpelde Realiteit

Deze categorie gaat over de complexiteit van maatschappelijke vraagstukken en of deze voor kinderen versimpeld moet worden.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
6.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen leren hoe complex sommige maatschappelijke problemen zijn.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs mag kinderen beschermen door de complexiteit van maatschappelijke problemen simpeler uit te leggen dan ze zijn.
7.	A. Kinderen moeten vooral een realistisch beeld krijgen van wat zij zelf kunnen bijdragen aan het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen.	B. Kinderen moeten vooral het gevoel krijgen dat zij persoonlijk kunnen bijdragen aan het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen.
8.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen leren dat sommige maatschappelijke problemen te complex zijn voor simpele oplossingen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs mag kinderen hoop geven door oplossingen voor maatschappelijke problemen simpeler te maken dan ze zijn.
9.	A. Kinderen moeten vooral een realistisch beeld krijgen van wat zij zelf kunnen bijdragen aan maatschappelijke verandering.	B. Kinderen moeten vooral het gevoel krijgen dat zij persoonlijk maatschappelijke veranderingen teweeg kunnen brengen.

Directe invloed vs. Indirecte Invloed

Deze categorie bevat vragen die gaan over waar de focus van burgerschapsonderwijs voor kinderen moet liggen: op onderwerpen waar ze directe invloed op hebben of ook op onderwerpen waar een kind geen directe invloed op heeft.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
10.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet alleen gaan over problemen waar het kind directe invloed op heeft.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet over alle soorten problemen gaan. Het maakt niet uit of een kind hier directe invloed op heeft.
11.	A. De focus moet vooral liggen op burgerschap binnen de omgeving (de school, de wijk, de stad) van het kind.	B. De focus moet vooral liggen op burgerschap binnen de wereldwijde context.
12.	A. De nadruk bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral liggen op maatschappelijke vraagstukken in de directe omgeving van het kind.	B. De nadruk bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral liggen op maatschappelijke vraagstukken in de wereldwijde context.
13.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral gaan over problemen binnen de belevingswereld van het kind.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral gaan over problemen buiten de belevingswereld van het kind.

Inclusiviteit vs. Exclusiviteit

Deze categorie gaat over de aandacht die binnen burgerschapsonderwijs moet gaan naar verschillende soorten diversiteit.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
14.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor seksuele diversiteit.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor seksuele diversiteit.
15.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in handicaps.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in handicaps.
16.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in geloofsovertuigingen.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in geloofsovertuigingen.
17.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in politieke overtuigingen.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor diversiteit in politieke overtuigingen.
18.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet aandacht zijn voor culturele diversiteit.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet geen aandacht zijn voor culturele diversiteit.

Individualisme vs. Collectivisme

Deze categorie gaat over of burgerschapsonderwijs een individualistische of collectivistische insteek moet hebben.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
19.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet individuele vrijheid centraal staan.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet solidariteit voor de medemens centraal staan.
20.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moeten de eigen rechten centraal staan.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moeten de rechten van anderen centraal staan.

21.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren zorgen voor zichzelf.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren zorgen voor anderen.
22.	A. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moeten individuele belangen centraal staan.	B. Bij burgerschapsonderwijs moet het algemeen belang centraal staan.

Maatschappij Bepaalt vs. Kind Bepaalt

Deze categorie gaat over of burgerschapsonderwijs de belangen van de maatschappij moet behartigen of kinderen moet leren zelf inrichting te geven aan de maatschappij.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
23.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral door de maatschappij geaccepteerde normen en waarden stimuleren bij kinderen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral stimuleren dat kinderen zelf kritisch nadenken over wat goede normen en waarden zijn.
24.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren zich aan te passen aan hoe de maatschappij de samenleving wilt vormen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral leren de samenleving te vormen zoals zij zelf willen.
25.	A. De maatschappij (overheid, school, ouders) mag bepalen wat voor burger het kind zou moeten zijn.	B. Kinderen mogen zelf bepalen wat voor burger zij willen zijn.
26.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs is vooral belangrijk voor de maatschappij, die beschermd en ontwikkeld moet worden.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs is vooral belangrijk voor kinderen, die zelf de maatschappij moeten kunnen vormen.
27.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet de belangen van de maatschappij behartigen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet de belangen van het kind behartigen.
28.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet bepaalde opvattingen over goed burgerschap overdragen op kinderen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet stimuleren dat kinderen nadenken over wat goed burgerschap volgens hen inhoudt.
29.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet gaan over de competenties die volgens de maatschappij belangrijk zijn.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet gaan over de competenties die volgens kinderen zelf belangrijk zijn.

Ouders Positieve Invloed vs. Ouders Negatieve Invloed

Deze categorie gaat over de invloed die ouders hebben op burgerschapsonderwijs.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
30.	A. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen positief bij aan democratische vorming.	B. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen negatief bij aan democratische vorming.
31.	A. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen positief bij aan de invulling van burgerschapsonderwijs.	B. De meeste ouders/verzorgers dragen negatief bij aan de invulling van burgerschapsonderwijs.
32.	A. Ik heb vertrouwen in de bijdrage van de meeste ouders/verzorgers aan burgerschapsvorming.	B. Ik maak me zorgen over de bijdrage van de meeste ouders/verzorgers aan burgerschapsvorming.

33.	A. Ouders/verzorgers kunnen de verantwoordelijkheid voor burgerschapsvorming dragen.	B. De school kan de verantwoordelijkheid voor burgerschapsvorming niet aan ouders/verzorgers overlaten.
-----	--	---

Participatie vs. Non-participatie

Deze categorie gaat over de waarde die gehecht wordt aan participatie van kinderen.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
34.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs mag kinderen bezorgd maken over de wereld, zodat kinderen gaan bijdragen aan een betere wereld.	B. Kinderen moeten onbezorgd kind zijn, en hoeven nog niet bij te dragen aan een betere wereld.
35.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet ervoor zorgen dat kinderen helpen bij het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen.	B. Kinderen moeten zelf bepalen of zij willen helpen bij het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen.
36.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral stimuleren dat kinderen meedoen aan acties voor het oplossen van maatschappelijke problemen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral stimuleren dat kinderen leren nadenken over oplossingen voor maatschappelijke problemen.
37.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet ervoor zorgen dat kinderen maatschappelijk betrokken zijn.	B. Kinderen moeten zelf bepalen of zij wel of niet maatschappelijk betrokken willen zijn.
38.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet stimuleren dat kinderen actief deelnemen aan de maatschappij.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen zelf leren bepalen of ze actief willen deelnemen aan de maatschappij.
39.	A. Het is vooral belangrijk dat kinderen oefenen met deelnemen aan democratische procedures, bijvoorbeeld door kinderverkiezingen en de leerlingenraad.	B. Het is vooral belangrijk dat kinderen inhoudelijke kennis opdoen over democratische procedures, bijvoorbeeld door te leren over verkiezingen en de Tweede Kamer.

Sociaal vs. Politiek

Deze categorie gaat over de nadruk die bij burgerschapsvorming op het politieke aspect wordt gelegd of op het sociale aspect wordt gelegd.

Nummer	Stelling A	Stelling B
40.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen leren om goed om te gaan met elkaar.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen leren om politiek betrokken te zijn.
41.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral sociaal vaardig maken.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet kinderen vooral politiek vaardig maken.
42.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral stimuleren dat kinderen hun houding ten opzichte van anderen ontwikkelen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral stimuleren dat kinderen hun politieke voorkeuren ontwikkelen.
43.	A. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral kennis van sociale omgangsvormen overdragen.	B. Burgerschapsonderwijs moet vooral kennis van politiek en politieke vraagstukken overdragen.

Appendix B: codebook

Code titel	Code description	Number of times coded
Construct Level: Agonism vs. Peacefulness	Comments on the construct Agonism vs. Peacefulness, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	4
Construct Level: Complex Reality vs. Simplified Reality	Comments on the construct Complex Reality vs. Simplified Reality, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	3
Construct Level: Direct Influence vs. Indirect Influence	Comments on the construct Direct Influence vs. Indirect Influence, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	3
Construct Level: Inclusivity vs. Exclusivity	Comments on the construct Inclusivity vs. Exclusivity, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	9
Construct Level: Individualism vs. Collectivism	Comments on the construct Individualism vs. Collectivism, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	2
Construct Level: Society Decides vs. Child Decides	Comments on the construct Society Decides vs. Child Decides, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	2
Construct Level: Positive Influence Parents vs. Negative Influence Parents	Comments on the construct Positive Influence Parents vs. Negative Influence Parents, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	2
Construct Level: Participation vs. Non-participation	Comments on the construct Participation vs. Non-participation, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	4
Construct Level: Social vs. Political	Comments on the construct Social vs. Political, including when it comes to how multiple elements within the construct relate to each other or when it concerns missing aspects related to this construct.	3
Item Level: Formulation	Comments on the wording of specific items. The content of the item is not discussed in this context.	5

Item Level: Content	Comments on the content and validity of specific items. This includes the discussion regarding the improvement of the respective item.	7
Missing Construct Level	Missing constructs/themes in the questionnaire that do not relate to the other constructs.	7
Missing Item Level	Comments on a specific topic that is missing within a construct, which could be the basis for an item, or comments on possible items for a missing construct.	2
Questionnaire Level	Comments on the questionnaire itself: the formatting of the questionnaire, the distribution of questions, etc.	16