

# HOW DO WE LEARN TO BECOME GOOD CITIZENS?

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UK research undertaken for the  
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## INTRODUCTION

Research in explicit citizenship education is as new as its post-Crick (QCA, 1998) and post-National Curriculum (DfEE, 1999) context. There is, however, a considerable, if disparate, amount of research in areas such as values education and personal, social and health education (PSHE) that has relevance to educators and researchers. Increasingly, this is being drawn under the remit of citizenship education. In addition to relatively well-established projects like the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) study, and centres such as the long-established Centre for Citizenship Studies in Education at the University of Leicester, further empirically-based research initiatives are developing. The Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre (EPPI) is presently (2003) working on a number of evidence-based research projects concerned with citizenship. Longitudinal studies critically evaluating the effectiveness of citizenship education are already in place (NFER, 2002).

In the shorter and medium-term, school-based inspections - even if these do not constitute 'research' - will provide a developing picture of the delivery of the subject in schools.

Since the subject involves wide collaboration within groups and agencies beyond the school community, a major area for future research will be those sectors external to the school that aid and assist the delivery of citizenship through active participation and wider community involvement - from the financial service sector to the media, from the law and local government to the voluntary sector and NGOs. This review provides some basic co-ordinates of such historic, current and future research in citizenship for practitioners and policy-makers.

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## EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN CITIZENSHIP

Not surprisingly, government has taken an active part in developing education for citizenship, as the following references show, but it is important to recognise that citizenship has strong roots in personal, social and health education (DES, 1988; 1989; NCC, 1990), with which it is still formally associated (DfEE, 1999a; 1999b; 2000; QCA/ DfEE, 1999; DfEE, 2000; Best 2002). Citizenship remains a part of the framework for PSHE in primary and secondary schools, with non-statutory guidance for key stages 1-2 (QCA, 2000) and statutory guidance in key stages 3-4 (DfEE, 1999; QCA, 2001a; Best, 2002). Guidance on its implementation in schools is well supported by QCA (2000, 2001b, 2001c, 2001d, 2001e).

### Key message

While government has recently been active in developing citizenship education, this area has strong roots in earlier work on personal, social and health education.

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## CITIZENSHIP-RELATED RESEARCH

What we can call 'implicit citizenship' has antecedents from the 1970s onwards in relatively marginal initiatives in peace education, global studies, human rights education, and political education (Cogan and Derricot, 1998). With the advent of National Curriculum citizenship many of the areas previously classified under such titles shifted towards formal and explicit identification with citizenship. The most prominent review of related research at this transitional phase linked citizenship to values education (Halstead and Taylor, 2000) This review of values-based research focused on five areas, with related research questions, as follows.

- Social background research
- The development of values through the life of the school
  - How significant is the development of early moral emotions?
  - What does 'caring' mean and how does it contribute to children's moral development?
  - How far do school councils help young people to understand their rights and responsibilities as citizens?
  - Does the involvement of pupils in the formation of classroom rules and social policies on discipline help them develop the motivation to behave responsibly?
  - What kinds of influence can extra-curricular activities have on the behaviour and attitudes of children and young people?
  - How far does the example set by teachers intentionally or otherwise influence the developing values and attitudes of their pupils?
  - What does spiritual development mean?
  - How can schools foster the values of non-discrimination and equal opportunities?
- Theoretical framework and strategies
  - How can schools contribute to the character development of students?
  - What specific strategies and programmes for the development of moral reasoning have been effective in school?
  - How do personal narratives help teachers to understand and influence the moral development of young people?
  - What contribution can the subjects of the National Curriculum make to the development of pupils' values and attitudes?
  - What can religious education and personal and social education contribute to pupils developing attitudes and values?
  - How do the cross-curricular themes contribute to the development of pupils' values, attitudes and personal qualities?
  - How effective is circle time in helping pupils to develop self-esteem and to clarify their own attitudes and values?
  - What other teaching and learning methods have been found effective in influencing pupils' attitudes and behaviour?
- Curriculum and teaching methods
  - What methods have proved effective in identifying developments in pupils' values and attitudes?
  - How can school effectiveness be evaluated in terms of the development of pupils' values and attitudes?
- Assessing and evaluating the development of pupils' values.

**Key messages on 'implicit' citizenship**

The research demonstrates the importance of:

- responding sensitively to the diverse and possibly irreconcilable expectations of national education policy, local communities, parents and pupils themselves, in the light of teachers' personal views and professional expertise;
- working towards shared values, which are given a high profile and made explicit in a range of school policies, structures and procedures understood and owned by all members of the school community;
- developing a whole-school approach to values education, drawing on clear and coherent theoretical frameworks and strategies;
- engaging in ongoing reflection on and review of school life, the curriculum, teaching methods and partnerships with parents and communities to raise awareness of values issues.

**Implications**

Teachers should:

- build, where appropriate, on the foundations of moral development laid in the home and continue to seek partnerships with parents and other carers;
- pay due attention to the development of moral reasoning while not neglecting children's emotional and spiritual development;
- encourage children's active involvement in the running of the school community;
- aim for consistency in reinforcing the school's fundamental values;
- reflect on their own values and on the appropriateness of the example they set through their personal and professional conduct;
- encourage children to take part in a variety of activities which develop character and personal qualities and provide opportunities for them to reflect on the moral issues which arise in these activities;
- ensure that the learning that occurs through their relationships with their pupils through peer interactions and through the life of the school is as positive as possible;
- reflect on the potential within school subjects and cross-curricular themes to raise questions of value;
- explore different methods for developing pupils' values, attitudes, and personal qualities;
- help pupils to develop a sense of their own moral identity and to become gradually more aware of the complex and controversial nature of many moral values;
- focus on specific aims in values education, directed at specific learning outcomes;
- develop methods of measuring and recording pupils' growth and development in these areas.

There are also implications for examining school provision and practices in the development of values, attitudes and personal qualities within the national framework for inspection. Inspectors need to consider evaluation criteria and what counts as evidence for their judgements in the light of the research evidence.

Halstead and Taylor made suggestions for the research community.

'Although we have amassed a very large amount of both conceptual and empirical research evidence in this review, it has become clear that the researchers' agenda is not always the same as the practitioners' agenda. Some areas of school practice are notably under-researched, and these include areas inspectors are currently required to pay special attention in evaluating pupils' spiritual, moral, social and cultural development. In particular, there is little research evidence about how collective worship and teacher example influence pupils' development. There is much more research on moral and social development than on the relatively new domains of spiritual and cultural development, which are still undergoing conceptual clarification. There is also a shortage of experimental research and evaluations of programmes in the UK. The quality of available research is mixed, and generally it pays inadequate attention to issues like cultural diversity and emotional diversity.' (Halstead and Taylor, 2000: 60-61)

The educational trend toward making citizenship *explicit* is, however, a response to dramatic changes in the world in which we live over recent decades. Increased complexity in many aspects of social and cultural, political and educational life has led to educational initiatives like citizenship. Recent international research, for example, on wider factors influencing citizenship education (Kerr, 2003) suggests that:

'The last two decades have witnessed a fundamental review of the concept of citizenship and what it involves in communities across the world. This review has been brought about by the impact of the rapid pace of change in modern societies in the realms of political, economic and social life and the need to respond to this impact. The pace of change is having significant influence on the nature of relationships in modern society at a number of levels, including within, between and across individuals, community groups, states, nations, regions and economic and political blocs. This period of unprecedented and seemingly relentless change has succeeded in shifting and straining the traditional, stable boundaries of citizenship in many societies. There has been particular pressure on the nature of relationships between differing groups in society as well as those between the individual and the state. The pressure has triggered a fundamental review across societies of the concepts and practices that underpin citizenship.' (Kerr, 2003)

Kerr's work on citizenship education across countries in response to such dramatic change (Kerr, 1999a; 1999b; 2000; 2002; Kerr *et al*, 2003) reveals a common set of issues and challenges that the unprecedented pace of global change was presenting to

national educational systems, including:

- the rapid movement of people within and across national boundaries;
- a growing recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples and minorities;
- the collapse of existing political structures and the fledgling growth of new;
- the changing role and status of women in society;
- the impact of the global economy and changing patterns of work and trade on social, economic and political ties;
- the effects of the revolution in information and communications technologies;
- an increasing global population and the consequences for the environment;
- the emergence of new forms of community and protest. (Kerr *et al*, 2003)

Citizenship education, then, is an active - and at present highly transitional - response to these challenges.

### **Key messages on 'explicit' citizenship**

- Citizenship education in national and international context is a response to macro-level changes in the nature of social and cultural, political and economic systems.
- Shifting historical circumstances - social and cultural, political and economic - alter both definitions of, and research agendas for, citizenship education.
- The citizenship education research agenda in England has been dominated by responses to Crick and the introduction of National Curriculum Citizenship.

### **Implications**

- Teachers and policy-makers should draw on current and pre-national Curriculum research into both 'implicit' and 'explicit' citizenship especially where strong and self-evident links exist such as in spiritual, moral, social and cultural identity and involvement in community life.

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## CRICK AND NATIONAL CURRICULUM CITIZENSHIP

The Final Report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship, chaired by Professor Bernard Crick (QCA, 1998), formed the basis of the National Curriculum Citizenship Order that followed a year later (DfEE, 1999). Its aims are evangelical in their sense of mission - fundamentally political as much as educational: 'We aim at no less than a change in the political culture of this country both nationally and locally.' Such a vision and purpose is a challenge to the perceived indifference of young people especially to politics, democratic process and active, community involvement. Yet Crick, and much of what followed from Crick, is contentious, disputed in its most basic terms, and, in terms of the mandate for the use of 'we', highly controversial (as well as self-evidently undemocratic). Davies (1999, 2000) has, for instance, identified close to 300 definitions of citizenship in education. In all of this there are many as yet unresolved implications for teachers, policy-makers, as much as for academic researchers. The role of academic researchers - who may themselves be teachers and policy-makers - is not simply to highlight theoretical issues but to present evidence-based assessments of citizenship. Such research can then inform practice - in community involvement, in classrooms and through policy development.

The Crick Report outlines supposed fourfold benefits of citizenship education:

- for pupils - an entitlement in schools that will empower them to participate in society effectively as active, informed, critical and responsible citizens;
- for teachers - advice and guidance in making existing citizenship provision coherent, both in intellectual and curriculum terms, as part of stronger, coordinated approaches to citizenship education in schools;
- for schools - a firm base to coordinate existing teaching and activities, to relate positively to the local community and to develop effective citizenship education in the curriculum for all pupils;
- for society - an active and politically-literate citizenry convinced that they can influence government and community affairs at all levels.

Crick's transformative aims represent what McLaughlin (1992; 2001) has characterised as a 'maximal' as opposed to 'minimal' definition of citizenship. Crick represents the citizen as having the potential to participate actively in democratic and political processes in the widest sense (a 'maximal' approach) rather than, simply upholding democratic ideals and participating in such according to the regularity of local and national elections through voting (a 'minimal' approach).

The major curriculum conclusions formulated in Crick are a fourfold framework: 'Aims and Purpose', 'Strands', 'Essential Elements', and 'Learning Outcomes'. The three strands are the most prominent and regularly cited aspects of Crick:

- *Social and moral responsibility:*  
children learning from the beginning self-confidence and socially and morally responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other.
- *Community involvement:*  
pupils learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community.
- *Political literacy:*  
pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values.

Social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy - altered only slightly in terminology - form the bedrock of National Curriculum Citizenship that sets out what schools are required to teach under similar headings, expecting pupils to have:

- knowledge and understanding about becoming informed citizens;
  - developing skills of enquiry and communication; and
  - developing skills of participation and responsible action.
- (DfEE 1999)

Most research undertaken to date, with some exceptions, has been concerned with terminological issues about the meaning and definition of citizenship in Crick and the implications of the National Curriculum (Heater, 1999; Flew, 2000; Lawton, Cairns and Gardner 2001; Scott, 2001).

In contrast, the EPPI Citizenship Review, started in 2002, is a major project that has focused on empirical findings and specifically upon the schools-based research question: 'How are schools constructing curricula for citizenship education?' This incorporates a number of additional questions.

- What do schools and their communities identify as the indicators of effective citizenship education?
- What typologies are there of citizenship education in schools?
- How do these relate to the National Curriculum?
- How do these relate to the Human Rights Act?

Aware that 'there has been very little serious research that has addressed models of practice for citizenship education at a school-based level, and very little attempt to integrate notions of citizenship education into broader educational philosophies and practices', the EPPI researchers are also conscious of the need for their research to link to related areas of research, specifically:

- to understand the links between citizenship education and personal development, including spiritual, moral, social and cultural development;
- to understand the relationship between citizenship education and lifelong learning;
- to understand the relationship between citizenship education and learning achievement; and
- to understand the links between citizenship education and the Human Rights Act.

#### Key messages

- Citizenship education in national and international contexts is a response to macro-level changes in the nature of social and cultural, political and economic systems.
- Shifting historical circumstances - social and cultural, political and economic - alter both definitions of, and research agendas for, citizenship education.
- The citizenship education research agenda in England has been dominated by responses to Crick and the introduction of National Curriculum Citizenship.
- This emergent research culture is, like the National Curriculum Citizenship itself, in its absolute infancy.
- Much research post-Crick has been concerned with definitional issues about the nature of citizenship but empirical, evidence-based studies are emerging, while the basic terms of the subject remain contested.

#### Implications

- As suggested earlier, teachers and policy-makers should draw on current and pre-National Curriculum research into both 'implicit' and 'explicit' citizenship.

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## POLITICAL LITERACY

While the Crick Report drew upon empirical investigation of attitudes to political education amongst a wide range of educationists and policy-makers, its principles were based upon the foundational definitions of Citizenship by Marshall (1950). They were adapted to identify three strands in Citizenship which were to prove important to its development as a National Curriculum subject:

- social and moral responsibility,
- community involvement, and
- political literacy.

The most substantial national and international study of citizenship has been the IEA research published by NFER. This began in 1999 before Citizenship was a National Curriculum Subject in England. In Phase 1 each country completed a qualitative case study of citizenship or civic education developments. This provided an overview of approaches to citizenship education as well as a wealth of other contextual information (Torney-Purta *et al*, 1999; 2001). Phase 2 consisted in each participating country testing and surveying 'a nationally representative sample of 14-year-olds about their knowledge of civic-related content, their skills in understanding political communication (*civic knowledge*), their concepts of and attitudes toward citizenship issues (*civic concepts and attitudes*), and their actual and intended participation and practices in this area (*civic engagement and participation*).

In September 2002, NFER and DfES published *England's Results from the IEA International Citizenship and Education Study: What Citizenship and Education Mean to 14 Year Olds*. This contains much of the preliminary study in terms of key findings, and the following boxes contain some of the highlights.

### Key messages

- Fourteen-year-olds in most countries, including England have an understanding of fundamental democratic values and institutions, but depth of understanding varies.
- There is a positive correlation between civic knowledge as a student and participation in the political and civic activities of democratic life as an adult.
- There is scepticism among students in England about traditional forms of political engagement, with the exception of voting. Young people are more open to other forms of involvement in civic life, such as collecting money for a social cause or participation in non-violent protests.
- Teachers recognise the importance of citizenship education in preparing young people for citizenship.
- There is some evidence that the attitudes and beliefs of young people in the study confirm the growth of a 'new civic culture'. (Kerr *et al*, 2001)

### **Implications**

- Schools and community organisations have untapped potential positively to influence the civic preparation of young people.
- Schools that model democratic values and practices, and encourage students to discuss issues in the classroom and take an active role in the life of the school, are most effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement.

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## SOCIAL AND MORAL RESPONSIBILITY

In terms of explicit citizenship, one of the key findings of the IEA study reveals a close correlation between civic knowledge and the capacity for discourse on political and related issues. Where the study found that, in relation to civic knowledge, students in most countries, including England, 'have an understanding of fundamental democratic values and institutions ... there is some concern about their depth of understanding':

'Items on the 'civic knowledge' test were divided into two sub-scales for purposes of analysis: civic knowledge (knowledge of key civic principles and practices, such as what is meant by democracy) and civic skills (being able to interpret civic-related material, such as an election leaflet). In the majority of countries, students were able to answer factual questions (civic knowledge) but found it more difficult to answer questions which demanded skills of interpretation (civic skills). However, England was one of the few countries where students scored highest on civic skills. Students in England had the greatest difficulty in answering items which addressed their knowledge about democracy and government.'  
(Kerr *et al*, 2002)

Arthur, Davison and Stow (2000) point out, however, that there are a great number of ways to be a citizen. Their analysis into normative, communal, pragmatic and individualistic citizenships, which they term 'paleoconservative', 'communitarian', 'libertine' and 'libertarian' suggests corresponding models of citizenship education and an interesting research agenda - see box opposite.

### NORMATIVE-----COMMUNAL

<i>Paleoconservative</i>	<i>Communitarian</i>
Tradition	Collectivism
Loyalty	Democracy
Family	Service
Parochialism	Collaboration
Fraternity	Altruism
Morality	Sense of community

<i>Libertine</i>	<i>Libertarian</i>
Individualism	Market forces
Materialism	Pro-enterprise
Permissiveness	Elitism
Hedonism	Meritocracy
Apolitical	Utilitarian

### PRAGMATIC-----INDIVIDUALISTIC

Researchers acknowledge that there is as yet little evidence to determine actually how schools are managing to implement citizenship. While hypothetical models such as that presented by Arthur, Davison and Stow are enabling the philosophical parameters for investigation the absence of empirical findings is the keen incentive for educational researchers such as those working on the EPPI Review.

### **Key messages**

Four forms of citizenship arise from the Arthur, Davison and Stow analysis:

#### *Libertarian Citizenship*

Libertarian education would at best be about developing the child's competence to operate successfully within the capitalist system, to understand the rules and develop the dispositions of utilitarian creativity and entrepreneurial drive. At worst, it could encourage the practice of deceit.

#### *Libertine Citizenship*

Libertine citizenship education would be radically critical of concepts such as virtue, community, tradition and its aim would not be to extend the common good. Instead, this type of citizenship education would engage in an ongoing struggle to ensure the maximum freedom for each individual.

#### *Palaeoconservative Citizenship*

Citizenship education for the palaeoconservative would mainly be about complying with various kinds of authority. At best, this type of citizenship education would encourage dispositions like respect, responsibility, and self-discipline; at worst, submission, conformity and docility.

#### *Communitarian Citizenship*

Communitarian citizenship education would emphasize the role, depending on the ideological perspective, of 'mediating' social institutions in addition to schools, in their belief that Society as a whole is educative. At best, this would not restrict itself to the transmission of a set of social procedures, but aim to strengthen the democratic and participative spirit within each individual. At worst, it could become majoritarian in approach, insisting on the acceptance of the moral position of the majority in society.

(Adapted from Arthur, Davison and Stow, 2000).

### **Implications**

Teachers, and society at large, should debate these models.

Researchers should continue to seek empirical evidence of where schools stand in relation to these models while making links with previous work on implicit citizenship.

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## **COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT**

A surge of research activity on schools and classrooms as democratic institutions is evident in line with the political, especially democratic, focus of citizenship itself (Roker, Player and Coleman, 1999; Macpherson, 1999; Carter and Osler, 2000; Dalton 2000; Parekh, 2000; Alexander, 2001; Verhellen, 2001; ). This represents a good example of where the research agenda of independent foundations and charitable institutions coincide with an educational research agenda (Baginsky and Hannam, 1999; Pearce and Hallgarten, 2000).

There has been little work concerned with the impact of the non-governmental organisations and the voluntary sector on the teaching of citizenship.

The stress placed upon community involvement has a research implication as well as the more obvious and immediate pedagogical implication. Participation in social action as part of the wider community beyond school necessitates links with pressures groups and the like. These groups are increasingly involved with explicit citizenship education, but there is a likelihood of increased research at least at the level of evaluation of their educational programmes, including impact and effectiveness.

### **School Councils**

In giving pupils and students a voice or a sense of agency the school council can influence and facilitate change in the school environment and develop a sense of empowerment and ownership, as well as key skills. Thus the school council can help transform authority structures, relationships and pedagogical practices. How the school and its staff cope with the institutional change engendered by encouraging students to become active citizens within their own community says much about the school as a social institution and its staff as moral and citizenship educators. As noted in the IEA study, 'Schools that model democratic values and practices, and encourage students to discuss issues in the classroom and take an active role in the life of the school, are most effective in promoting civic knowledge and engagement. However, this approach is not the norm in many schools' (Kerr *et al*, 2002).

Amongst recent research findings on the school as a model of a democratic institution are Taylor and Johnson's (2002) work on school councils and their role in developing notions of citizenship in children. The research involved two phases. The first involved a telephone phase where 50 schools were surveyed (25 primary and 25 secondary) to gain a current picture of school council structure, organisation and effectiveness. The second phase involved more detailed case study work of seven schools (3 primary and 4 secondary), including observation of council meetings, group interviews with councillors, interviews with non-councillors and informal gatherings of staff.

The report, published in May 2002, made a series of recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of school councils as a contribution to citizenship. The main conclusions are in this box.

**Key messages about school councils**

- School councils are only one strategy for personal, social and citizenship education, but they can play a role in developing notions of citizenship in children.

**Implications**

- School councils need to be explicitly and coherently tied into other citizenship provision and practices, which, in turn, means that the learning objectives of school councils must be clear and the outcomes evaluated and recognised.
- To flourish and succeed in achieving their own goals, school councils must be embedded in school-wide relationships and structures which are disposed towards practices such as consultation, respect for the views of students and staff participation and the possibility of change in the school environment.

(adapted from Taylor and Johnson, 2002)

**Participation in social action**

While Halstead and Taylor (2000) point out that too little research has been undertaken on the effects of cultural difference and cultural variations in defining citizenship, the review by Dunkwu and Griffiths (2001) on *Social Justice in Education: Approaches and Processes* demonstrates that active participation, especially with pressure groups and NGOs, can counter dominant and mainstream political parties and representative democracy. How citizenship is defined will therefore fundamentally affect how participation is engendered and responsible action understood.

However participation is understood, as the IEA study points out, 'there is a positive correlation between civic knowledge and participation in democratic life. Specifically, the higher students' civic knowledge the more likely they are to participate in political and civic activities as adults' (Kerr *et al*, 2002).

In terms of attitudes to civic engagement and participation in political activities, the IEA study presents four key findings, as in the box on the next page.

**Key messages on participation in social action**

- Students in England were most likely to participate in discussions about politics with family members, rather than teachers or people of their own age. However, overall the majority of students in England were involved in little or no discussion of political issues at home, at school or with their peers. Young people in England have few opportunities to experience political discussions. This lack of opportunity may have a detrimental effect on students' knowledge, attitudes and engagement with the political process.
- Voting in national elections is by far the most preferred intended conventional political activity of 14-year-old students. A majority of students expressed a readiness to vote.
- A majority, approximately four fifths of 14-year-olds in all countries, including England, do not intend to participate in conventional political activities, such as joining a political party, writing letters to news papers about social and political concerns and being a candidate for a local or municipal office.
- Participation in non-violent protests and illegal activities varies across countries. In England the percentage of students likely to engage in these activities was low compared to most other countries, with only one third expecting to participate in non-violent demonstrations. Only a minority of students in all countries - mainly boys - claimed that they were likely to engage in illegal protest activities such as spray-painting slogans on walls, blocking traffic and occupying buildings.

(Kerr *et al*, 2002)

**Implications**

- Citizenship education, if encouraging 'active' citizenship, has a radical potential for change and for challenge to existing forms of democratic structures.

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## THE FUTURE FOR RESEARCH IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

It cannot be emphasised too strongly that citizenship education research, like the National Curriculum, is in a very early stage of development. Nevertheless, this is also an exciting time for researching an area of developing importance in a devolved UK context, within Europe, and in wider international context. Some of this early work is of variable quality and mixed in terms of the rigour of research methods: this needs to be remedied in the future.

Crick has exerted a major influence on the development of National Curriculum Citizenship but has also been criticised in curriculum terms as well as on socio-political fronts: principally, its conscious lack of strategy for assessment, evaluation and even a basic pedagogy. These matters need to be addressed.

There is increasing consensus on basic terms and on the context of what is meant by citizenship education but the implications of such are far from certain - in terms of pupils, teachers, schools or society.

The DfEE-funded longitudinal review of citizenship aims to monitor the subject's progress over its first eight years, assessing the 'short-term and long-term effects of citizenship education on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of young people aged 11-16'. The research will include two series of surveys:

- a longitudinal survey, based on a complete cohort from a sample of 75 schools (approximately 11,250 students). Young people will be surveyed following entry to Year 7, and again in Year 9, Year 11 and at age 18;
- a biennial cross-sectional survey, with questionnaires completed by approximately 2,500 students in each of Years 8, 10 and 12. Each time the survey is run, a new sample of 300 schools and colleges will be drawn, and one tutor group (about 25 students) from each will take part in the survey.

The research specifically aims to analyse:

- the extent of students' exposure to, and experiences of, citizenship education;
- the development of citizenship skills and understanding as individual students move through secondary school;
- changes in the perceptions of young people over time, as citizenship education becomes embedded in schools. (NFER/ DfEE, 2002)

Longitudinal research will be helpful in relation to the latter but more immediate, local and smaller scale evidence will build up a picture of the impact of the subject's

introduction as inspections are carried out in schools, in universities offering partnership-based initial teacher training, and other in-service teacher training providers.

**Key message**

There is a need and plenty of scope for a variety of rigorous research enquiries, large and small, into the philosophy, curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, funding, and societal consequences of this developing and exciting field of citizenship education.

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